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Executive Director
Arab Society of English Language Studies

Associate Editor
Dr. Robert Arthur Coté
Center for English as Second Language
College of Humanities, University of Arizona, USA

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Dr. JOHN MCKEOWN
English Department, Üsküdar American Academy, Istanbul, Turkey

Dr. Awad Alhassan
Department of Languages and Translation, College of Arts and Applied Sciences, Dhofar University, Salalah, Oman

Dr. Kemboja Ismail
Centre for Literacy and Sociocultural Transformation (CLaST) Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Selangor, MALAYSIA
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Applying Massively Multiplayer Online Games (MMOGs) in EFL Teaching

Hazita Azman
Centre of Literacy and Sociocultural Transformation (CLaST)
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia

Nurul Farhana Dollsaid
Centre of Literacy and Sociocultural Transformation (CLaST)
Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia, Selangor, Malaysia

Abstract
This article explores the use of massively multiplayer online games (MMOGs) as a type of serious games that have English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning potentials. It highlights evidence from a case study which investigated the effects of role-playing in MMOGs on communication behaviours among EFL game players. Additionally, findings from the study elucidate the learning principles of good games that incorporate the dynamics of gaming which induce the language learner to be active generators of information, knowledge and language. Essentially the preliminary findings reported affirm the viability of online games as a potential tool for teaching and learning in the 4.0 era, which endeavours to engage the digital natives of the 21st century. The study thus claims that MMOGs in particular the massively multiplayer online role-playing games or MMORPGs can facilitate in providing contextualized and authentic language interaction opportunities in English between online multilingual speakers.

Keywords: Digital based learning games, EFL communication skills, EFL teaching 4.0, Language learning games, Massively multiplayer online games

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Introduction

Online gaming has grown in popularity due to the advancement of the internet and computer technologies. The nature of online games now varies from casual single-player to multiplayer games or massively multi-player online role-playing games in which millions of players are involved online at once. Players can compete and play the ongoing game as well as communicate with each other through text chat sessions during online gaming. Players can also speak to one another using special audio hardware for voice chats. These particular games are also referred to as serious games. Serious games are introduced with the concept of interactive technology application that extends far beyond the traditional video games. Corti (2006) also states that serious games are all about leveraging the power of computer games to captivate and engage end-users for specific purposes such as to develop new knowledge and skills.

Explorations in the educational potential of computer games have led to wider and deeper interests in the field of digital-based learning games (DBLGs). The impact of computer-based gaming or online games on language learning have especially been significant. Studies on the use of virtual environments and online games in language learning have found benefits ranging from increased motivation and engagement to enhanced vocabulary gains, as well as expanded opportunities for communicative competence (Ariffin, 2012; Berns et al., 2013; Zhang & Kaufman, 2015; Hong et al., 2016; Zhang et al., 2017).

Furthermore, in recent years massively multiplayer online games (MMOGs) have gained attention among researchers in language acquisition. Researchers claim that the rich potential of the immersive graphically 3D game space environments with role-playing features have benefited the second language (L2) learning in providing authentic language development and offering opportunities for contextualized interaction for learner interaction in multiple languages (Kongmee et al., 2011; Gee, 2012; Lee & Gerber, 2013; Lee & Pass, 2014; Azman et al., 2015; Peterson, 2016). A variety of serious games such as World of Warcraft and Ragnarok Online have been viewed as having language learning potentials (Rama et. al. 2012; Sylvén & Sundqvist, 2012). However, to adapt these serious games as DBLG in language learning contexts requires particular pedagogical adaptations by the teachers or learning designers. There is a current dearth in the field of DBLG of an evidence-based pedagogical framework for EFL language learning. Hence this article attempts to address this dearth and add to the literature in the said field.

The study that is reported in this article explores the use of MMOGs, particularly with role playing features or massively multiplayer online role playing games (MMORPGs) as a type of serious games that have EFL language learning potentials for Malaysian classrooms. It specifically investigated the effects of the serious game World of Warcraft (WOW) on communication behaviors among game players who are EFL speakers. This article will highlight findings from the study which proffers an evidence-based guide for pedagogical applications of MMOGs in language teaching contexts as informed by the learning principles of good games (Gee, 2003, 2005, 2008). It reveals the true potential of serious games such as WOW wherein its built-in scaffolding tools can induce language learners to be active generators of information, knowledge and language. Essentially the study affirms the viability of online games, in particular MMORPGs, as a potential DBLGs tool for EFL teaching and learning in the 4.0 era, which endeavors to engage the digital natives of the 21st century.
Related Literature

Recent advances in game technology have introduced MMOGs that can support hundreds or thousands of players at the same time globally. Bawa (2017, p. 154-155) opines that MMOGs have the potential to develop into a useful learning tool that can sustain learner interests while promoting skills such as “communication, evaluation of information, research, problem-solving, critical thinking and literacy, attributable to their immersive environments, and built-in scaffolds for technological and content knowledge”. Many studies have revealed, even though designed for entertainment purposes, or because of it, these types of online games may offer significant motivational incentives in learning. A study by Zhang & Kaufman (2015) and more recently by the Entertainment Software Association or ESA (2016) found that MMOG players can indulge in play from 4 to 6 hours a week, thus underlining its ability to engage a user.

Moreover, previous findings suggest a positive relation between uses of MMOGs in the curriculum and performance outcomes, particularly enhanced motivation and greater critical thinking leading to learning beyond the scope of the classroom (Schrader, 2008; Paraskeva, Mysirlaki & Papagianni, 2010; Perrotta, Featherstone, Aston & Houghton, 2013). Interestingly, these studies commonly find that the built-in features of role-playing in MMOGs motivate and engage players in the games extensively. In these serious games the players control virtual characters or avatars of different role occupations such as mage, cleric, swordsman, archer and many more, who have specific sets of skills and abilities that define the character's role. Over the course, the virtual characters become stronger and progress within the game while the players advances through thousands of quests and levels, gain experiences and skills as well as valuable knowledge towards the end game.

Recent MMORPGs are large-scale permanent virtual worlds providing access to high-quality 3D graphic interfaces, characterized by a high degree of realism and immersion, which enhance the sense of immersion experienced by players, supporting communication, social interaction, role-play and the process of community formation between users (Peterson, 2010). Online virtual 3D worlds offer the opportunity for users to interact in real time situations where players' avatars move, meet and speak with one another directly through speech or by typing into a chat box. Peterson (2010) claims that the rich potential of the immersive graphically 3D game space environments has benefited L2 learning in providing authentic language development and offering an opportunity for contextualized interaction in a learner's target language. According to Peterson, some of these MMORPGs are WOW and Ever Quest II. WOW facilitates groups of players to work together to explore and complete multi-player missions in the game and also to be social (Dollsaid, 2015).

Related research on the use of virtual environments and online games in language learning has found benefits ranging from increased motivation and engagement to enhanced vocabulary gains, as well as expanded opportunities for communicative competence (Milton et. al. 2012; Berns et. al. 2013). Similar studies also reveal learners benefit from interactions with native speakers and diverse interlocutors in an engaging communicative context (Johnson & Levine 2008; Rama et. al. 2012). Therefore there is great potential in integrating digital-based games with language learning purposes as established by these previous researches.
Even so, contrary to these studies, Rankin, Gold & Gooch (2006) reveal that the MMORPG platform does not provide the type of learning support for beginner ESL students and that benefits are limited to intermediate and advanced level students only. Similarly, Rama et al. (2012) reiterate that only proficient players mainly benefit from the collaborative interaction proffered by MMORPGs as it generally requires both, certain game-expertise and confidence with the target language. Additionally, Milton et al. (2012) conclude that there is little opportunity for lexical growth without teacher’s control in MMORPG-based learning activities.

Other related concerns include the lack of understanding and appreciation for the potential of these games as a learning tool by the practitioners or teachers (Ariffin, 2012). Moreover, inadequate training and limited opportunities for professional development on games literacy for teachers did not facilitate them to add digital-based learning in their lessons (Musa et al., 2012; Machado & Chung, 2015). For teachers to apply DBLGs effectively in the curriculum it is crucial for them to first understand how students can learn from these technologies and game designs. In the absence of such knowledge, teachers run the risk of employing game-based lessons that are not a good fit for effective teaching and learning.

Thus, there is a need for teachers who plan to introduce online games as a learning tool to first have an insight and deeper understanding of the design of these games. This is imperative to enable them to recognize that even though the MMOGs were not designed for education, they can be highly useful learning tools when fused with sound curricular designs (Gee, 2012; Wu, Richards & Saw, 2014; Henderson & Romeo, 2015). It is necessary therefore for teachers to be guided on how to discern these elements in the games and have knowledge of how to infuse communicative pedagogical strategies when planning to use learn-play approach. Drawing from Gee’s principles of good games (2008) this study provides an English language practitioner’s guide for teachers who are interested in applying MMORPGs in their teaching. This guideline is supported by evidence from the study that is reported at two levels in this article. The first is data which reveal the game players’ perspectives as language users in relation to the game’s potential as a learning tool to develop communicative skills in English; and the second is evidence to support the effectiveness of MMORPG game design that is analyzed through the principles of good games learning framework.

The Aim of the Study
As inferred above, there are a number of concerns to take into consideration in order to realize the full potential of games as educational tools in the Malaysian context in particular. Firstly, the application of computer games as teaching aids has not been extensively carried out despite the implementation of ICT in Education policy since 2010 that aims to integrate the use of ICT in teaching and learning (Gryzelius, 2015). To date, despite the high investment pumped into ICT for education initiatives by the Malaysian Ministry of Education (MOE), ICT usage in Malaysian schools remains exceedingly low--less than five percent of Malaysian teachers reportedly used the ICT facilities provided daily (Gryzelius, 2015, p. 2).

Secondly, as Pandian (2006) reveals, the continuous technological changes and new patterns of literacy practices have caused many teachers to be trapped in situations where 'illiterates are teaching the literates' (p. 16) when it comes to the use of ICT in the classroom. Many teachers
are not confident in using technology and are ill-equipped to handle students' special needs. Thirdly, as Osman & Bakar (2012) point out, the available games in the market and their suitability aspects should be looked into as well, as Malaysia is a multicultural and multi-ethnic country, and students’ backgrounds as well as their previous learning experiences, which are mainly teacher guided, need to be taken into consideration. Moreover, the learn-play approach (Plass et al., 2015) which requires different learning behaviors may leave the Malaysian students, who are mostly teacher dependent for English language learning especially, feeling lost and not confident of themselves (Adris & Yamat, 2012; Musa et al., 2012). Hence, a practitioner’s guide on how to adapt or adopt a serious game into the local EFL curriculum will facilitate in addressing these pedagogical issues.

This notion is supported by Fortugno & Zimmerman (2005) who argue that as many games do not include sound pedagogical principles in their design, a practitioner’s guide is necessary to assist teachers to create learning opportunities whilst students play the games. They emphasized that it is the teaching environment in which the game is used, that is the learning opportunities that are designed by the teacher around the games, which stimulates learning to occur. Adapting good online games for learning can be easily done according to Gee (2003, 2005, 2008). He recognizes that there are already many good principles of learning built into good computer and video games. He believes that these principles are essential for learners' engagement, learning and success. To illustrate the inherent learning principles built into good games, Gee framed these principles into three constructs: empowered learner, problem solving and understanding.

The study reported in this article applied Gee’s pedagogical framework to examine the language learning elements in the design of MMORPG serious game such as WOW. Specifically, the study endeavors to answer the following questions regarding the potentials of MMORPGs as a DBLG tool for the development of language skills:

1. To what extent is communicative competence enhanced through the MMORPG design of the WOW game?
2. What language learning elements can be identified in the design of WOW based on Gee's principles of good games?
3. Which good games principles are useful and relevant towards designing an effective EFL game-based language learning experience?

Research Design
The selection of research participants for the case study is designed to elicit viewpoints at three levels, firstly at the level of a consistent gaming player, secondly as a future learning games developer and designers, and at the third level as an EFL language learner. Towards this end, five EFL case studies were selected, comprising students from a game design and development program from a tertiary institution. They were between the ages of 18-21 and are familiar with playing online games, especially with the WOW game. The selection process was based on the qualitative snowball sampling method where the participants recommend other individuals to be sampled (Creswell, 2012).
**WOW** was chosen for the study as it is the leading subscribed MMORPG with over 10 million subscribers worldwide. Real-time communication and interactions between player characters (PCs) and non-playing characters (NPCs) is solely internet based. Much of the game's advanced contents direct towards the creation of a guild, a group of players working collaboratively together who complement, socialize and connect with each other to explore and complete multi-player missions in the game (Dollsaid, 2015, p. 35). These players collaborate together to overcome challenges in the game.

The study employed a qualitative case study design to provide an in-depth exploration and understanding of language learning through online games. Detailed views from the five participants in the form of words or images and themes were collated and analysed. Three types of data sources were collated from questionnaire, in-game chat logs and email interviews. The questionnaire was constructed based on Gee's 16 learning principles of good games (2008). It aims to identify the interfaces or design of the online game WOW that incorporates language learning features. Table 1 is a condensed list of the principles of good games categorized into respective constructs that incorporate the learning domain (Gee, 2008, p. 3-11).

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<td><strong>1. Empowered Learner</strong></td>
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<td>▪ <strong>Co-design Production</strong>:</td>
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<td>Gamers help co-design games through their</td>
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<td>decisions and actions.</td>
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<td>▪ <strong>Customization</strong>:</td>
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<td>Users can play — and succeed — at their</td>
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<td>competency level.</td>
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<td>▪ <strong>Identity</strong>:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Players build a sense of identity either</td>
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<td>through direct input or an on-screen</td>
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<tr>
<td>character they inherit.</td>
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<tr>
<td>▪ <strong>Interaction</strong>:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Communication occurs between the player and</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>the game.</td>
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<td>▪ <strong>Agency</strong>:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Players have control over the gaming</td>
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<tr>
<td>environment.</td>
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<tr>
<td>▪ <strong>Risk Taking</strong>:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Empowering players to take risks.</td>
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<tr>
<td>▪ **Manipulation of Smart Tools &amp;</td>
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<tr>
<td>Distribution of knowledge**:</td>
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<tr>
<td>Players employ scaffolding in-game tools that help gain</td>
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The participants responded to five open-ended interview questions designed to elicit comments, suggestions and explanations about their interactions and decisions made in-game. The interview also provide insights into the participants’ perceived language needs as well as their judgment of the language learning elements inherent in WOW’s game design. These interview questions were posed through emails to participants who were geographically dispersed. This method was consistent with Creswell’s (2012) recommendation for collating information from individuals using computers and the internet.

The multiple forms of data were analyzed and evaluated using the content analysis technique. The common and overlapping themes of the data were identified through coding of...
Findings and Discussion

In general, the overall findings from the study show the potential of the MMORPG *WOW* game as a DBLG platform for the Malaysian EFL classroom. The study proves that the game design of *WOW* creates a conducive language learning environment by situating the context of dialogue exchanges and interactive feedbacks in real-time with appropriate contexts. The following sections elucidate the findings in relation to the research questions posed in the study.

Evidence of Communicative Competence in MMORPGs

With regard to the extent that communicative competence is enhanced among the 5 gamers when playing *WOW*, the analysis of the chat logs found evidence that real-time interactions were conducted in the English language and communicative competence was facilitated through cooperative learning, discovery learning and construction of meaning exchanges between PCs and PCs-NPCs. Most notably is the construct of the guild which supported players to teach and learn from each other by soliciting for vocabulary support and strategic communicative skills. More interestingly, the analysis also reveals that the NPCs which are the computer-controlled characters in the game assisted the players by scaffolding the game navigation interactions and requests for explorations at each level of the game. The following Tables 3 through 5 illustrate relevant excerpts of these findings.

Table 3. Excerpt depicting Communicative Competence through Cooperative learning

| [Party Leader]|Minidotz: I hafta leave in about an hour. Do more quests if u want. Explore and all that. When i get home i can keep going with ay |
| Minidotz: Geeeeezzz bad typing |
| Minidotz: You |
| Galiford: ok. Thank u very much. Why are u so kind to help me? |
| Minidotz: Well i know this game is tuff when u first start. It was my friend who helped me get started...or i think i might have quit. |
| Galiford: How many characters u have? |
| Minidotz: 8. The main one i play is a priest. I love priests |
| Galiford: What level is your priest? |
| Minidotz: 90 |
| Galiford: Is that max? Do priests have dragon? |
| Minidotz: No i bought this mount. Costs about 20k gold |
| Galiford: Wow that's nice. That is really expensive pet. |
| Minidotz: Horse not pet. Believe me it’s easier to make gold as u level but u need to have professions |
| Galiford: How to make gold fastest way? |
| Minidotz: Ummm we call it farming. Basically u go out and collect stuff and sell it in AH |

The extract illustrates a conversation between two PCs, one of the Malaysian study participants, *Galiford*, with a party leader, *Minidotz*, from Canada. It obviously exemplifies the collaborative interchange between a newcomer to the level and a master player, respectively. The direct response by *Minidotz*, in explaining why he is helping *Galiford*, who had just joined the game, clearly indicated the team spirit of gaming culture. Additionally, strategic social competence...
skill was demonstrated when Minidotz announced that he would need to leave awhile but reassured Galiford that he would return to the game later to help him, suggesting a continuing rapport and support. This scenario also revealed the underpinning principle of empowering learners, identified by Gee (2008), that motivate players to build their confidence and continuously engage in the game.

The communicative features that can be discerned from this interchange are corrective feedback on word use—“bad typing” in reference to “ya” when he meant to say “you”; whereas the “horse” is pointed out to be a “mount” and not a “pet” as both connote different roles; where the former is purchased for utilitarian use, while the latter is tamed for guardianship. Another example illustrated in Table 4 below demonstrates how communicative competence is enhanced through a discovery learning episode in the game. It illustrates how safe learning (Vygotsky, 1978, p. 86) is created for language practice with support from other players.

Table 4. Excerpt depicting communicative competence through discovery learning

| Minidotz: Where are u. I don't see u on the dragon |
| Galiford: I'm here |
| Minidotz: K. Tell me when |
| Galiford: When what? |
| Minidotz: U ready to fly out |
| Galiford: Ok I'm ready |
| Minidotz: I think we can get u exp just by flying to all these areas and at level 10 we try to see if u can get more gold |
| Galiford: Yeah i get much more than killing monsters. Ok I’m ready. Done |
| NPC Discovered Fields of Honor: 90 experience gained |
| NPC You have learned a new spell: Flash Heal. |
| Minidotz: Nice |
| Galiford: Yeah. I got heal. What does that mean? Is it a skill? |
| Minidotz: Its an addon. U install it and then u get addons to help u play a lil better |
| Galiford: Like a cheat? |
| Minidotz: Sorta but blizzard allows it |
| Galiford: Owh nice |

In the log above the research participant Galiford is further ensconced in the safe learning space of the game by the guild leader Minidotz. The excerpt above shows how Minidotz negotiated the level to enable Galiford to discover about “heal” and learn how to use it. Gee’s principle of understanding in good games is displayed here where the language user learned a new word by experiencing them within game situations. Additionally, it is also evident that the learning environment inherent in the design of good games induced on demand and just in time information, where the player received information, from the PC as well as the NPC, as needed to progress.

Table 5 demonstrates how real-time interaction in the target language between PCs is facilitated through co-construction of meaning and exchanges in the knowledge of vocabulary, expressions and phrases (Vygotsky, 1978). The excerpt shows that individual learner can
undertake functions that they could not carry out independently through interactions with more capable peers and their gaming surroundings.

**Table 5. Excerpt depicting communicative competence through the construction of meaning**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Galiford: How long have u been playing this game? 8 years</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Galiford: U play this every day?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minidotz: Mostly...i don’t watch much tv. This for me is relaxing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galiford: What do you do when your level is max?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minidotz: That’s when u do raiding and arena and BG’s. To get the best gear so u can kill players better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galiford: What is raid and arena?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minidotz: U get in a group with 2 or 3 ppl and u fight against other players. U get points for the best pvp gear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galiford: Owh and BG? What’s the difference?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minidotz: Arena is for skilled players. U can still do them but u might loose all the time. BG's give u points for entry level pvp gear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galiford: So bg is fighting other player too right?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minidotz: Ya. 10 - 20 players depends on the BG</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galiford: Owh so bg is more like a war?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minidotz: Or claim and defend stuff</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galiford: Owh ok i get it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minidotz: The first BG u will do is Warsong Gulch. Its getting enemy players flag and bring it back to your base</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Galiford: owh ok like capture the flag. I get it. Just like Call of Duty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minidotz: Ya.aaa...dont be nervous...just follow the crowd and read wut they say and u soon learn whats goin on</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The negotiation of meaning exchanged above revolved around clarification and comprehension checks. New knowledge is discernably gained by the novice player as the terms and situated meanings for “raid”, “arena”, and “BG”, are clarified and explained by Minidotz who is the expert in this interchange. The communication reached an understanding when Galiford compared ‘capture the flag’ with another game called *Call of Duty*, of which both PCs have a schema of. The excerpt illustrates that Galiford felt safe to make continuous on demand queries of the words introduced as the chat proceeded. This attest to the non-threatening environment created in the virtual space as both players are cognizant of the need for an understanding to be achieved to ensure future successful play. Unfortunately this type of on-demand question-feedback exchanges between teacher and student is not viable in a classroom situation.

In sum, communicative competence strategies (Canale, 1983) were evidently employed by the PCs as they negotiate and scaffold the different scenarios and levels of the game in their quest to overcome the challenges collaboratively. Vygotsky’s socio-cultural theory (1978) explains this phenomenon as processes of situated meaning-making that give rise to the use of relevant, appropriate and rich language engaged in active negotiations of meaning.
**Language learning elements in MMORPG WOW design**

This second research question endeavors to identify both the language learning elements inherent in the design of the MMORPG, as well as the related pedagogical guidelines that facilitate the application of DBLG in the EFL classrooms. The data represent the perceptions of the PCs in the study describing the extent they think the game design facilitates language learning and how they view it will enable teachers to develop game-based language lessons.

Generally, all the PCs found the *WOW* game design incorporated Gee’s principles of good games in varying degrees. A high degree of agreement was shown for four of the seven principles for the empowered learner construct, four of five of the problem-solving principles, and two of four of the understanding principles. Therefore in total 10 of the 16 principles outlined by Gee for good games (refer to Table 1) was identified by the participants to be in-built in *WOW*, suggesting its high potential as a good language learning tool. Table 6 below shows these 10 principles of good games, by its three constructs—Empowered learner, Problem-solving and Understanding, inherent in WOW and found to be relevant to language learning.

Table 6. *Principles of good games inherent in WOW relevant to language learning*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Principles of good games</th>
<th>Empowered Learner</th>
<th>Problem Solving</th>
<th>Understanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Co-design</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Customization</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identity</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manipulation &amp;…</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Well-ordered problems</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pleasantly frustrating</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cycle of expertise</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information on…</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>System thinking</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situated meaning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The aforesaid data is supported by interview responses by the PCs where most of them agree that the MMORPG induces usage of English language in real time and on demand as the players are worldwide and English appears to be the language of choice among the gamers. Although accuracy is not the target, clarity of the situated meaning directs the negotiations in the in-game social setting, as the interactors aim to solve a problem towards a common group goal.
Kongmee et al., (2011, p. 3) refer to this as “collective exploration of goals”. Furthermore, the respondents highlighted that player bonding that evolves is an important motivating factor that provide them with a safe and anxiety-free learning environment fostering collaborative learning. Hsu & Wu (2009) pointed out that this social bonding (as depicted in Table 5) between players is a vital element in engaging players and building trust among co-players.

Even so, the respondents highlighted some issues with regards to the quality of language used in the games. They are concerned that standards of language input is compromised as much of the interaction that occurs are inundated with spelling errors, abbreviations, slangs or a non-standard variety of the language, accents and fragments. Nevertheless, based on their personal experiences, they view that the collective motivation to collaborate and cooperate usually overcomes these issues.

**Good games principles relevant for EFL game-based language learning**

In relation to the third research question, the key language learning skills that the respondents recognize can be developed using MMORPGs are vocabulary skills, functional discourse skills, interpersonal and interactional communication skills, negotiation skills, listening skills, and to some extent reading skills. According to Zhang et al (2017, p. 2) while many studies have argued that MMORPGs can facilitate vocabulary learning, the teacher’s control in the learning activity design is imperative for pedagogical effectiveness. Apart from vocabulary development, the other identified skills as listed above concur with other studies as cited in Zhang et al (2017) that have found positive relationships between MMORPGs and basic language development. These include the impact on speaking abilities (Lai & Wen, 2012), listening skills (Hu and Chang, 2007), and interactional competence (Berns et al., 2013).

Table 7 shows a sample mapping of language learning skills based on Gee’s good games principles for vocabulary and interactional skills. This mapping acts as a practitioner’s guide for EFL teachers who are planning to use DBLG as a teaching tool.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Skills</th>
<th>Good Games Principles</th>
<th>Pedagogical technique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Situated Meanings Customization Information on Demand &amp; Just in Time</td>
<td>Vocabulary chunks Contextual clues Create word list for focus learning Familiarize with sounds, texts, images Identify expert-novice roles Make available multiple source for info on demand.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal and Interactional Communication</td>
<td>Identity Well-ordered Problems Pleasantly Frustrating</td>
<td>Discourse functions tasks: Turn taking, Greetings, clarification requests, confirmation checks, feedback requests, self-correction, Wh-Questions, Exclamations</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Conclusion
This study suggests that virtual spaces in MMORPGs such as WOW provides for social network opportunities that are automatically created once a player joins a guild of players. It creates an open communication channel for everyone to have a dialogue as a team or in pairs. This virtual game environment facilitates socialization and communicative language use for the EFL language learner through authentic active interactions with native speakers and other non-native speakers of the target language. The EFL students engage in augmented speaking practices through the roles adopted by their avatars. This speaking opportunity occurs in a situated context with rich support from fellow players as well as the scaffolding tools, embedded in the design of the games. Unlike life conversations in the real world, the situation of this augmented communication context allows for practice time, reflections on language production and even margin for errors. This space allows them to own and control their learning process in a safe environment without anxiety, and incognito through their avatars. Meanwhile, multiple encounters with other numerous speakers help improve their confidence and build new knowledge as they engage in achieving a collective goal as online players. Hence the findings of this study as discussed are consistent with those identified in prior researches on DBLGs in earlier sections of the article.

In relation to the application of MMORPGs in Malaysian EFL classrooms, this study and other related studies, as highlighted previously in this article, have shown evidence that it is a conceivable way forward for teaching EFL 4.0. The use of this DBLG tool can be pedagogically designed to be adapted and implemented in and out of the classroom and even as a self-learning platform. However, teacher cognition and understanding how to apply the learn-play approach is critically imperative for MMORPGs to be successfully implemented. It is hoped that this study has promoted the potential of non-education based commercial online games and circumvented the limiting notion that only games that are localized culturally (Osman & Bakar, 2012) and designed for learning are feasible for EFL 4.0 teaching purposes.

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About the Authors:
NURUL FARHANA DOLLSAID has a Bachelor’s degree in Human Sciences (English Language and Literature) from the International Islamic University Malaysia and a Master’s degree in English Language Studies from Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0417-9736.

HAZITA AZMAN, Ph.D is Professor of Applied Linguistics and Literacy Studies at the Centre of Literacy and Sosiocultural Transformation (CLaST), Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. She has researched and published in the areas of language policy, ESL literacy practices, multimodal literacies, and literacy assessment.
Applying Massively Multiplayer Online Games (MMOGs)

Azman & Dollsaid

ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3018-5336

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A Corpus-assisted Critical Discourse Analysis of the Discursive Representation of Immigration in the EU Referendum Debate

Ebtisam Saleh Aluthman
Department of Applied Linguistics, College of Languages
Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University
Saudi Arabia

Abstract
This paper presents a critical account of the representation of immigration in the Brexit corpus—a collective corpus of 108,452,923 words compiled mostly from blogs, tweets, and daily news related to Brexit debate. The study follows the methodological synergy approach proposed by Baker et al. (2008), a heuristic methodological approach that combines methods of discourse analysis and corpus-assisted statistical tools including keyword, collocation, and concordance analysis. Drawing on this methodological synergy approach, the investigation yields significant findings contextualized within the socio-economic-political context of the European Union (EU) leave referendum to trace how the issue of immigration is represented in the discourses of the Remain and Leave campaigns. The frequency results show that immigration is one of the most salient topics in the Brexit corpus. Concordance analysis of the word immigrants and collocation investigation of the word immigration reveal opposing attitudes toward immigration in the EU referendum debate. The analysis uncovers negative attitudes toward the uncontrolled flow of immigrants from other EU countries and public concerns about immigrants’ negative impacts on wages, education, and health services. Other findings reveal positive attitudes toward immigrants emphasizing their positive contributions to the UK economy. The study concludes with an argument of the significant association between the political and socio-economic ideologies of a particular society and the language communicated in its media.

Keywords: A corpus-assisted discourse analysis, Brexit, discursive representation, immigration

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Preliminaries: A Historical Account of the Brexit
The term Brexit—a blended word of Britain and exit—came into existence to refer to the UK's official withdrawal from the EU. The EU was formed in the 1950s by European countries that desired to build stronger ties after World War II. In 1952, Belgium, France, Italy, Luxenber, Netherland, and West Germany signed the Treaty of Rome, forming the European Economic Community (EEC). In 1973, the EEC welcomed three new members, the UK, Denmark, and Ireland. A couple of years after joining the EEC, the UK held its first national EEC in/out referendum, and 67.2% of voters chose to stay in the EEC.

On November 1, 1993, the EEC became known as the EU, reflecting the development of the European association from an economic union into a political union integrating 28 members and enacting its own laws and reforms within a flourishing political and economic state. The Schengen visa was introduced in 1995 permitting free movement among EU countries. Even so, the UK did not open its borders entirely like other EU countries. Also, the UK chose to keep the British pound as its official currency rather than approving the Euro (see Hobolt, 2016; Peers, 2016).

In 2009, the EU adopted Article 50 under the Lisbon Treaty, establishing an official mechanism for any EU country leaving the EU. Around this time, many major issues started to incite national calls for the UK to leave the EU. The EU witnessed a great economic collapse in Greece, requiring efforts by all parties to stabilize Greece’s economy. Additionally, the EU experienced floods of immigrants whose preferred destinations were the UK, France, and Germany. Although personally rejecting calls to leave the EU in 2012, Prime Minister David Cameron announced a national in/out referendum under pressure from many of the members of Parliament and the Independence Party. On June 23, 2016, 17.4 million UK citizens voted, and 51.9% of them chose to leave the EU. Cameron resigned immediately. The value of the British pound fell 15% lower than the United States dollar and the UK and the EU began negotiating their divorce bill (see Hobolt, 2016; Peers, 2016).

The term Brexit was analyzed semantically by Fontaine (2017), implementing a systemic functional linguistic approach with a corpus of 1,641,903 words. Buckledee (2018) explores the ways the Leave campaign overcame the Remain party from a linguistic perspective. He investigates the ways language affects the political process as voters are exploited through persuasive and emotive linguistic strategies using influential metaphors and inspiring tones (Buckledee, 2018). Although Brexit has been a major cause of concern in the UK and EU socio-economic-political scenes, the field of linguistics lacks a discursive linguistic analysis of the massive political discourse that has come into existence since the first inclusion of the term Brexit in the Oxford English Dictionary (2012). Among the most provocative issues in the Brexit debate is immigration. A main claim of the Leave campaign is that leaving the EU will allow the UK to better regulate the movement of immigrants from EU countries. The aim of the present study is to investigate the discursive patterns of the representations of immigration in the discourses of the Leave and Remain campaigns utilizing corpus-assisted discourse analysis (CADA) tools. The availability of the two representative sub-corpora, Opinion on Brexit—agreement and Opinion on Brexit—disagreement, with the same amounts of words and tokens (see Appendix A) is important for yielding reliable findings (Baker, 2011). An account of the CADA is given in the following section along with its applications in a variety of contexts.
A Corpus-Assisted Critical Discourse Analysis Approach

The use of corpus linguistics (CL) dates back to the 1950s when compiling an electronic, readable format of a particular language was a novel innovation used by a few linguists with great enthusiasm. A few decades later, CL had been integrated into discourse analysis studies. Sinclair (2004) describes CL and discourse analysis as “the twin pillars of language research. … They both encourage the formulation of radically new hypotheses [and] the dimensions of patterns that they deal with are, on the whole, larger than linguistics is accustomed to” (p. 11). Only a few years ago, the combination of the qualitative methods of discourse analysis and quantitative statistical tools in CL permitted significant developments in the field of discourse analysis. The integration of these two disciplines resulted in the emergence of what was called corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS) (Partington, 2004, 2006). The integration of CL and Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA), which views discourse as “a form of social practice” (Fairclough & Wodak, 1997, p. 258), within this developing body of research has been come to be known as Corpus-assisted Critical Discourse Analysis (CACDA). In a very significant study that initiated this synergy approach, CACDA was taken up by Baker et al. (2008), who investigate the patterns of discourses on refugees and immigrants in a data set of 140 million words in the UK press. Due to its multidisciplinary nature, CACDA research is best considered to be a multidimensional endeavor that can be understood only within the context of its multidisciplinary areas. The most important area of them is CDA.

CACDA has rapidly expanded in the 20th century as a theoretical framework with three main approaches: Van Dijk’s (1996, 1997, 1998, 2001) cognitive-discourse framework, Wodak’s (2001) historical framework, and Fairclough’s (1995) social framework. According to Wodak (2001), CDA is primarily concerned with investigating the associations among language, power, and ideology. Similarly, Van Dijk (1997, 1998) proposes that CDA is best used to uncover discursive representations of inequalities, social prejudices, and discriminatory social practices and how these discursive representations are constituted, maintained, and adapted within their social and cultural contexts. From the perspective of methodology, McKay (2009) suggests that CDA applies tools and methods adapted from a variety of disciplines, such as text linguistics, rhetoric, sociolinguistics, and semantics, to uncover how language, power, and ideology are related to each other and how these dependent relations are represented through texts.

The application of CDA has been proved to be advantageous in investigating discourse in a diversity of contexts, including political issues (e.g., Fairclough, 2001, 2003b; Kress, 1994), discrimination and racism representation (e.g., Van Dijk, 1996, 1998, 2000), and media (e.g., Fairclough, 1995b). However, the adequacy of CDA as an analytical approach has often been subjected to critical criticisms (Baker et al., 2008; Koller & Mauntner, 2004; Stubbs, 1997; Widdowson, 2000, 2001, 2004). Among issues that have provoked debate within this body of criticism is the subjective selection of texts to be analyzed. Koller & Mauntner (2004) state that the danger is that the texts selected within the CDA framework attract the researcher’s attention but are not representative of the discourse addressed. CDA researchers are accused of "cherry picking" texts that best prove their positions (Widdowson, 2000, 2001, 2004). Another major criticism of CDA is stated by Stubbs (1997), who criticizes CDA researchers for focusing on small-scale based studies and overlooking significant language forms and patterns occurring within millions of running texts.
These criticisms have spurred the integration of CL tools into CADS (Baker & McEnery, 2015; Partington et al., 2004; Partington, 2008). Many advocates of CACDA argue that this mythological synergy is more advantageous because it relies on the strengths of each approach to compensate for the weaknesses of the other and enhances discourse research in a variety of methodological aspects. First, CACDA relies on large-scale corpus with naturally occurring language, decreasing the influence of the researcher’s bias (Baker, 2006). One of the key advantages of CADS is that CL can increase the objectivity of CDA (Taylor & Marche, 2018). Second, investigations using CACDA display data in authentic contexts, improving understanding of the discourse investigated and more comprehensively representing the discursive patterns. Third, CACDA relies on triangulation using the qualitative tools of CDA and the quantitative tools of CL. It thus yields more reliable results than traditional CDA methods because the corpus investigated is designed according to specific criteria ensuring the validity of generalizations (McEnery & Wilson, 2001). Accordingly, Marchi & Taylor (2009) explain that the methodological attributes of both CDA and CL are combined within the newly developed framework of CACDA. In Marchi & Taylor’s (2009) words, CL is a quantitative approach grounded in a data-driven framework based on large samples with statistical significance, and descriptive analysis with great objectivity, leading to generalizable and reliable results. In contrast, CDA is a qualitative approach grounded in a theory-driven framework relying on individual, selected samples with social significance, and explanatory investigation that is often subjective.

The CAD field has grown rapidly, stimulating a beneficial combination of CL and discourse analysis. Following Baker et al. (2008), a growing body of CACDA research has emerged. Most of this research has targeted political conflicts, immigrants, and the marginalization of some minorities. The main data source in this growing body of research is the press and social media, because the media is the tool political and social authorities use to impose their laws and acts within social communities (Van Dijk, 1996). Kandil (2009) used keyword analysis, collocation, and concordance to investigate media representations of the conflict between Israel and Palestine. Salama (2011) relied on collocation in a CDA analysis of the ideological representations of Wahabi and anti-Wahabi campaigns in a corpus of two books after the 9/11 attacks. Su & Xiao (2015) investigated discursive representation of the Chinese dream among both officials and citizens based on a corpus of tokens compiled from the Chinese press. Similarly, Haider (2016) utilized the tools of keyword extraction, collocation and concordance in his investigation of representations of the Qaddafi regime in a corpus of 27 million words in the press before, during, and after the Libyan uprising periods.

The present study adopts the CACDA to investigate the discursive patterns of representations of immigration in the Brexit debate by both the Remain and Leave campaigns—an area that is not yet investigated. This paper is aimed at improving understanding of the representations of immigration issues in both positive- and negative- sentimentally classified sub-corpora. The present investigation also explores in what ways these representations are related to the socio-economic-political context through a qualitative concordance investigation grounded in CDA.
Research Questions

The present study aimed at addressing the following questions:

RQ (1): What are the most significant topics communicated in the (a) Brexit corpus as a whole, (b) Brexit—agreement corpus, and (c) Brexit—disagreement corpus?

RQ (2): What does concordance analysis of the word “immigrants” in the Brexit corpus reveal?

RQ (3): What does the word immigration collocate with? How do these collocations relate to the socio-economic-political context?

Methodological Framework

Methodology

The methodological framework applied in this study is based on the premises underlying the use of CL in discourse-related studies. According to Partington (2003), CL is used in CAD in a number of ways. Most simply, CL provides the analysts with instances of the phenomenon under investigation. At the other extreme, CL assists the analysts in reinforcing, refuting, or revising their initial assumptions. Baker et al. (2008) explain that CL helps the discourse analyst to “quantify discoursal phenomena already recognized in CDA” (p. 285). This study’s methodology follows the methodological steps used by scholars conducting CAD in this field (Baker et al., 2008; Hardt-Mautner, 2009; Partington, 2003).

The first stage was “setting the scene” of the analysis (Baker et al., 2008, p. 284; Hardt-Mautner, 2009). A preliminary investigation of the corpus to formulate research questions involved extensive readings about the Brexit issue in the British press. Background investigation and formulation of the research questions were performed before the CAD analysis. The second stage was choosing and compiling the appropriate corpus to fulfill the study aim. The two representative sub-corpora, Opinion on Brexit—agreement and Opinion on Brexit—disagreement are important to yield significant results. The third stage was to select appropriate CL tools. The Brexit corpus selected was available at the Sketch Engine and could be analyzed via all the Sketch Engine CL tools. The fourth stage was detecting the emerging lexical patterns through frequency and keyword extractions and generating collocations grouped by semantic categorizations. This stage was crucial in identifying the most common themes and topics communicated in the corpus. The fifth stage was a qualitative investigation of these common themes and topics through concordance analysis. The final stage consisted of revising the research questions and drawing implications. (see Baker et al., 2008, p. 295, for an outline of these stages).

Data

The data investigated in this study came from the Brexit Corpus compiled as part of the EU-funded research project, a joint effort by the University of Trento, Websays.com, and Aix-Marseille University (see http://www.sense-eu.info/). The Brexit corpus consists of 108,452,923 words and 125,637,141 tokens compiled from 285,360 links and 506,808 documents mostly from blogs, tweets, and daily news related to Brexit topics. The corpus was compiled, classified, and annotated to enable searching by a specific sentiment (negative, neutral, or positive), topic (e.g., Leave and Leave AGAINST EU, Remain and Remain for EU, Immigration, Brussels), or opinion (agreement or disagreement). Appendix A displays the sub-corpora statistics for the Brexit corpus.
Results

Keyword Analysis

Keyness is illustrated by Baker et al. (2008) as “the statistically significant higher frequency of particular words or clusters in the corpus under analysis in comparison with another corpus” (p. 278). These words with significantly higher frequency guide the investigation by indicating the “aboutness” of the main corpus and the two sub-corpora (Scott, 1999). Considering the research questions of this study, the words with higher frequency indicate the most common themes represented in the corpus. The keyword analysis not only indicates the focus or aboutness of the corpus but also suggests the focus of further investigations based on what the most common themes in the corpus collocate. The first 100 keywords were generated from each corpus using the English Web 2013 (enTenTen13) as the reference corpus. These keywords generated from these three corpora (Brexit Corpus, Opinion on Brexit—agreement and Opinion on Brexit—disagreement) are shown in Appendix B, C, and D.

The keyword analysis shows two important things. First, the three corpora have great similarity in terms of their keywords, or the most significant themes/topics they discuss. Second, the Brexit—agreement corpus and the Brexit—disagreement corpus have great similarity in the lexical frequency of their keywords. The most frequent word in the three corpuses is Brexit, which occurred 352,529 times in the whole corpus 142,879 times in the Brexit—agreement corpus and 131,254 times in Brexit—disagreement corpus. The same was true with the other words, such as Corbyn (referring to Jeremy Corbyn, a leader of the Labour Party) Remain, VoteLeave, EUref, VoteRemain, worryingly, marginally, job-destroying, unionists, and rightwing.

Following Baker (2010), the generated keywords were grouped into semantic categories based on their semantic meaning. Preliminary readings of the historical and socio-political backgrounds helped mapping the generated keyword lists in the semantic categorization, as shown in table 1.

Table 1. Semantic mapping of the Brexit Corpus keywords.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Semantic Category</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Voting regulations</td>
<td>Brexit, Corbyn, Remain, VoteLeve Sadiq, Davidson, Cameron, VoteRemain,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Referendum, denounce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Immigration</td>
<td>Job-destroying, enfranchisement, havens, Mediterranean, transatlantic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Financial issues</td>
<td>Job-destroying, loopholes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncertainty</td>
<td>Underpowered, marginally, unwillingly, evaders, skepticism</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>International relations</td>
<td>EU, discredited, lambasting, opportunism</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
revealed are related to the influence of Brexit on the UK and the rest of EU. Among these significant topics is that of immigration. Relating the frequency analysis results to socio-economic background, the Leave campaign emphasizes that Brexit will enable the UK to decrease the flow of immigration and have more control over the movement of immigrants from other European countries. A crucial argument by the Leave campaign is that the more immigrants move to Britain, the more concerns they raise about job competitiveness, salaries, and overall quality of life. The counterargument is that immigrants increase consumption of services, leading to more job opportunities. In addition, a number of the immigrants are young and well educated and complement UK citizens’ skills and professions.

The concordance analysis of the Opinion on Brexit—agreement sub-corpus and the Opinion on Brexit—disagreement sub-corpus yields significant results indicating opposing views on immigration. This analysis involves searching for the word immigrants in both sub-corpora and identifying the sentiment classification (positive or negative) of its usage. The word immigrants occurs 8,358 times (66.50 times per 1 million) in the Opinion on Brexit—agreement corpus. Its concordance analysis is illustrated in Figure 1.

Figure 1. Concordance analysis of the word immigrants in the Opinion on Brexit—agreement corpus.

The concordance analysis clearly reveals that the Leave campaign has concerns about the impacts on quality of life that are resulted from the increasing number of immigrants. Examples are:
The word *immigrants* occur 7,274 (57.90 times per 1 million) in the Opinion on Brexit—disagreement corpus. Its concordance analysis is illustrated in Figure 2.

**Figure 2.** Concordance analysis of the word *immigrants* in the Opinion on Brexit—disagreement corpus.

The concordance analysis clearly reveals that the Remain campaign is concerned about skilled immigrants’ contributions to economic development that complement the UK nationals. The Remain campaign also emphasizes the cultural impact the diversity of communities can have. Examples are:

1. The EU are taking all our jobs, telling us what we can and can't do, making bananas straight, sending over immigrants, taking all our money, and worst of all, sending over immigrants. I’m sick of the health and safety brigade. (http://www.thelondoneconomic.com/satire/study-reveals-mainly-stupid-people-will-vote-brexit/20/06)

2. and white again, and children will play with spinning tops and carts made from fruit boxes and pram wheels instead of Nintados. There won’t be traffic jams anymore, and we'll be safer from those dangerous immigrants. Also, everyone will have a job again, like they used to in 1950. We need to put the Great back into England’ (http://www.thelondoneconomic.com/satire/study-reveals-mainly-stupid-people-will-vote-brexit/20/06)
Others from the Remain campaign are concerned with the difficulties and suffering poor immigrants might face. The word Mediterranean is found to be among the most-frequent words in the corpus. The following extract using the word Mediterranean is a call to draw public attention to the hundreds of immigrants who have died trying to cross the Mediterranean.

Collocation Analysis

Collocation analysis reveals the salient themes associated with the topic investigated (Baker, 2006; Baker et al., 2013). Collocation has always been associated with discourse prosody because it detects attitudes based on the association between words’ meanings (Baker, 2006). In collocational analysis, an item is classified as positive, negative, or neutral prosody when it is frequently co-occurs with positive, negative, or neutral collocates.

A collocation analysis of the word immigration was conducted within the span (-5 to +5) of the whole Brexit corpus. The aim was to reveal the discursive patterns associated with the topics of immigration and Brexit. The analysis yields the top 24 collocates of these categories: modifiers of immigration, nouns and verbs modified by immigration, and verbs with immigration as their object. Figure 3 illustrates this collocation analysis. Each collocate generated has an indication of its lexical frequency score in the corpus calculated by the logDice formula. It is also accompanied
by an example of how the word occurs with its collocates. The concordance analysis of each collocate can also be generated in a compact form.

Figure 3. Screenshot of the collocation analysis of the word *immigration* in the Brexit corpus.

The word *immigration* occurs 148,339 times (118,069 times per 1 million) in the Brexit corpus. The top 24 collocates are displayed in Table 2.

### Table 2. Top 24 collocate modifiers of the word *immigration* in the Brexit corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>logDice</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>logDice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>controlled</td>
<td>11,476</td>
<td>12.73</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>Muslim</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>6.05</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>balanced</td>
<td>11,439</td>
<td>12.72</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>5.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>uncontrolled</td>
<td>6,586</td>
<td>12.05</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>more</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>5.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>mass</td>
<td>3,272</td>
<td>10.90</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>sovereignty</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>5.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>much</td>
<td>2,158</td>
<td>10.47</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>Grady</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>5.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>long</td>
<td>2,596</td>
<td>10.13</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>permanent</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>5.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>net</td>
<td>202</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>Non-EU</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>controlling</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>7.08</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>shore</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>EU</td>
<td>707</td>
<td>6.66</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>security</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>illegal</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>6.40</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>low</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>4.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>unlimited</td>
<td>112</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>scale</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>high</td>
<td>171</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>controlling</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4.38</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 shows that the modifiers *controlled, balanced, uncontrolled, illegal, and unlimited* strongly collocate with *immigration*. The concordance analysis of these collocates revealed negative attitudes toward the immigration flow and its perception as uncontrollable affecting education and health services. Examples are below.

5- Some have tried to demonise me or others to say we've upped the rhetoric. Compared to the Scottish referendum we have done no such thing. All we've done is ask for sensible, **balanced**, controlled immigration so that we can have the right number of people to come to our country and benefit our society and we know we can't do that in the European Union.

(https://discussion.theguardian.com/comment-permalink/76731740)

6-Extra people automatically lead to extra costs for the NHS, schools, housing and infrastructure (simply more cars on the roads in towns and cities) The problem this **uncontrolled** immigration creates is because we cannot really control our borders to EU immigrants, we cannot plan long term for our infrastructure, housing, and schooling. In addition, how much more crowded do we want to be.

(http://www.bluebond.co.uk/2016/06/5332)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>logDice</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>logDice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>question</td>
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<td>minister</td>
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<td>statistic</td>
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<td>6.57</td>
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<td>system</td>
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<td>9.76</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>obsession</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6.37</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>cap</td>
<td>221</td>
<td>9.23</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>number</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>6.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>policy</td>
<td>610</td>
<td>9.12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>work</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>6.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>account</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>8.08</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>front</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>7.90</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>authority</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>6.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>battle</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>7.70</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>concern</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>7.26</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>level</td>
<td>91</td>
<td>6.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>rule</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>7.12</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>tonight</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>6.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>poster</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>7.01</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>cost</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>6.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>sovereignty</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>6.81</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>law</td>
<td>183</td>
<td>6.05</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 also shows that the word *control* frequently co-occurs with the word *immigration* as a modified noun. Additionally, the verb *accounts* is found to collocate strongly with *immigration* referring to the positive impacts of young, educated, skilled immigrants on the UK. An example is given below.
6- Stricter immigration laws could be put in place, depending on the Brexit model. Immigration accounts for half of the UK’s growth since 2005 and it has around 2.2 million EU skilled workers. (http://economictimes.indiatimes.com/news/international/world-news/brexit-referendum-is-warning-signal-for-eu-donald-tusk/articleshow/52835328.cms)

Table 4. Top 24 collocated verbs with the word immigration as an object in the Brexit corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>logDice</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>logDice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>control</td>
<td>21,250</td>
<td>13.62</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>swap</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>6.16</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>frame</td>
<td>2,596</td>
<td>11.30</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>concern</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>6.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>drive</td>
<td>2,598</td>
<td>11.01</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>enable</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>6.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>curb</td>
<td>439</td>
<td>8.84</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>mention</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>5.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>stop</td>
<td>276</td>
<td>7.88</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>manage</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>reduce</td>
<td>285</td>
<td>7.40</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>regard</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>5.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>debate</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>7.14</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>increase</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>5.59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>bring</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>call</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>5.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>cut</td>
<td>161</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>want</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>5.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>limit</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>6.86</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>need</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>5.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>fuel</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>6.34</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>accept</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>4.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>find</td>
<td>261</td>
<td>6.31</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>discuss</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The verb control is also found to collocate frequently with immigration as an object. Other verbs that collocate strongly with immigration and express negative attitudes toward uncontrolled immigration to UK are stop, reduce, cut, limit, and manage in both sentiment and positive instances, that is, in the debate of both the Leave and Remain campaigns. Examples in contexts are given below.

9- UK Independence Party] argued that a Brexit would enable the UK to significantly reduce immigration, preventing both EU citizens from taking British jobs and non-EU citizens from sneaking in to commit terror attacks. (https://www.theguardian.com/tv-and-radio/2016/jun/20/john-oliver-brexit-britain-crazy-to-leave-european-union)

10-We could cut immigration into the UK by at least 100k people a year. without leaving the EU. By cutting non-EU immigration. Simples...if you don't speak English to a required standard, you cannot come in. (http://www.car4play.com/forum/post/index.htm?f=5&t=22676503494)
Table 5. Top 24 collocate verbs with the word immigration as a subject in the Brexit corpus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>LogDice</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Modifier</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>LogDice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>13</td>
<td>appear</td>
<td>85</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>make</td>
<td>2,636</td>
<td>10.01</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>affect</td>
<td>52</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>remain</td>
<td>2,628</td>
<td>9.79</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>cause</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>do</td>
<td>3,018</td>
<td>9.28</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>enrich</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>5.61</td>
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<td>level</td>
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<td>5.23</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>overwhelm</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5.08</td>
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<td>pose</td>
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<td>happen</td>
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<td>4.77</td>
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<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>go</td>
<td>131</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>define</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4.63</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Some of the top collocate verbs with the word *immigration* as an object—*increase*, *affect*, and *overwhelm*—reveal the same attitude toward immigration. However, other collocates, such as *enrich*, emphasize the positive impacts of immigration and immigrants’ contributions to the UK’s economic development. Below is an extract as an example.

> Privately, the remain campaign believes that the death of Cox, a strong supporter of the EU who believed immigration had enriched British society, will make it harder for their opponents to campaign as stridently as before on immigration issues. ([https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2016/jun/20/leaveeu-donor-arron-banks-defends-polling-jo-cox-killing](https://www.theguardian.com/uk-news/2016/jun/20/leaveeu-donor-arron-banks-defends-polling-jo-cox-killing))

**Conclusion**

This study makes a response to a noticeable lack of uncovering the discursive patterns associated with the issue of immigration in the Brexit context. Following Baker et al. (2008), the CL and CDA approaches have complemented each other throughout the study by triangulating them in all aspects of the investigation. Within this framework, CL tools have been utilized to establish a pattern map of the corpus studied based on statistically significant results for keywords, collocations, and concordances. Meanwhile, CDA not only directed the analyst’s attention to significant patterns examined with CL tools but also related the investigation to the socio-economic-political contexts. The investigation has been carried out carried out in accordance with the main assumption underlying CDA that discourse is a social practice (Fairclough, 1995a). The quantitative investigation follows the three phases proposed by Fairclough (1995a): describing, interpreting, and explaining. The analysis confirmed the observations made by Baker et al. (2008) about the fuzzy boundaries between the CL quantitative approach and the CDA qualitative
approach. Overall, the triangulated analysis utilizing CL and CDA tools has uncovered opposing views in EU in/out referendum corpus on the issue of immigration.

The keyword analysis reveals that immigration is one of the most-debated topics in the Brexit corpus. Words such as job-destroying, enfranchisement, havens, Mediterranean, and transatlantic are found among the top keywords. However, qualitative investigation is needed to uncover the discursive patterns associated with these words and the ideologies underlying their occurrences. Close observation of the concordance lines in which these words occur indicates that immigration is related in many ways to the other significant topics communicated by the main corpus and the sub-corpora, particularly finance, uncertainty, and international relations. Immigration, in some instances, is found to be related to the public fear that the UK is losing control over floods of immigrants, who negatively affect wages, education, and health services. In other instances, remarkable accounts point out that immigrants contribute positively to a growing and more productive economy. Immigrants not only take jobs but also create new jobs by establishing their own business and spending their money within the UK community. Empirical results show that EU immigrants, on one hand, take jobs and affect wages and education and health services but, on the other hand, give UK businesses access to professional, skilled, young employees who offer high-value added to businesses and public finance. A frequent remark made, even in the Opinion on Brexit—agreement corpus, is that the EU leave decision should be defined separately from the immigration issue.

The present study confirmed the relationship between language and media described by pioneering CDA scholars, such as Herman and Chomsky (1988) and Fairclough (1995). Fairclough (1995) emphasizes the importance of the relationship between the political and socio-economic backgrounds of a society and the language communicated in its media. This investigation of the Brexit corpus supports this argument that the media in any society reflects the ideologies of the political and social elites. This study also contributes to the work of research on language, media, and society demonstrating how the linguistic patterns in the media of a society are affected by their particular socio-economic-political contexts. CACDA facilitates both access to and investigation of the language of media. The Brexit corpus provides a large and authentic corpus of media language that, when analyzed with CL tools, quantifies the ideologies and views indicated in diverse media channels. Future studies might benefit from CACDA to uncover the relationships among language, media, and ideologies in under-researched political and social topics such as the Brexit and financial issues, uncertainty and UK international relations with EU.

About the Author:
Dr. Ebtisam Aluthman is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at the College of Languages at Princess Nourah bint AbdulRuhman University in Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. She holds a PhD in Linguistics from the University of Manchester in the United Kingdom. Her research interests focus on corpus linguistics, discourse analysis, language and media and TESOL. https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9643-9218.
References
Partington, A. (2006). Metaphors, motifs and similes across discourse types: Corpus-assisted discourse studies (CADS) at work. In A. Stefanowitsch & S. Gries (Eds.), *Corpus-based approaches to metaphor and metonymy* (pp. 267–304). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter.


Appendices:

**Appendix A: Sub-corpora Statistics of the Brexit Corpus.**

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Appendix C:  Keyword in Brexit-Agreement Corpus.

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# Appendix D: Keyword in Brexit-Disagreement Corpus

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## Representation of Immigration in the EU Referendum Debate

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<td>131.8</td>
<td>9,536</td>
<td>94.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evaders</td>
<td>6,856</td>
<td>131.3</td>
<td>18,527</td>
<td>93.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thursday's</td>
<td>15,843</td>
<td>130.1</td>
<td>6,028</td>
<td>91.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-prepared</td>
<td>6,990</td>
<td>129.8</td>
<td>7,174</td>
<td>91.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Labour</td>
<td>64,403</td>
<td>129.1</td>
<td>9,438</td>
<td>90.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pro-Remain</td>
<td>6,070</td>
<td>129.1</td>
<td>6,950</td>
<td>89.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rightwing</td>
<td>7,731</td>
<td>125.4</td>
<td>5,980</td>
<td>89.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commentators</td>
<td>7,004</td>
<td>125.1</td>
<td>12,006</td>
<td>88.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gaulle</td>
<td>8,212</td>
<td>123.1</td>
<td>5,980</td>
<td>88.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pro-Brexit</td>
<td>5,739</td>
<td>122.1</td>
<td>6,014</td>
<td>88.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farage's</td>
<td>5,887</td>
<td>119.2</td>
<td>5,980</td>
<td>87.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tusk</td>
<td>6,588</td>
<td>118.6</td>
<td>4,612</td>
<td>87.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Speech Act of Complimenting as Part of the Ukrainian, Russian and English-Speaking Communities: Ukraine and the USA

Anzhelika Solodka
Department of German Philology and Translation, Faculty of Foreign Languages
V.O. Sukhomlynsky National University of Mykolaiv
Ukraine

Luis Perea
United States Department of State
USA

Abstract
Compliments as speech acts have the reflection and expression of cultural values. Many of the values reflected through compliments are personal appearance, new acquisitions, possessions, talents and skills. It is especially important in linguistic interaction between people. This research aims to analyze the speech acts of complimenting in Ukrainian and American cultures in order to use them for teaching pragmatics second language (L2) students. Defining the ways of complimenting in Ukrainian, Russian and American English help to avoid misunderstandings and pragmatic failures. This study uses a method of ethnomethodology. Speech acts are studied in their natural contexts. To carry out this research native speakers of English in the United States and native speakers of Russian and Ukrainian from all over Ukraine were interviewed on-line. The analysis was made on the data that included: 445 Russian, 231 Ukrainian and 245 English compliments. Results of this study show how native speakers tend to compliment people: syntactical structure of expressions, cultural lexicon, attributes praised and language context. It has implications for teaching English to Ukrainians and for teaching Russian and Ukrainian to speakers of English. Knowing how to use speech acts allows the speaker to have pragmatic competence. Upon completion of the data analysis on the current study, further information on deeper analysis in terms of semantics and metaphorical language can be provided.

Keywords: compliments, pragmatic competence of second language students, pragmatic failure, speech act, structure of compliments

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1. Introduction

At this time, learning a second language (L2) in universities has been strictly technical by using grammar, syntax, morphology, phonetics, phonology. Many interesting methods exist to teach a L2 and many of them try to teach a L2 in a communicative way, but unfortunately these methods overlook a very important part of languages. Such a lacking part is the speech acts and the appropriate pragmatic knowledge to really obtain a good communication.

Advanced second language students who only know the technical part of the L2 may not understand a large percentage of a conversation or how speech acts work. All this implies knowing how to communicate in social contexts appropriately. L2 students need what Canale & Swain explain as sociolinguistic competence which is the component made up of two sets of rules: “sociocultural rules of use and rules of discourse”, and strategic competence which is the “component that consists of verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to performance variables or to insufficient competence” (1980, p. 29).

All this together forms what is called communicative competence; which enables the speaker to produce and to understand and infinite set of sentences appropriately and accurately. Communicative competence includes pragmatic competence. Pragmatics analyzes and studies the conversation and the speech acts, in a general way, the functions of the linguistic sentences and their characteristics in the communication processes are also studied (Van Dijk, 1985).

Pragmatic competence is learnt by individuals when they are learning their first language. Pragmatic competence is defined by Thomas (1983) and Nordquist (2017), as the ability to use language successfully in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context; Thomas also states that pragmatic competence in these situations is very important because without it, speakers would have pragmatic failure (1983, p.91). Pragmatic failure is when the utterance has totally failed to achieve the speaker’s goal; it is also defined as the language learners’ inability to understand what is meant by what is said (Thomas, 1983; Nordquist, 2017).

In addition, speech acts take an important role in communication. Austin defines speech acts as the minimal unit of communication. Austin divides speech acts into locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts (1975, p. 24).

One of the most interesting acts to study has been complimenting. Herbert (1990) studies speech acts such as compliments and compliment responses because there is not an agreement or a common pattern on what is the correct way of complimenting and responding to a compliment, even within the same speech community. Holmes claims that a compliment is: “a speech act which attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed for some ‘good’ possession, characteristic, skill etc.” (1988, p. 446).

The aim of the article is to define the ways of complimenting in Ukrainian, Russian and American English to avoid misunderstandings and pragmatic failure. To achieve this goal, the following tasks were set out: to compare American, Ukrainian and English compliments in order to know the patterns being used by the speakers, as well as to find what are the similarities and differences in: (compliment frequency; attributes praised; role relationship between the speakers;
gender of the speakers; tone used and compliment form that includes: number of words, adjectives and verbs used in the compliments).

2. Theoretical Background of the Research

2.1 Pragmatics and pragmatic competence

As it was mentioned before, second language learners besides having the grammatical knowledge; they need the knowledge of the appropriate use of language in a context and the sociolinguistic rules of a speech community, all this is concerned with the study of Pragmatics. Additionally, if a second language speaker wants to understand an utterance in the target language, he/she needs pragmatic competence that is the knowledge needed to determine what sentences mean when they are spoken in a certain way and context (Fraser, 1990).

Pragmatics is the study of linguistic interaction between people (Wierzbicka, 1991). Pragmatics analyzes the conversation and the speech acts (Nordquist, 2017). In a general way, it studies the functions of the linguistic sentences and their characteristics in the communication processes as well as the language use in a context and in particular situations. (Van Dijk, 1985, p.79-81).

Fraser & Rintell (1990) explain pragmatic competence as the knowledge to determine the meaning of any sentence depending on when it is spoken, the way and the specific context (Fraser, 1990, p.221). Also, any time a speaker uses the language in a social context, he/she is performing one or more speech acts such as: requesting, complimenting, declaring, apologizing, criticizing, etc. So when they are expressing such speech acts, they are showing their pragmatic competence (Fraser, 1990; Kasper, 2201).

According to Bialystok (1993), pragmatic competence is “the ability to use and interpret language in contexts” (1993, p.44). Bialystok (1993) also mentions the speaker’s ability to use language for different purposes and the listener’s ability to understand the real intention of the speaker.

Thomas postulates that “it is the ability to use language successfully in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context” (1983, p.92). Thomas also concerns that pragmatic competence in these situations is very important because without this, speakers would have pragmatic failure. Consequently, the results are misunderstanding, communication breakdowns, frustration etc. (Beebe, Takahashi & Uliss-Weltz, 1990; Nguyen, Pham, & Pham, 2012; Farshi, & Baghbani, 2015, Loiseau, Hallal, Ballot, & Gazidedja, 2016).

Thomas states that pragmatic patterns are important to be able to use the appropriate utterances in a context, in addition if a hearer wants to understand and interpret what the speaker intended through his utterance, such a hearer must take into account both “contextual and linguistic cues” (1983, p.98). According to Thomas, there are 2 kinds of pragmatic failure: pragramalinguistic failure that occurs when speech acts are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2 and sociopragmatic failure which refers to the social conditions placed on language in use, it also covers patterns such as social distance, gender and intimacy of relationship (1983, p.99).
All the situations which cause misunderstandings, are transferring the inappropriate form of language from L1 to L2 (Wolfson, 1983; Solak & Bayar, 2015). That is the reason why speech acts, speech events and pragmatic competence are important to understand the reasons which provoke pragmatic failure (Shi, 2014). And it is helpful to conduct cross-cultural research to investigate student’s L1 strategies (Rajabi & Farahian, 2013; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Allami & Naeimi, 2011).

Finally, pragmatic competence plays an important role in the acquisition of a language because speakers avoid pragmatic failure and it helps to understand the meaning and purpose of the utterance in any context.

2.2 Compliments
The speech act of complimenting in this study was selected because Ukrainian and Russian L2 learners of English get confused when they try to make or understand a compliment in a different way than native speakers do. In addition, it is essential to mention the fact that sometimes some of those expressions in both languages are part of the personal or regional way of expressing in those places; all this leads to the slang in the USA. (Nelligan, 1996).

Aceves (1996) in her study of compliments, states that the study of the compliment speech act contributes valuable information that concerns when and how and to whom, one may offer a compliment as well as how to interpret implicit social and cultural meanings; and how to respond appropriately when one receives a compliment. Compliment as a general term means giving praise, credit, eulogy, to a person for any possession, characteristics, skill, etc.

Chung-Hye defines a compliment as “a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed, for ‘good’ (possession, characteristics, skill etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer” (1992, p.18).

Manes (1983) defines compliments as those speech acts which have the reflection and expression of cultural values because of their nature as judgments, over expressions of approval or admiration of another’s work, appearance or taste.

Holmes (1988) suggests three functions of compliment exchanges. (1) That compliments are usually used as mean of expressing liking when used as positive affective speech acts. In other words, compliments allow increase solidarity between people. Example: How nice you look today! (2) That compliments can serve as positive politeness strategies before a face threatening act (FTA). All this means that a compliment can be used in a very stressed situation in order to obtain something; a compliment is used before asking what you want. Example: Doesn’t your hair look wonderful! By the way, could I borrow your Spanish book? (3) That compliments may be face threatening acts themselves as they indicate an intrusive desire on the speaker’s part towards the hearer’s possessions. As a consequence, the compliment will be included in the request. Example: can I borrow your wonderful Spanish book? (Holmes, 1988, p. 445-451).

Another author who states the importance of the compliments is Bolton (2004), and he proposes three conditions for a compliment to be performed:

1. Hearer has certain quality Q.
2. Speaker believes Q is admirable.
3. Speaker wants hearer to know/believe that speaker admires Q.

In addition, Manes (1983) claims that the major function of the compliments is the establishment or reinforcement of solidarity between the speaker and the addressee as well as they play an important role because make possible judgments, expressions of approval or admiration of another’s work.

Finally, Wolfson (1983) concludes that compliments are also windows through which we can view what is valued by a particular culture, for instance: In the United States, Americans compliment each other on personal appearance, new acquisition and work, suggesting that Americans value these attributes. In Japan, people are more apt to compliment skill and study, suggesting that Japanese people value skill and study. However, in Mexico, people is less expressive that Americans (Aceves, 1996), suggesting that Americans were more expressive than Mexicans.

Wolfson and Manes (1980) note different cultural differences in complimenting and observe that Iranians and Arabic speakers tend to use proverbs and other ritualized expressions when complimenting. Al Rawashdeh Al Balqa (2018), investigating Arabic Jordanian compliments (Mujamaleh) and politeness expressions versus their counterparts in American English, shears these ideas. Holmes & Brown (1987) state than American people like to compliment in a very frequent way.

Nelson, Al-Batal, & Echols (1996) compare Egyptian Arabic and American English compliments by using a similar methodology used by Wolfson & Manes (1980). They find that American compliments are shorter and less complicated than Egyptian compliments. Egyptians use a lot of similes and metaphors and long series of adjectives in complimenting as well as their compliments are less frequent than the American ones.


Nelson (1993) conducted a study of Mexican Spanish and American English compliments. The differences are related to gender. Also, American males compliment another male on appearance even more than Mexican males. Another factor is the fact that Mexican females are more frequently compliment more than American females by males. American females and males compliment acquaintances more than Mexicans. Also, intimates are complimented by Mexican females even more than intimates being complimented by American females.

3. Methods and Materials of Research

3.1 Method of data collection

This study is based on ethnomethodology to collect data because it will research compliments on a day to day interaction. Valdes (1981), Holmes & Brown (1987), Wolfson (1988), Herbert (1990), Herbert & Straight (1989) and others use ethnomethodology to collect their data about speech acts.
Ethnography is described by Fetterman as “the art and science of describing a group or culture” (Fetterman, 1989, p.11). The ethnographer is concerned about people’s daily lives, thus, “the most important element of fieldwork is being there – to observe, to ask questions, and to write down what is seen and heard” (Fetterman, 1989, p.19). The method is essentially to work with people in their natural contexts.

The present study uses a method that was adapted owing to its necessities and circumstances because two different cultures (Ukrainian and American) and three different languages (Ukrainian, Russian and American English) are compared.

Also, as these techniques and instruments have their advantages and disadvantages, they are used to collect data because they have proven effectiveness in gathering data on compliments. However, it is often argued that speech acts should be studied in their natural contexts using ethnomethodology, it is difficult for cross-cultural studies due to problems of comparability. For this reason, the present study uses a method which was developed by Barnlund & Araki (1985), also used and expanded by Nelson (1993) and to collect the compliment data.

3.2 Subjects
81 American participants (USA), 179 Ukrainian speakers of Russian (Ukraine) and 118 Ukrainian speakers (Ukraine) participated in the online survey via SurveyMonkey. The Ukrainian participants consisted of university students, professors and people from all over Ukraine including cities such as Mykolaiv, Kiev, Odessa, Lviv, Chernivtsi, etc. from middle class between ages 15-60 years old approximately.

The American participants consisted of university students, professors and people from all over the USA and some people living overseas. They were middle class between ages 16-70 years old. The universities students belong were from: Portland State University, George Fox University, University of Texas at San Antonio, University of the Incarnate Word and several cities from the USA. A small source of data collection consisted from finding compliments in the social media (Facebook), TV, Movies, etc.

3.3 Instrument
An interview is developed to collect the data. First of all, it is necessary to mention that the interview designed by other researchers in collecting compliments, was taken as reference in this study because it gave successful results. Such an interview is taken from the studies of Aceves (1996) & Nelson (1997), and it was adapted and added more information considering the necessities and the subjects of the present study.

A. Characteristics of the interview:
• Open questions.
• English/Russian/Ukrainian version – 26 questions
• Personal information of the participants.
• Variables or aspects studied.
B. Questions of the interview:

1. Interviewed person - Do not include your real name (Please use a pseudonym that identifies your gender; e.g. Mary or John, etc.)
2. Please select your gender
3. Place of birth (state or region and city) and Age.
4. To what socio economic level do you consider yourself? (Upper level class, middle class, etc.) and where do you currently live?
5. What is the last compliment that you have given to somebody else? What were your exact words?
6. About what did you comment on?
7. What tone did you use?
8. How long ago did you say the compliment?
9. Which is your relationship with the person who received the compliment?
10. The person who received the compliment was male, female or a group of people?
11. What was the approximate age of the person who received the compliment?
12. What is the last compliment that you have received, and what were the exact words?
13. What kind of tone did the person who told you the compliment use?
14. What was the point of the person who told you the compliment?
15. When did you receive the compliment?
16. The person who told you the compliment was male or female?
17. What was the approximate age of the person who told you the compliment?
18. Which is your relationship with the person who told you the compliment?
19. What is the last compliment that you have heard someone else tell to someone else?
20. What were the exact words?
21. About what did those persons comment on?
22. What tone was used?
23. When did you last listen to the compliment?
24. Which was the relationship between those persons?
25. The person who received the compliment was male, female or a group of people?
26. The person who gave the compliment was male or female?
27. What were the approximate ages of the people who complimented each other?

Correspondence of variables to the questions of the interview was the following: compliment form – questions 5,12,19; attributes praised – questions 6,14,20; relationship between giver and receiver – questions 9,18,23; gender of the compliment giver and receiver – questions 10,16,22,24,25; frequency of compliments – questions 8,15,22; tone used – questions 7,13,21.

3.4 Data analysis

The compliments are coded sociolinguistically. First it is coded the data and established the categories, which are data driven (the categories are based on the data that is gathered) and based on the studies of Aceves (1996), Nelson (1997), Wolfson (1980), & Manes (1981). The categories are established according to similar patterns found in their studies.
4. Results and Discussion

The analysis was made on the data that included: 445 Russian, 231 Ukrainian and 245 English compliments. Participants consisted of native speakers of English interviewed in the United States and native speakers of Russian and Ukrainian from all over Ukraine.

4.1 Average age of participants. Average age of Russian speaking participants was 25.7 years old, Ukrainian speaking participants – 26 years old, English speaking participants – 31 years old.

4.2 Compliment form

Compliment form is the language used to express the compliment. The Ukrainian, Russian and American compliments shared similarities in form, and the majority of them were short and adjectival. The following table shows the examples of compliment forms’ similarities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Russian</th>
<th>Ukrainian</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRON+HAVE+ADJ+N/NP</td>
<td>PREP+PRO + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N/NP</td>
<td>PRO+HAVE+ADJ+NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example: У тебя красивые глаза (You have beautiful eyes).</td>
<td>Example: В тебе такі хороші парфуми (You have very good perfume)</td>
<td>Example: Wow, you have very white teeth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ЯКИЙ (HOW)+HAVE+ (INTENSIFIER) ADJ+N</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example: Який у тебе гарний парфум! (How good perfume you have)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRO+ADV(intensifier)+ADJ</td>
<td>PRO + (intensifier) + ADJ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example: Ты очень умный. (You are very clever.)</td>
<td>Example: Він дуже влучний (He is very accurate)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRO+ADJ</td>
<td>PRO+BE+ADJ+COMP LEMENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example: Ты красивая. (You are beautiful.)</td>
<td>Example: You will be successful anywhere you go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRO+LOOK+ADV</td>
<td>PRO/ADV+LOOK</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example: Она выглядит изумительно. (She looks gorgeous!)</td>
<td>Example: Класно виглядаєш (You look cool)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Example: You look beautiful today. Like a model!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ADJ</td>
<td>ADJ(+)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Example: Милая. (Pretty.)</td>
<td>Example: Розумний (Smart)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Example: Great job!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I like/love+(intensifier)+ your +N</td>
<td>I LIKE (YOUR)+N</td>
<td>I+like/love+NP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Example: Мне нравится твоя обувь. (I like your shoes.)</td>
<td>Example: Мені дуже подобається твоя зовнішність (I like your appearance so much)</td>
<td>Example: I really like your neighborhood!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
During this study, the most frequent patterns identified were:

**Ukrainian**: PRO + (intensifier) + ADJ (28, 1%). Ukrainian compliments used this pattern and PREP+PRO + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N/NP (22%): Ти дуже непередбачувана (You are very unpredictable). У тебе дуже гарні очі (You have very beautiful eyes).

**Russian**: PRO+HAVE+ADJ+N/NP (18.6%): У тебя красивые глаза. (You have beautiful eyes.)

**American English**: PRO+BE+ADJ+COMPLEMENT (26%) and PRO/NP+LOOK+ADJ+COMPLEMENT (26%): You're awesome. You're a 10/10, for real, you're so beautiful. You look really professional in that outfit-I love the cardigan.

Some other patterns that resulted in a minor frequency were:

**Ukrainian**: You are (my) +THE MOST+ADJ+N (0,4%), NP + VERB + ADJ +COMPLEMENT (0,4%), and PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE + NP (0,4%): Ти найкраща подруга в світі (You are the best friend in the world). Пиріг приготований просто чудово (Pie is cooked absolutely great). На тобі дуже гарні прикраси (You have very beautiful jewelry).

**Russian**: N+ADV+V (1, 1%) and ADV (intensifier) + ADJ (1,5%): Очень красивая. (Very beautiful). Платье очень хорошо скроено (The dress is cut out very well).

**American English**: NP+BE+ADJ+COMPLEMENT (1%): The food was great! The pastor is a wonderful preacher.

IMPERATIVE VERB+COMPLEMENT (1%): Look at you!!! Go Luis! Great job, keep up the good work!

IDIOMATIC EXPRESSION (1%): Way to go. Congrats.

QUESTION+COMPLEMENT (1%): Can you try not to be so awesome? You are making the rest of us look bad. INTERJECTION+NP (1%): Bravo, my intellectual friend!

Both types of compliments also used a limited number of syntactic patterns although the Ukrainian compliments were more varied in their syntactic form. The Ukrainian and Russian data set included compliment forms that did not occur in the American data, the Ukrainian and Russian data included one-word compliments, whereas the American data did not:

**Ukrainian**: ADJ (3, 8%): Розумний (Smart). Мила (Cute). N (1, 7%): Красуня (Beauty). Молодець (Well done).

**Russian**: ADJ (3. 3%): Красивая (Beautiful). N (2. 2%): Молодец (Good job.)
In addition, some other patterns of Ukrainian compliments were identified which are not used in Russian and American English. These expressions start with particle Як, Який, Яка (How). That accounted 3.2 %: Який (how) + HAVE + (intensifier) ADJ + N (1.2%): Яка в тебе чудова сукня! (How beautiful dress you have). Яка (how) + ADJ + N (1,2%): Яка чудова погода (How great weather is). Яка (how) + ADJ/PRO + N (0,8%): Яка ти красуня (How pretty you are).

4.3 Compliment length

The compliment length is the approximate number of words that each compliment showed in this study. These results showed a very interesting aspect that is the existence of simple and complex compliments. The simple compliments are those formed by one sentence or expression with a single compliment that denotes the flattery impact, and all together makes the meaning.

Table 2
Compliment length.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Russian compliments</th>
<th>Ukrainian compliments</th>
<th>English compliments</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5,9 words (445 compliments – 2025 words)</td>
<td>4,32 words (231 compliments – 1263 words)</td>
<td>5,5 words (245 compliments – 1360 words)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3
Examples of simple and complex compliments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple compliments:</th>
<th>Simple compliments:</th>
<th>Simple compliments:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ты прекрасна! (You are so beautiful!)</td>
<td>Дуже гарно! (Very nice!)</td>
<td>Hey beautiful! Excellent report!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complex compliments:</td>
<td>Complex compliments:</td>
<td>Complex compliments:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ты очень умная и красивая девушка и я хочу быть с тобой рядом каждую секунду (You are a very smart and beautiful girl and I want to be with you every second)</td>
<td>В твоих глазах можно кататься на яхте потому, что они как два океана (In your eyes I can sail because they are like two oceans).</td>
<td>So honored to work with such great and talented future English teachers, translators, interpreters and philologists from Ukraine!! Got the privilege to visit and listen to the awesome presentations from these bright kids!! I feel excited to work with them and I look forward to it!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>В Ваших глазах можно кататься на яхте потому, что они как два океана (In your eyes I can sail because they are like two oceans).</td>
<td>В тебе дуже гарна посмішка! Посміхайся частіше (You have beautiful smile! Smile more often!).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.4 Adjectives

It is also interesting to show the results found in this study in terms of adjectives. Most of all the compliments found in three languages were adjectival. The adjectives found in the American compliments were varied. 44 different types of adjectives were identified. The most usual were, good (+the best) 19%, great 14, 9%. nice 9,2%, beautiful 9,2%, awesome 5,1%, amazing 3,6%,
cute 3%, wonderful 2.6%, pretty 2.6% handsome 2%, smart 2%. These 11 adjectives accounted 76.3%.

In the study 35 different adjectives in Ukrainian compliments were identified. 10 the most frequent Ukrainian adjectives (84.9%) are: гарний (pretty) 25.2%, розумний (smart) 15.4%, вродливий (beautiful) 10.3%, добрий (good, kind) 8.1%, сланний (tasty) 7.5%, щирий (sincere) 6%, мудрій (thoughtful) 3.5%, хозяйствний (handy) 3.4%, найкращий (best) 3%, веселий (jolly) 2.5%.

The amount of Russian adjective is almost the same as American ones. 45 different adjectives are identified and 11 (61.9%) of them are the most frequent in use. Among them: красивый (pretty) 31.5%, умный (smart) 5.1%, искривий (elegant) 3.5%, прекрасный (beautiful) 3.5%, вкусный (tasty) 3.2%, милый (nice) 2.8%, хороший (good) 2.8%, отличный (excellent) 2.2, крутое / классный (cool) 2.2%, лучший (best) 1.9%, добрый (kind) 1.9%.

4.5 Verbs
In this study in the American compliments, the most usual (6 verbs from 10) were: to look (33.3%), to like (22.2%), to have (13.3), to love (11.1%), to do (11.1%). Other verbs (9%) are found in a minor frequency. In the Ukrainian compliments were found 6 verbs from 21 the most frequent in use: пасувати/личити (to suit) 10%, виглядати (to look) 26%, мати (to have) 10%, подобатися (to like) 11,2%, пахнути (to smell) 8%, робити (to do) 14%. In the Russian compliments, 16 different verbs were found and the most usual were: выглядеть (to look) 31.8%, идти/подходит (to suit) 13.2%, нравится (to like) 9.7 %, готовить (to cook) 7.07 %, любить (to love) 2.6 %.

4.6 Adverbs
Ukrainian and Russian compliments are characterized by using of a great number of adverbs: 18 different adverbs in 171 from 231 Ukrainian compliments, 26 different adverbs in 95 from 445 Russian compliments. In comparison, 5 different adverbs in 28 from 245 English compliments were found.

4.7 Tone employed
During this study, it was identified and analyzed the tone used in the compliments. The kinds of tone were classified in: positive or sincere way and negative or sarcastic way. A 98% of the compliments were told sincerely by Americans. Females (2%) and males (2.2%) told compliments sarcastically. In the Ukrainian compliments a 97% (Russian compliments – 98%) was sincere and a 3% (Russian compliments – 2%) was sarcastic in general. Ukrainian speaking females said a 98.2% (Russian speaking females – 99.1%) of the compliments sincerely and a 1.8% (Russian speaking females – 0.8%) sarcastically, whereas Ukrainian speaking males said a 95.5% of the compliments sincerely (Russian speaking males – 96%) and a 4.5% sarcastically (Russian speaking males – 4%).

4.8 Attributes praised
First of all, it is important to mention the categories used in this study. Such categories were called: “appearance”, “traits/personality”, “skill/work”, “personal property”, and “other”. Also, all these attributes were branched in order to give a clearer vision of each category as follows:
A. Appearance. It involves the general looks of the persons involved. It was subdivided in: “general appearance” that is a general subdivision because it involved somebody’s whole appearance referred to the body or clothe, not praising a specific part of the person. Another subdivision was: “body”, that involves any part of the body where in American compliments are praised: hair, eyes, feet, calves, and butt, whereas in Ukrainian compliments are praised: eyes, smile, hair (haircut, hairdo, hairstyle, hair color), voice (timbre, laugh), figure, nails (manicure), face, age. In Russian compliments to this list the following can be added: eyelashes, eyebrows and tattoos.

Another subdivision was: “clothes” that are all the items that perform a good or bad look in the persons, are used in the body, and they can be directly identified. Americans praised: skirts, dresses, pants, shoes, shirts, glasses, sweaters, and bags; whereas in Ukrainian compliments are praised more assessors, and makeup, in Russian compliments – style (new image, cool image, fashionable, good taste).

B. Traits/personality. It involves the general personality of the persons. It also was subdivided in: “personality” that is the way a person behaves in a negative or positive way. Personal traits that are praised in Russian compliments: faithful, devoted, native soul, strange, cool, kindhearted, funny, cheerful, nice, charismatic, sincere, open, positive, mystic, brave, active, sociable, artistic, sense of humor, taking difficulties easy; in Ukrainian compliments: cool, kindhearted, funny, cheerful, nice, charismatic, sincere, open, positive, mystic, brave, sociable, artistic, sense of humor, vulnerable, mysterious, honest, curious, awesome, caring, communicative; in English compliments: talented, active, friendly, hard-working, cool, funny, cheerful, nice, sincere, positive, brave, sociable, artistic, sense of humor, taking difficulties easy.

C. Skills/work. It involves the general abilities of any person to perform any activity or job. It was subdivided in: “job well done” that is any well-performed activity in the job and the school. Another subdivision is: “good meal or taste” that is the capacity to cook, and “skill/effort that denotes someone’s general skill to do something. In American, Ukrainian and Russian compliments these 3 subdivisions were complimented.

D. Personal property. It involves items not being used by the person on his/her body, those can be houses, cars, cats, dogs, etc., and items that are not identified or seen in the person’s body. Americans praised an outfit, a new car, whereas praised a perfume, which was not directly seen or identified because it was a smell, a fragrance.

E. Other. This category refers to any compliment that did not fit in the previous classifications. It was identified in compliments in the Ukrainian/Russian data (poem, song, decoration) and English data (photo in social network/blog post, attention/presence). In the table, all the results are exemplified in terms of attributes praised found in this study in the Russian, Ukrainian and English compliments.
4.9 Gender of the compliment giver and receiver. According to the data American females complimented both males and females in appearance, but they also praised more males in personality and in skill/work, but not in the category: property and other. Whereas American males complimented more males in skill/work and females in appearance. They praised both females and males only in traits/personality. Only one compliment was given to males in property but none to females in this category.

In contrast, Ukrainian females complimented more females in appearance, and males to traits/personality, and in property, although both females and males were complimented in skill/work. Concerning the Ukrainian males (Russian and Ukrainian speakers), they extremely complimented females in appearance, traits/personality, and in skill/work but not in other and property. Males were less praised in appearance, personality, and the category other and none in skill/work and property.

Finally, it is important to mention that Ukrainian males (Russian and Ukrainian speakers) praised females even more than American males to females. Ukrainian females (Russian and Ukrainian speakers) complimented females more than American females to females, but American males praised males a lot because it is very normal in the American culture. However, it is not common in Ukraine to see males complimenting other male so if they do it, it is performed in a
sarcastic way. In the relationship female to male, both cultures praised almost the same number of males. Also, it is usual for American culture to compliment to a group of people or an even.

Table 5
Attributes praised in compliments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Russian speaking participants</th>
<th>Appearance</th>
<th>Traits/personality</th>
<th>Skill/work</th>
<th>Taste</th>
<th>Natural Human Traits</th>
<th>Other</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>164 (36.8%)</td>
<td>100 (22.4%)</td>
<td>58 (13%)</td>
<td>54(12 %)</td>
<td>58 (13%)</td>
<td>9 (2%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ukrainian speaking participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>Traits/personality</td>
<td>Skill/work</td>
<td>Personal property</td>
<td>Other</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>98 (42.4%)</td>
<td>28 (12%)</td>
<td>16 (7%)</td>
<td>22 (9.5%)</td>
<td>62 (27%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American English speaking participants</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>50 (20, 4 %)</td>
<td>40 (16.2 %)</td>
<td>92 (36, 45 %)</td>
<td>36 (14,7 %)</td>
<td>27 (10, 95 %)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.10 Role relationship between the compliment giver and receiver. First, it is essential to mention the scheme used in this study to categorize the relationship between the participants. The categories used were relatives that cover all the family members; acquaintances that cover classmates, coworkers, teacher/student relationships, boss/employer relationship, casual acquaintances, neighbors, and customer/worker relationships. Another category was friends that covers friends and roommates; intimates who are boyfriends or husband/wife only; the category strangers, who are totally unknown people, and the category other, referred to a relationship different to these ones.

The results indicated that both Americans and Ukrainians (Russian and Ukrainian speaking participants) praised friends, Americans with a 28.5% and Ukrainians with 36,3% (Ukrainian speaking participants) and 35.5% (Russian speaking participants). Americans complimented then: acquaintances, including classmates, coworkers, teacher/student, boss/employer, casual acquaintances and customer/worker with a 22% whereas Ukrainians praised a 16.5-17.3%, including all the subcategories mentioned above, plus neighbors. However, Americans did not praise strangers (10.1%), as much as Ukrainians did (Ukrainian speaking participants – 9%, Russian speaking – 6/9% participants). In addition, Americans only praised intimates, with a 7.4%, whereas Ukrainians did it with a 14.6% (Ukrainian speaking participant) and 13.9 % (Russian speaking participants). Ukrainians praised relatives with a 14.3% (Russian speaking participants) and a 10.8% (Ukrainian speaking participants) although Americans did it with a 11.8%. Consequently, Ukrainians praised more intimates, friends and acquaintances than Americans, but both nationalities don’t praise strangers.
4.11 Compliment frequency

The results show that Americans complimented an average every 58 hours (2 days and 10 hours), Russian speakers – every 134.5 hours (5 days), and Ukrainian speakers – every 37 hours (1 day and 13 hours). According to the results in compliment frequency, Ukrainian speaker are more expressive than English and Russian speakers and more open in communication.

5. Conclusion

In this research there were investigated the ways of complimenting in Ukrainian, Russian and American English to avoid misunderstandings and pragmatic failure. American, Ukrainian and English compliments were compared in order to know the patterns being used by the speakers: compliment frequency; attributes praised; role relationship between the speakers; gender of the speakers; tone used and compliment form that includes: number of words, adjectives and verbs used in the compliments.

As we have observed in these preliminary results, there exist numerous implications from this study into the teaching of pragmatics in the ESL, Russian and Ukrainian as a Second Language classroom. We can see the importance of understanding the syntactical formulas in the three languages as mean to teach compliments in the classroom. It will help L2 students to avoid pragmalinguistic failure. Students wishing to produce these speech acts, can better understand the structure of the expressions and follow the aforementioned formulas. Adjectives are also important to consider as part of the cultural lexicon used within those languages and utilize those that are the most familiar in the second language context. Another important aspect is paying attention to the attributes praised and see how native speakers of English (living in the USA), Russian and Ukrainian (living in Ukraine), tend to compliment people. These results also allow students to take a glance through a window into the cultures where these languages are used, and see what is valued by different speakers in different situations.

Upon completion of the data analysis on the current study, further information on variables such as role relationship of the giver and receiver of the compliment, attributes praised by gender according to nationality, some factors of meaning toward the compliments, to avoid false interpretations of the compliments, and even a deeper analysis in terms of semantics, metaphorical language can be provided.

About the Authors

Anzhelika Solodka, Doctor of Science (Education), Professor of Department of German Philology and Translation at V.O. Sukhomlynsky National University of Mykolaiv, Ukraine. Her main areas of interest include Cross-cultural Communication, Applied Linguistics and Translation. https://orcid.org/0000-0003-1703-7996

Luis Perea, United States Department of State, English fellow at V.O. Sukhomlynsky National University of Mykolaiv, Ukraine. His research interests are in Cross-cultural Pragmatics, Language Assessment, Reverse-engineering in Language Testing, and Academic Language. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9353-5738
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Difficulties in Teaching English Modal Auxiliaries to Turkish Students: 
A Cognitive Pragmatic Approach

Ismail Erton
Faculty of Arts & Sciences
Department of Translation and Interpretation
Atılım University, Ankara, Turkey

Abstract
Recently, attention in modern linguistic theory has been shifted to facilitating a broader understanding of the world, in which language is a tool to establish a bridge between the interlocutor and the recipient. To do so, the development of linguistic, communicative and socio-pragmatic competences enriched with socio-cultural inputs in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) or Second Language (L2) teaching and learning contexts have a significant impact on language learners both to develop their perception as native speakers of English and to facilitate the progress of cognitive skills and capabilities. The aim of this paper is to demonstrate a case study to show some of the difficulties in teaching English modal auxiliaries to Turkish students in EFL/L2 contexts which arise not only from structural characteristics, but also from insufficiently developed linguistic, communicative and socio-pragmatic competencies. It is also asserted that only teaching the lexical properties of modal auxiliaries in isolation from their socio-pragmatic and semiotic contexts alone cannot help learners to become successful communicators in the target language as it ends in communication failures, hesitation, a slower L2 progress, fear and misunderstandings. Therefore, role-play activities, cloze tests, research assignments, writing tasks and songs can also be integrated into the teaching-learning process to assist learners to become more aware of their actual authentic usages in a wide range of contexts through different activities. On the whole, this would also free language learners to refer to their First Language (L1) input and shape a broader understanding of the Foreign Language (FL) framed with its actual authentic usage.

Keywords: cognitive linguistics, competence, curriculum, language learning-teaching, modal auxiliaries

Introduction
So far, numerous language learning and teaching methods have been generated for teaching grammar to English as a Second language (ESL) students. Yet, most of these approaches have failed to achieve the desired purpose since the center of attention in these practices are mostly on reflecting the structural aspects of language rather than its functional interpretation in various relevant contexts. The latest trends in linguistic studies over the last twenty years strongly emphasize the significance of the development of linguistic competence, which facilitates the progression of communicative and pragmatic competences. As soon as Chomsky (1965) published his book ‘Aspects of the Theory of Syntax’, attention in linguistic studies shifted from structural practices to communicative consciousness. Wales and Marshall (1966) criticize Chomsky’s approach to language production since it is a theory of language production and does not deal with language at the verbal state. Fodor and Garrett (1996) went beyond this debate and emphasized the importance of psycholinguistics in language production. For them, “both linguistic and psychological models are the models of competence” (p. 138). Choraih et al (2016) adds that, “this line of research had become less tenable with the increasing attention to the role of sociocultural and sociolinguistic factors that affect and shape the process of 12 development” (p. 184). While most linguists draw their attention to linguistic, psychological, social and cultural influences on language production, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) focus on the humanistic properties of language production which include fluent, accurate and strategic production and use of language in various socio-cultural contexts. Definitely, a model, which integrates linguistic, psychological, socio-cultural and other extra-linguistic factors is the notion of communicative competence. For Widdowson (1989), communicative competence is:

Communicative competence is not a matter of knowing the rules for the composition of sentences and being able to employ such rules to assemble expressions from scratch as and when occasion requires. It is much more knowing a stack (or stock?) of partially pre-assembled patterns, formulaic frameworks, and kit of rules, so as to speak, and being able to apply the rules to make whatever adjustments, necessary according to contextual demands (p. 135).

In order to adapt grammatical rules into verbal language production, becoming aware of contextual requirements, discourse and the strategic language usage appear as some of the key issues to frame communicative competence. In this respect, Canale (1983) studies the notion of communicative competence in four parts, namely grammatical competence, socio-linguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence which not only incorporate the features of socio-cultural demands with discourse analysis, but also emphasize the significance of the critical, creative and the reflective processing and the usage of strategies in non-verbal and verbal communication (pp. 2-206).

Relatedly, recent research over the last 30 years in linguistics seems to reflect its outcomes on language learning and teaching methods. Methods and techniques in the classroom not only provide structural input at first sight, but also provide both teachers and the students with the opportunity to increase their awareness and practice extra-linguistic elements in language production, such as socio-cultural and ethical issues, signs and symbols, culture-oriented figures, learning styles and strategies, etc. Here, perhaps the most significant goal is to form an
intercultural competence in the classroom, which would enable the students to perceive the features in a foreign language as much as its native speakers do.

The development of the pragmatic aspects of language is vital in order to avoid communication breakdowns, structure and frame a wider worldview independent of the user’s native language for more intellectuality and creative and critical thinking. According to Li et al. (2015) “Compared with grammatical mistakes pragmatic errors may cause more serious problems in communication because they are typically interpreted by native speakers as arrogance, impatience and rudeness, and thus they are less likely to be forgiven by the native speakers” (p. 41). Likewise, Mey (1993) defines linguistic behaviour as a social behaviour. For him, a communicative act takes place in a communicative discourse which represents the nature of the linguistic action – determined by economic and social rules, political ideas, ideas and perspectives, etc… (pp. 186-7). The language teacher who has already raised her consciousness enough to develop students’ communicative and pragmatic competences will open doors for the cognitive development of the individuals. This not only provides language proficiency, but also helps the person to become a better version of the self who acknowledges her environment and the world through the language she has learned.

The Role of Cognitive Pragmatics in the Achievement of English Modal Auxiliaries

The dilemma between what is said and what is meant goes beyond structuring grammatically correct utterances and understanding their conceptual and emotive content interpreted within a semantic frame. Since pragmatics is the study of meaning in context, it naturally is concerned with the cognitive principles and processes in the course of language production. Pragmatics, in this respect, does not merely cover contextual information delivered in the course of speech production, but also context-independent features that indirectly influence the situational context of language production and the internal processes that mind decodes and encodes in the interpretation of linguistic and non-linguistic data as have already accumulated in competence in general.

In this respect, it is possible to examine pragmatics as a functional framework which examines linguistic acts and principles in relation with the choices of the interpreter in the course of language production. Wunderlich (1972), Mey (1993) and Versuchueren (1999) work on a functional-pragmatic approach to language. Yet, such functional studies on language production are not enough to determine the process in which the utterances are produced, and the intention of the speaker, how the hearer achieves and interprets the delivered meaning could not be explained within a functional frame. Gadzar (1979) and Leech (1983) study grammar and pragmatics connection from a semantic approach. Sperber and Wilson (2002) examine pragmatics as a matter of cognition, which cannot be studied and explained within grammatical perspectives. When all the approaches to grammar are taken into account, one can reach the conclusion that the study of grammar and pragmatics cannot be separated from each other. Indeed, both complement each other to facilitate a better understanding of communication. As Naweth and Bibok (2010) state, “… we basically consider the interaction between grammar and pragmatics a co-operation of two separate components of the theory of language in contexts of language use” (p. 505). Cuenca summarizes all theories concerning language usage (cognitive linguistics) in the following scheme:
It is possible to say that Cuenca’s scheme considers language use as a dynamic system. For her (2003), “… the system is conceived in a dynamic way, interrelating linguistic structure (syntax), meaning (semantics), language use (pragmatics) and conceptual structure (cognition)” (p. 2). Cuenca’s model of language usage reflects an integrated model in which syntax, semantics and pragmatics are interdependent but co-related models which work collaboratively in the process of language production. Additionally, Carston (2002) claims that “A major development in pragmatics since Grice’s work is the recognition that linguistically decoded information is usually very incomplete and that pragmatic inference plays an essential role in the derivation of the proposition explicitly communicated” (p. 132). She adds that “… what is communicated, that is, the output of the pragmatic processor is usually a set of fully propositional thoughts or assumptions, which are either true or false of an external state of affairs in the world” (p. 132). Here, Cuenca’s and Carston’s ideas about language production and usage complete each other in the sense that, as the study of pragmatics moves from the philosophical interpretation of language and located in cognitive science, it paves the way for a much clearer understanding of how utterances are produced, delivered and achieved between the addresser and the addressee. In a way, Terejko (2016) concludes by saying that:

. . . Cognitive grammar expresses a profound interest in the issues of pragmatic nature, very often employing them as the basis for further investigation into the nature of language… the problems such as language acquisition, grammatical representations and structuring can be accounted for by means of a direct reference to the phenomena that are pragmatic in character (p. 43).

Leaving aside the discussions and theories concerning the bond between grammar and pragmatics, modal auxiliaries in English can be one of the favourite chapters as their denotational and connotational meanings do not mean much unless context-based pragmatic features are also taken into account. Yet, it may not even facilitate comprehension if modal auxiliaries are taught in isolation from their sociocultural discourse. For Kakzhanova (2010) “Modals express the result of the conversation of thought processes (deep structure) about the realization of actions into the surface structure” (p. 2530). As mentioned earlier, modals do not reflect a structural understanding for a particular intention, but encourage a socio-culturally oriented pragmatic approach to human
understanding. Kakzhanova adds that “. . . modals determine the relation of a person to actions or the quality of an action as realizable or unrealizable” (p. 2530). In English, certain tones of action are expressed using certain verbs, depending on the functions they perform in various contexts. Such verbs are called ‘modal auxiliaries’, whose functions can be ability, possibility, request, permission, obligation, etc. For Torabiardakani, et.al. (2015) “. . . modal auxiliary semantic system is enormously complicated for L2 learners because the same modals sometimes are used to express different functions like that of ‘probability’, ‘possibility’, ‘certainty’ and of ‘inclination’, ‘ability’, ‘permission’ and ‘obligation’” (p. 54). Though modal auxiliaries in English have different lexical forms and various functions in language use, in Turkish, they are expressed with the suffix {-ebilmek} {-meli} {-mali} attached to the main (root) verb. In this respect, the problem is that in the actual use of modal auxiliaries in English, the social, cognitive and situational (pragmatic) contexts are bounded together in the course of language production, making it impossible to consider each context acting in isolation from each other. However, in Turkish, the suffixes attached to the root verb provide limited clues to the audience and are mostly interpreted within a formal semantic frame. For this reason, Turkish learners of English find it difficult to fully grasp the semantic and pragmatic equivalence of modal auxiliaries and are, thus, unable to reflect their actual usage in language production either, in EFL or English as a Second Language (ESL) settings.

A contrastive study of Turkish and English modal auxiliaries: Perception of Turkish Students.
In this respect, modal auxiliaries are exemplified in pairs considering their functions in language usage. As the samples are examined, a pragmatic context is created to better understand the delivered message.

Sample 1
Function: Possibility
Modal Auxiliaries: Can & Be able to
[Two friends talking at a café about a previously discussed theatre event]

English:
A: Will you get two tickets for the movie tomorrow?
B: b1 – I think I will.
   b2 – I think I will be able to.

Turkish:
B: – Zannedersem alabilirim.

Both modal auxiliaries in English mean more or less the same in terms of the degree of possibility they represent. However, though –be able to– is more formal than –can –, –be able to– also reflects a message that something has to be completed or managed before so that ‘B’ will go and get the tickets. In –can– there is no hesitation that the tickets will be purchased, yet in –be able to– the speaker might have thought of some inappropriacies before using –be able to – instead of can. However, in Turkish, it is not possible to understand the degree of possibility represented in English form. The speaker A’s response to Turkish –B– will be a ‘thank you’ and so is the same
for b1. Yet, a response to b2 can either be a ‘thank you’ or a question trying to clarify the problem which was not articulated by B.

**Sample 2**

*Function: Permission  
Modal Auxiliaries: May & Can  
[In the classroom. The instructor is lecturing.]*

**English:**
Student: Sir, May I go to the toilet.
Instructor: – Yes, sure.
– No, please wait for the break!
Student: Sir, can I go to the toilet?
Instructor: No, you cannot!

**Turkish:**
Öğrenci: Hocam, tuvalete gidebilir miyim?
Hoca: – Evet, gidebilirsin.
– Hayır, gidemezsin!

In English, with the permission function once asked using –can–, the speaker is almost sure about to receive a positive response, but skips the fact that it is the teacher’s decision to give permission. That is why if a permission is asked with –can– the responder most probably will give a negative response. However, if formulated with –may–, the responder will reply in a positive manner. By asking for permission with –may– the student sends an unarticulated message to the instructor which means; ‘I respect your authority and your decision’, but in –can– the unarticulated message does not reflect such an intention. In the Turkish version, such a hidden intention does not exist. It is a direct question which would have either a negative or a positive response.

**Sample 3**

*Function: Obligation  
Modal Auxiliaries: Must & Have to  
[Mother, at home talking to her son about his studies.]*

**English:**
Mom: You must spend more time to study for your tomorrow’s quiz.
Mom: You have to spend more time to study for your tomorrow’s quiz.

**Turkish:**
Anne: Yarınki sınavına çalışman gerek.
Anne: Yarınki sınavına çalışmalısın.

In English, an obligation expressed with –must– and –have to– reflect strong obligation. When mom expresses this obligation with –must–, she means that she, herself, feels a strong
obligation for her son to study for tomorrow’s quiz but her son does not feel that obligation as her mother does at equal sense. On the other hand, when a strong obligation is expressed with –have to–, mom reminds her son of the external factors forcing him to study. In this respect, mom feels a very weak obligation and makes her son feel it more. However, in Turkish, it sounds more like a suggestion rather than any degree of obligation. It is not possible to identify which function it serves for. Even the responder might feel a little threat in mom’s speech.

**Sample 4**
*Function: Suggestion, weak obligation*

*Modal Auxiliaries: Should and Ought to*

[Two friends studying for tomorrow’s exam at home]

**English:**
A: What else shall we do?
B: We should do more practice if we want to be successful!

**Turkish:**
B: Başarılı olmak istiyorsak daha fazla pratik yapmalıyız.

[Father advising son for the graduation ceremony next week]

**English:**
You ought to go shopping and get ready by the end of this week. Do not leave everything to the last minute!

**Turkish:**
Alışverişe çıkmalı ve bu haftasonuna kadar hazır olmalısın. Her şeyi son dakikaya bırakma!

In English, both –should– and –ought to– represent weak obligation and suggestion. In the first example, the suggestion is expressed by –should–. However, one cannot use –ought to– in the place of –should– here because there is no formality involved. Likewise, in the second example, one cannot use –should– in the place of –ought to– since the context reflects a formal background (a graduation ceremony). A similar example can also be given with –ought to– when cultural obligations are represented.

Example: You ought to wear a suit and a tie for the Independence Day Ceremony.

In this respect, for the examples above, –should– is not preferred since it represents a suggestion with a weak obligation. In Turkish examples, it is not possible to distinguish the degree of formality and suggestion. It sounds more like a suggestion rather than any form of obligation. Therefore, to reflect the same contextual message in Turkish, additional words have to be added to the translation to match English meaning.

**Sample 5**
*Function: Degree of possibility*
Modal Auxiliaries: could, may, might

[Two friends talking on the way home]

English:
A: Would you like to go to the cinema tomorrow?
B: Well, we could.
   Well, we may.
   Well, we might.

The answer in Turkish:
B: Hmm (Pekala), gidebiliriz.

In English, the degree of possibility for –could– may– and –might– is weak. Though all modal auxiliaries in this respect demonstrate a weak possibility, –could– is stronger than –may– and so is –may– when compared with –might–. An answer given in –could– still holds the possibility of going for a movie tomorrow. However, an answer given in –may– and –might– seems an indirect refusal or expresses the presence of other conditions to the request. As speakers continue their conversation, for the answer given in –could–; they will most probably look for other ways (arrange their time, finish up routines earlier, get permission from X, etc.) to make it happen. Yet, for the answers in –may– and –might– it seems that it is not possible to make it happen and the speaker will express their sorrow and will make it happen someday in the future or will most probably make another plan. Relatedly, the answer given in Turkish does not reflect any of the hidden messages expressed in English and can contain both positive or negative messages, thereby resulting in confusion perhaps.

Sample 6
Function: Request, contingency
Modal Auxiliary: would, will

[Two friends talking at home. They are moving.]

English:
A: Would you please help me to pack these books?
B: Yes, I would!
   Yes, I will!

The answer in Turkish:
B: Evet, olabilir. / Evet, yardım edebilirim. (for would)
   Evet, edeceğim. (for will)

In English, the request formulated in –would– expresses contingency and reciprocality. A is asking for B’s help in a polite manner. Such a request also embodies an invitation for collaborative work. Likewise, the answer given in –would– is an approval for this request in the same manner. However, the answer given in –will– not only reflects a formal approval but also expresses a future possibility as well. In this respect, the answer given in –will– does not represent reciprocality or collaboration. On the other hand, the Turkish answer (for would) does not express
contingency, in the future. This possibility also does not mean an exact yes or no! Yet, in English, it expresses a positive response. However, the Turkish answer for –will- means exactly the same in English.

Now, let’s examine another example:

[Brother and his sister are at home studying math. It seems like they have been studying for a very long time and now is the time for a break.]

English:
Brother : Would you like to have some coffee?
Sister : Yes, I would.
          Yes, I do!

Turkish: (for –would–) : Evet, olabilir.
          Evet, içebilirim.
for (-do–) : Evet, içerim.

In English, the brother’s invitation for a cup of coffee embodies both contingency and reciprocality. Likewise, the sister’s answer for this invitation, expressed in –would- approves the question. Here, most probably, the brother will go to the kitchen and bring two cups of coffee for both of them. However, the answer represented in –do–, does not include a reciprocal intention. Here, the sister does not mind whether her brother will drink coffee with her or not. By answering in –do–, she simply asks for a cup of coffee for herself and does not take her brother into account. In Turkish, the answer (for would) again, does not reflect a reciprocal intention, but represents possibility expressed in a positive manner as in the previous example. However, the answer expressed with –do– both reflects a future action and a positive response as it is in the English version.

**Reflections in Classroom Settings**

Teaching modal auxiliaries to students, whose native language is a member of the agglutinative language family, is not easy. Since English is not taught in its authentic environment, the responsibilities of the language teachers are doubled in this sense. The semantic interpretation of the speech acts or translation activities are not enough for students to comprehend the intention behind the usage of modal auxiliaries. The socio-linguistic, semantic and pragmatic inputs have to be implemented to language teaching curriculum in order to provide students with the opportunity to consider a foreign (or second) language from the point of view of its native speakers. Classroom activities and theoretical input demonstrated in isolation from their actual usages in various social contexts do not seem to help learners to comprehend their functions in any way. As Philip (1984) summarizes:

The lesson to be learned here by ESL teachers is that there are other approaches to language structure besides transformational grammar and the fact that a theory is not recognized as being a dominant one in theoretical linguistics, does not mean that it is either misguided or of no value to ESL teachers. On the contrary, it seems
we might be able to discover quite a lot by looking into such theories with an eye on practical application (p. 23).

Linguistic theories or language learning and teaching methods are able to meet the needs of the language learners only to a certain extent. As Philip asserts, perhaps the major point in language teaching is to provide practical implications to classroom settings so that learners find enough room to discover not only their structural and semantic reflections, but also their actual usage in socio-cultural contexts and their pragmatic representations. Once students become aware of their such settings, historical backgrounds and their perception by the native speakers, a set of practical implications to encourage the use of modal auxiliaries can be as follows:

**Role Play**
The instructor can create a context in which the use of modal auxiliaries is practised in a near-native environment. Such practices not only provide students with the opportunity to transfer their theoretical background into context-based practices, but also enable the activation of communicative, pragmatic and semiotic competences. Critical and creative thinking, reflecting appropriately upon a request, providing fluency to avoid communication breakdowns, thinking from a pragmatic perspective so that the recipient and the addressee can both benefit from a mutually meaningful dialogue, the practice of non-linguistic elements – body language, signs, symbols – are perhaps some of the most significant implications of a role play activity in which students find more room to practice modal verbs.

**Cloze Tests**
Either with multiple-choice options or not, cloze tests help learners to practice both the grammatical structures of modals and their semantic and pragmatic interpretations in non-interactive settings. Students, in this respect, are able to diagnose the functions of modal auxiliaries by paying attention to their structural aspects in written contexts.

**Research Assignments**
The instructor can ask students to conduct research over the internet in order to find texts that include modal auxiliaries the most. The texts may come from the following:
- Tourism Brochures
- Travel Tips
- Audio scripts of Sitcoms
- Plays
- Instruction Manuals

The texts above include a large number of modal auxiliaries. In this respect, students become more aware of varying usages of modal verbs in different contexts. These contexts also help students increase their awareness about how language is practised in real-life settings. The instructors can ask students to highlight modal auxiliaries and want them to explain the reason behind the use of that specific modal in that particular statement / context. Thus, students recognize both the grammatical structures and the functional interpretation of modal verbs.

**Writing Tasks**
Writing a paragraph or an essay can be another opportunity for students to express their emotions through modal verbs. The syntactic structures formulated with *am, is, are, was, were, have, has,* and *will* are far from reflecting intentions upon a particular situation. The instructor in this case should encourage learners to use more modal auxiliaries in order to reflect their intentions in the context they create. By doing this, students learn to integrate the structural aspects of modals into their perception. Hence, the readers/hearers of these texts will benefit more from the stylistic use of modals and would comprehend the deep structure beyond mere surface interpretation.

**Songs**

For lower levels, teachers can ask students to record songs for EFL classroom. In turn, students can bring these songs to class and together follow the use of modals from the audio script. Later, the classroom can discuss the various functions of the modal verbs used in the songs with possible alternatives. Relatedly, there can be another discussion about how the meaning would change if replaced with another modal. (i.e. – have to – in the place of – must – or – had to – in the place of – should-, etc.)

**Discussions and Pedagogical Implications**

A human’s perception of his immediate environment depends on various parameters which mostly have already been achieved in the course of academic or non-academic activities. The development of a foreign language awareness cannot only be fed by structural properties but also socio-cultural, historical, pragmatic and semiotic conventions which shelter a broader understanding in foreign/second language. Modal auxiliaries in this respect are, perhaps, one of the subjects in English grammar whose perception requires more than traditional instruction and practice. As Kakzhanova (2013) claims, “Modals reflect both human intentions and objective circumstances as factors determining whether an object will be realized. They are words whose lexical meanings express degrees of realization of actions” (p. 2535). Here, her words; ‘realization of actions’ should be well investigated. In the course of an interaction between two people or in a particular text produced for a specific reason, if a text is produced intensely with modals, understanding what is meant may not be possible all the time by the addressee. Lack of theoretical input, limited knowledge about socio-cultural conventions and shortcomings in a broader comprehension of the pragma-semiotic aspects of language would result in communication breakdowns, which include misunderstanding, confusion, a slower L2 progress, fear and poor communication. When the delivered message could not be understood fully with its contents, the recipient can misinterpret the message, may not respond, show hesitation and, thus, produce a poor communication discourse, in which both parties fail to achieve the desired purpose of communication. This case especially occurs in EFL or ESL situations in which there is a high necessity for the language learners to fully grasp a foreign/second language with its all dimensions.

Turkish students find it difficult to understand the intended meaning of modal auxiliaries since such chapters are often taught in isolation from their socio-cultural and pragma-semiotic practices and contexts. In this way, students begin to refer to their First Language (L1) to find the equivalence and thus create a translation environment, which is not a desired process in language learning and teaching. In translation studies, equivalence is a serious problem that translators face especially in texts which are translated from L1 into L2. About the mismatch of modal verbs in Turkish and English, Kılıç (2013) states:
Modality is usually marked on the main verb in Turkish, it is not clearly marked as in English. Since the modalities are not used with performative verbs in Turkish as they are used in English, the syntactic structure of Turkish does not allow us to show a class of modals (p. 21).

The performative verbs (the morphemes) as attached to the main verbs (the root) are unable to reflect the intended message. Here, a language teacher has to prepare an operational plan to be integrated into the curriculum in which learners not only enjoy being a part of the action, but can also develop their linguistic, communicative and pragma-semiotic competencies which help them to frame a broader understanding of a foreign/second language. In this way, language learners can focus on both what and how they are expected to perform in a particular discourse. As Bardavi-Harlig (2001) states:

The role of instruction may be to help the learner to encode her own values (which again may be culturally determined) into a clear, unambiguous message … without asking a learner to compromise her values and adopt those of the target culture (p. 31).

A socio-culturally enriched FL/L2 curriculum helps learners to become more aware of themselves in terms of conforming the norms and values in the target language. Here, the teachers of EFL play a significant role in the construction of a FL/L2 schemata. As Kasper and Rose (2002) claims, “… unless learners consciously attend to the complex interaction between language use and social context they will hardly ever learn the pragmatics of a new language” (p. ix). A combination of implicit and explicit instruction should therefore be integrated into the regular content of the FL/L2 curriculum to facilitate linguistic input and to increase their awareness to raise their L2 consciousness to native speaker proficiency level. The aim of this instruction from Kasper’s (1997) perspective is to “help students situate L2 communicative practices in their socio-cultural context and appreciate their meanings and functions within the L2 community” (p. 12).

Conclusion
In this paper, modal auxiliaries, a typical chapter to be covered in English grammar, is taken into consideration. A carefully, neatly planned and implemented FL/L2 curriculum enriched with social and pragma-semiotic input not only facilitates successful interaction both in written and oral formats, but also helps learners to consider global issues from the native speaker’s perspective in which the foreign language acts as the primary interlocutor and agent in various contexts.

About the Author:
İsmail Erton, PhD., is an Assistant Professor at the Faculty of Arts and Sciences, Department of Translation and Interpretation, Atılım University, Ankara, Turkey. He is also the director of Academic Writing and Advisory Center (AWAC). His research interests are; linguistics, curriculum design and pedagogy, language learning and teaching, translation studies and education. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7057-6924
References
EFL Teachers’ Attitudes toward Commercial Textbooks in EFL Programs

Munassir Alhamami
English Department, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Javed Ahmad
English Department, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
The perception of the English as Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) is extremely crucial since their perceived views regarding the commercial English learning textbooks plays a major role in framing their attitudes towards such textbooks. These textbooks are published by different international publishers and used extensively in EFL programs around the globe. Moreover, attitudes do influence language learning. This paper aims to investigate teachers’ attitudes toward the commercial textbooks used in (EFL) programs. In this quantitative research, forty-three EFL instructors were surveyed through a Likert scale questionnaire. The results reveal, in general, the negative attitudes of the teacher towards commercial English textbooks since for them such textbooks are found insufficient in meeting the courses’ aims and objectives, students language proficiency level, their cultural sensitiveness, and their academic backgrounds. The study found teachers opinion vis-à-vis textbooks inappropriate content, a mismatch in learners’ needs and not in agreement with teaching methodologies. The paper offers a few recommendations to the EFL instructors as well as to the instructional designers to adapt and customize commercial textbooks in line with learners’ needs. It suggests teachers to use teaching material to suit the purpose, in addition to advising curriculum designers and content developers to take into account the specific needs of the students and the objectives of the course.

Keywords: EFL materials adaptation, EFL programs, EFL textbooks, EFL textbooks design, EFL teachers’ attitudes

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Introduction

The use of commercial textbooks that are introduced by international publishers is a common practice in most of the EFL programs due to the lack of language learning materials. Textbooks are considered the primary resource of input that students receive during their schooling years. Language teachers build their lessons, activities, and assignments based on the textbooks they use in their classrooms. Instructional materials can be divided broadly into two types: Printed content (textbooks, workbook, course book, and alternative material, etc.) and Non-Printed content (audios, videos, and computer-based materials). These are considered as the backbone of any EFL program. Of all these study materials, ‘textbooks’ are considered the most important component of any teaching/learning process.

Teachers’ positive attitudes towards the textbooks are surety of effective attainment of actual teaching and learning objectives whereas; reservations can destroy the whole process. Attitudes are also significant to measure because they act as directives for curriculum designer and material developers for the creation and development of new teaching materials. Also, it calculates the textbooks’ strengths and weaknesses in different aspects such as the culture of the target language, instructions given in the textbooks, input, and output.

Richards (2001) believes that EFL textbooks are a key component in most EFL language programs. They are especially beneficial for both teachers and learners. For teachers, they provide a kind of framework in achieving the aims and objectives of the course and guide them in conducting lessons. For learners, the textbook is the main exposure to the target language apart from the inputs they received from their language instructor. The use of commercial textbooks which are introduced by any international publishers is a common practice in most of the EFL programs. Since the textbooks play an essential role in any teaching-learning processes, and teachers are primary stakeholders of such books, so it is important to measure their attitudes towards such textbooks. The evaluation of the teachers’ attitudes towards commercial textbooks is significant because it affects the whole teaching-learning practice.

The students, as well as instructors, both are benefitted from the evaluation process of the textbooks. It is critical and beneficial for teachers’ development and professional growth. Ellis (1997) opines that it helps the teachers to gain purposeful, accurate, systematic and contextual insights into the overall nature of the textbook material. It mentions the students’ needs and helps the teachers to gain high-quality materials. Students are the actual end users of these commercial textbooks. Thus any language program must measure the attitudes of the target group. Regarding textbooks, for which these are, designed (Baker, 1992). Learners’ negative attitudes towards textbooks may decrease their motivation and may act as a major obstacle in their attainment of L2 proficiency.

According to Tomlinson (2003), “materials evaluation is a procedure that involves measuring the value of a set of learning materials. It involves making judgments about the effect of the materials on the people using them” (p. 15). Teachers are not passive recipients of any textbooks’ contents. They accept the inputs once they have evaluated them and accept their effectiveness regarding compatibility with their classroom. For them textbooks’ should be practical and feasible in terms of time, resources available, teachers’ and students’ needs,
methodology, aims and objectives of the course. Teachers’ negative attitude towards textbooks might help them to explore every bit of the textbook and will urge them to incorporate it into most of their lesson plans. And ultimately, this helps the language school to harvest positive course outcomes.

Teachers’ incompatible attitudes towards commercial textbooks will result in their reservations whereas their wholehearted cooperation and support will result in an intended outcome. Teachers’ attitudes towards textbooks might be shaped by different factors like their educational background, their age, educational level, and their teaching experiences.

Thus, this present study is an attempt to explore the teachers’ general attitudes towards commercial textbooks used in KSA in EFL undergraduate program. In doing so, the study will investigate whether the textbooks are suitable as per the official curriculum, needs, and interests of the students, the methodology of the teachers, aims and objectives of the course from the teachers perspective. Their notion will help the instructional designers in producing the appropriate materials, and these notions will help the teachers’ themselves in adapting and customizing the existing textbooks as per their needs. Hence, measuring teachers’ attitudes towards commercial textbooks in EFL programs would be very beneficial for educators, trainers, institutions, and above all for publishers. But, one undeniable fact should always be kept in mind that “no commercial textbook will ever be a perfect fit for language programs” (Richards 2001, p.2). This defines commercial textbooks as textbooks that are designed by international publishers to be taught in different EFL contexts albeit they are designed or adapted for a particular context. They can be used to teach students from different countries, university majors, and mother tongues.

Furthermore, the paper focuses on the users who will use the textbooks. Teachers are essential stakeholders to understand their attitudes about the textbooks. Teachers’ negative attitude towards the textbooks might result in the less effective use of the textbooks in language classrooms. This might affect the course’ outcomes negatively since most of the language schools choose those textbooks that match their curriculum outcomes. On the other hand, the positive attitude toward textbooks might help the teachers to use textbooks in most of their lesson plans. This helps the language schools to achieve the course outcomes. Different factors might shape the teachers' attitudes toward textbooks: it might be based on their educational background, their age, their educational level, and their teaching experiences.

**Literature Review**

Language textbooks are an essential part of the learning process in language classrooms (Garinger, 2001; Richards, 2001; Tomlinson, 1998, 2003). They are the base of the learning outcomes. Language teachers use the textbooks in the classroom for several reasons. One obvious reason is lacking the ability to develop new learning materials for classroom instruction (Sheldon, 1988). Language teachers find it challenging to create and develop their language teaching materials. They might do not have enough time in their classrooms to use new materials besides the textbooks. Newly created materials by the teachers might cause unexpected results in the classrooms due to their lack of experience in materials creations and adaptations. Therefore, the EFL teachers use the published commercial language textbooks because they are signed by the schools’ administration to fill in the course outcomes.
Cunningsworth (1995) identifies several roles of language textbooks in the learning and teaching process. Textbooks can be the resources for the activities and practices in the classroom. They are the reference for the grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation. Teachers can create and develop ideas in the language classrooms based on the use of the textbooks. They help the new teachers or the less experienced teachers to run their classrooms. Also, students can learn by themselves using their textbooks inside or outside their classrooms. Moreover, schools might choose textbooks that reflect the goals and objectives of the course. The textbooks reflect the objectives of the course and methods of teaching in the classroom. They work as the mirror for the activities that take place in the classroom. By reading the textbooks, the reader can have a clear idea about the course outcomes and contents (Richard 1998).

The advantages of using language textbooks in the language classrooms vary based on the textbooks and the contexts where they are used. Richards (2001) and Graves (2000) argue that one of the advantages of the textbooks is providing enough visuals and different activities that save the teachers’ time to search for language teaching materials. Textbooks which are visually appealing and contain different activities might attract the students’ attention and engage them in the learning process. Experts in language learning fields write the textbooks, which give the textbooks outcomes that are more purposeful. Writing textbooks is a long process in which they are exposed to the students and tested several times before they are actually published to make sure that they yield the expected learning outcomes in favorable learning conditions. Moreover, they help the teachers to set clear goals and objectives for their courses. In short, textbooks are the resource of knowledge in the classrooms and outside the classrooms.

The disadvantages of using textbooks in language classroom might be caused by the textbooks themselves or by the contexts where they are being used. Crawford (2002), Graves (2000), and Richards (2001) opine that the textbooks might have negative effects on the learning process. For example, the textbooks might not match the students’ language proficiency levels and cultural values. Students might depend on the textbooks as the only source of information. This will limit the students’ ability to explore further in the target language. Besides, this will deskill the teachers and limit their creativities in the classroom. Another negative side of the textbooks is that some of these are designed for specific contexts which might cause conflicts in the classroom such as cultural, political and social conflicts.

Teachers’ beliefs influence the instructional practices in the classroom (Burns, 1992; Lee & Bathmaker, 2007). Their attitudes are a key factor in the effectiveness of using the textbooks in the classroom. Their attitudes shape the way they interpret and teach the textbooks. In EFL programs, this is an important variable that does influence the effectiveness of using the textbooks in language learning. McGrath (2006) stresses that “since teachers’ attitudes to textbooks are likely to have an impact on how they use them, and learners’ attitudes, and learning, will be affected by how teachers use them, it seems vital to seek to understand what these attitudes are” (p.171). Understanding teachers’ attitudes toward textbooks will explain the way the teachers’ deal with them. Negative attitudes might result in less or ineffective use of the textbooks. Positive attitudes might exploit every part of the textbooks in the classrooms.
However, few studies focus on the EFL teachers’ attitudes toward the EFL textbooks. Harwood (2010) states, “clearly, future studies also need to focus on students’ reactions to and comprehension of the materials, as well as on teachers’ interpretations of the materials” (p.19). There is the need to conduct further studies on the effect of teachers’ attitudes on the use of textbooks (Harwood, 2010) since that the textbooks are the most convenient form of presenting materials in the classrooms (Littlejohn, 1992; Tomlinson, 2001).

The Research Question:

a. Based on EFL teachers’ experiences in the field, how they perceive EFL commercial textbooks in EFL program and what they think about the influence of EFL commercial textbooks on students, courses, contents, and cultures in EFL learning environment are the gist of this research. How do the teachers, in general, perceive EFL textbooks?

b. What are the negative contents that could affect the learning outcome?

c. How far, as per the teacher’s perceptions, the textbooks mismatch with the course objective?

d. How does the content affect the learners in the lingual and cultural domain?

Methods

The current study is having a naturistic and exploratory approach as it considers the experience, perception and social realities of EFL teachers towards textbooks.

A questionnaire was administered to seek the opinion of teachers. It contains fourteen closed-ended responses that investigate the teachers’ attitudes toward the use of textbooks in their classrooms. Brown (2001) writes, “Attitudes questions are typically used to obtain data about the participants’ feelings, wishes, and attitudes toward the elements of a language curriculum” (p. 33). These attitudes’ questions are evaluated on Likert-scale questions. Likert-scale questions are used in the survey because they are “effective for gathering respondents’ views, opinions, and attitudes about various language-related issues” (Brown, 2001, P. 41). The survey items are adapted from language materials evaluation research (Littlejohn, 1998, Tomlinson, 1998; 2003). They are ordered rationally to control the ordering effect. They are formatted in terms of spacing, typing and highlighting to give the participants a clear idea about the survey. (see Appendix A for the Questionnaire items).

Participants

It is essential to describe the participants in the study and the reasons for their selection (Brown, 1988). In this study, the participants are the English language instructors at a Saudi university. They have different biographical factors. They have different cultural backgrounds as they are from different countries such as South Africa, Canada, India, Pakistan, Saudi Arabia, Egypt, Jordan, Bangladesh, Sudan, Yemen, and Syria. They have different educational and curriculum backgrounds as they have finished their graduate and postgraduate studies in different countries such as America, Bangladesh, Canada, Egypt, India, Jordan, Saudi Arabia, South Africa, Sudan, Syria, and United Kingdom and that too at different educational institutions in those countries. They are also of varied age groups.
The participant teachers have vast, multifarious, and diverse experience of teaching EFL in various institutions and in many countries. There, they have worked at different positions, have taught various English learning (crash, short-term and full-term) courses to different levels of students. Moreover, the most important factor is that they have dealt with mixed and wide-ranging commercial textbooks in achieving the desired outcomes.

The students are mostly Saudi sharing the same culture and same first language (Arabic). They are roughly between 19-25 years of age. They are all male. The requirements to attend the college at the Saudi Universities are passing the high school and the Saudi National Exam (QEYAS). The university students are not required to do any English proficiency test that shows their English proficiency level such as TOEFL or ILETS.

Results and Discussions

The survey items are grouped into four categories: Students’ Related Issues, Content Related Issues, Course Related Issues, and Culture Related Issues. The items are presented in the survey in different to examine the participants’ attitudinal factors about each category. Future pedagogical implications and recommendations are then made on the basis of analysis of the result collected.

A. EFL Commercial Textbooks & EFL Students

The first category presents the teachers’ perspectives on issues related to students in commercial textbooks. Table 1 summarizes and presents the participants’ attitudes about the variables related to students in the commercial textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>Q#1 Helping Students for Their future Study</th>
<th>Q#5 Considering Students’ Academic Backgrounds</th>
<th>Q#6 Fitting Students’ Proficiency Level</th>
<th>Q#11 Providing Students with needed language level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>(2) 4.7</td>
<td>(2) 4.7</td>
<td>(5) 11.6</td>
<td>(0) 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>(5) 11.6</td>
<td>(21) 48.8</td>
<td>(18) 41.9</td>
<td>23.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>(12) 27.9</td>
<td>(11) 25.6</td>
<td>(14) 32.6</td>
<td>39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>(20) 46.5</td>
<td>(8) 18.6</td>
<td>(4) 9.3</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>(4) 9.3</td>
<td>(1) 2.3</td>
<td>(2) 4.7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first item in this category asked the instructors about their opinions if the textbooks help the students in their future study at the University. More than half of the surveyed instructors thought that the commercial textbooks help the students in their future academic studies at the university. The majority believe that commercial textbooks provide the students with the academic language that the students need in their colleges. The textbooks might contain enough academic words and structures of the academic language. The textbooks give synchronized structure and a standard syllabus for a course. Without textbooks, a course has no spine and students have no systemically planned and developed syllabus. However, there are quite a few instructors who think that the commercial textbooks are not necessarily helpful for the students’ academic studies in their colleges. This might be due to commercial textbooks are not able to maintain the quality, students are not exposed to the materials, the content of the textbooks are not tried and tested, they may lack sound learning principle.

The second item in the category asked the instructors’ about their views if the textbooks’ contents consider the students’ academic backgrounds. More than half of the surveyed instructors believe that the textbooks do not consider the students’ academic backgrounds.

They may believe that commercial textbooks have distorted content, inauthentic language and may not reflect the students’ need properly. Students take different courses in their elementary and in high schools. Thus, they have different academic backgrounds. For example, in Saudi Arabia, there are core courses such as the Holy Quran, Hadith, Tawheed, Fiqah, and Arabic language since the elementary education that are not available in other countries. Also, students might join different academic disciplines. This will create different academic needs. Barnard and Zemach illustrate, “a student taking a humanities seminar will need discussion skills; a student in the science may need specialized vocabulary” (2003, p. 312).

The third item in the category asked the instructors if they think that the commercial textbooks fit the students’ language proficiency level. The majority of the instructors think that the textbooks do not meet the students’ English language proficiency. These textbooks might be higher or lower than the students’ current language level. Instructors might be of this opinion that textbooks are mostly targeted towards marketing or profit-making so the publishers may compromise the language proficiency contents and major instructional principles. International publishers target schools that follow the western or English speaking countries educational systems. The educational systems are varied among the countries. For example, the English language is taught since the kindergarten in some countries. In Saudi Arabia, students begin their English classes from the sixth grade.

In addition, the English language textbooks in high schools also vary. Tomlinson states “materials should help the learners to develop confidence, “e.g., through pushing learners slightly beyond their existing proficiency by involving them in tasks which are challenging but achievable” (2003, p. 21). Also, textbooks’ activities should build the learners’ confidence so that learners can use language well. Rubdy (2003) stresses that the activities in materials should provide learners with confidence. So, the students can communicate well in their classrooms with their classmates and instructors.
The last item in this category asked the instructors if the commercial textbooks provide the students with the language proficiency needed to get success in their studies. The majority of the instructors believe that the textbooks provide the students with the language proficiency that they need to get success in their studies which is based on the authentic materials, target group and need for language learning, what is happening in the world, intrinsic educational thirst and the same piece of material can be used under different way and situation.

Textbooks might contain the necessary vocabulary and language structures that students need to understand before they start their studies in their colleges. Few instructors thought that the textbooks do not necessarily provide the needed language proficiency to achieve success in colleges. This might be due to the fact that the textbooks cannot cover all the vocabulary and language skills in different disciplines.

Howard and Brown, (1997) stress that in order to provide adequate preparation for college/university-level work, English for academic purposes instructors must be able to teach the following language skills and strategies: (a) reading (e.g., scanning, skimming, and critical thinking). (b) Writing (e.g., academic discourse, genres, grammar). (c) Listening/speaking (e.g., lectures oral presentation). Also, Millard (2000) stresses that language programs should include some form of grammatical instructions to develop students’ grammatical accuracy.

B. Commercial Textbooks and EFL Contents

The second category presents participants’ perspectives regarding the contents of the commercial textbooks. Table 2 summarizes and presents the participants’ attitudes regarding the contents that commercial textbooks include.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>Q#8 Reorder the Contents</th>
<th>Q#9 Add the Contents</th>
<th>Q#10 Replace the Contents</th>
<th>Q#13 Updated the Contents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>(11) 15.6</td>
<td>(4) 9.3</td>
<td>(4) 9.3</td>
<td>(0) 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>(10) 23.3</td>
<td>(13) 30.2</td>
<td>(11) 25.6</td>
<td>(9) 20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>(10) 23.3</td>
<td>(16) 37.2</td>
<td>(15) 34.9</td>
<td>(12) 27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>(11) 25.6</td>
<td>(9) 20.9</td>
<td>(11) 25.6</td>
<td>(17) 39.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>(1) 2.3</td>
<td>(1) 2.3</td>
<td>(2) 4.7</td>
<td>(5) 11.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first item in the category asked the participants based on their experiences if they realize that the teachers do not need to reorder some of the textbooks’ content. The instructors’ opinions are spread between the agreement and disagreement. It seems that the majority of them think that they need to order the textbooks. There might be different reasons to do so such as course books deskill teachers, course books cause boredom, no textbook is perfect, every class is unique, and every student should be treated individually. Another obvious reason is to coordinate with other language skill classes that might use different textbooks. Materials should be adaptable to make the learning process effective. Dat Boa states, “good material should suggest ways for the teacher to make the process adaptable to a broad spectrum of learners” (2003, p.386).

Moreover, the textbooks should be flexible to sequence them the way teachers need. Millard (2000) stresses that “[grammar textbooks should] maintain a communicative focus that interests learners while allowing teachers to sequence their classes as they deem appropriate” (p. 49). In addition, the textbooks should be adaptable for teaching styles, students’ needs, and institution’s goals. Singapore and Duriya state that the materials should be adaptable to teaching styles and the methods of the teaching body (2003, p. 144).

The second item in the category asked the teachers if they think that the teachers do not need to add some content to the textbooks. Around 40% of the instructors think that they need to add some contents to the textbooks to cover the course aims and objectives. 37% percent give equal opportunity to the additional materials use in the classroom. They expect that they sometimes might need to bring materials from outside the textbooks to help the students to achieve the course’s outcomes. Graves (2000) suggested that teacher should use the textbooks as a resource to minimize the difficulties and may use as a guide, be free to modify, change, eliminate, evaluate, add, develop and supplement the textbooks with lots of external readings. Another reason might be that the textbooks do not meet all the students’ needs and learning styles. The textbook should contain different learning styles to give an equal opportunity to the students because there are usually different students who have different learning styles such as auditory learning (learning by hearing), visual learning (learning by seeing), and kinesthetic learning (learning by doing) in the class. Tomlinson (2003) states that the materials should cater for different preferred learning styles.

Moreover, Hismanoglu (2000) stresses that the most important role for foreign language teacher is the provision of a collection of tasks to match varied learning styles. In order to do this role, the teacher needs materials that consider learners’ different learning styles. Around 23% of the instructors doubt that whether they need to add some contents to the textbooks since the textbooks cover all the course’ objectives. After all, the teachers do not have enough time to cover the signed language materials by the administrations.

The third item asked the participants if they think that the teachers do not need to replace some of the textbooks’ content. More than one-third of the instructors find that in some situations they need to replace the content of the textbooks. For example, if the textbooks contain inappropriate activities that might not match the students’ interests such as sports’ activities like ice hockey and ice skating, rugby, and cricket. These sports are uncommon in Saudi Arabia. Teachers might replace them with other common sports in Saudi Arabia such as soccer and volleyball. The instructors might replace some of the contents of the textbook with more authentic
activities that fit the students’ needs. Graves (2000) gave a cycle in which a series of steps can be practiced. Planning, how to teach with text, teaching the text, re-planning how to teach, and re-teaching. Planning includes need analysis and textbook structure analysis; teaching takes care of implementing the modifications. Re-planning stresses on planning again using all the conclusions made during the completion of a course and reteaching is the implementation of the decisions and conclusions made during re-planning.

The textbook should contain authentic materials. Outside the classroom, students are going to listen and read the language that is not modified for non-native speakers. Saraceni (2003) states that language learning materials should be based on authentic texts that are texts which have been written for any purpose other than language teaching. So, language teachers should prepare their students by teaching those authentic materials and use authentic activities that students are going to do in the college. Lowe (2010) clarifies, “language teachers should dare to use authentic texts, and must use authentic activities such as summarizing, outlining and inferencing” (p.1). It is the teacher responsibility to use authentic materials, and they can do that by choosing a book that contains authentic texts.

The fourth item in the category asked the participants think that the contents of the commercial textbooks are updated. More than half of the instructors think that the textbooks are up-to-date. The textbooks contain current topics such as technology products names and current international events. The textbook should provide the students with the most important and current technological terms and abbreviation. Outdated textbooks might not increase the students’ motivations and engagements especially of those who have joined the college of engineering and computer sciences. Richards (2015) standpoint is to monitor the use of materials by classroom observation, feedback sessions with teachers, written reviews by teacher or group of teachers, and students’ comments on their experience of with the materials.

Motivation plays a vital role in the language learning process. So, students should be motivated to learn effectively. Cives-Enriques states, “if the students of any discipline enjoy what they are doing, they will at least make the effort to learn” (2003, p. 240). Therefore, materials’ activities should motivate students to learn. Harmer (2007) states that students become bored and they find the subject more difficult than their expectations. Therefore, the teacher should sustain students’ motivation by providing materials that contain current topics and issues.

C. EFL Commercial Textbooks and EFL Courses

The third category presented the participants’ views of factors that are related to courses inside the commercial textbooks. Table 3 summarizes and presents the influence of EFL commercial textbooks in EFL courses.

Table 3. Teachers’ Attitudes Toward EFL Commercial Textbooks Regarding EFL Courses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>Q#3 Course’s Aims and Objectives</th>
<th>Q#4 Course’s Time Frame</th>
<th>Q#14 Teaching Methods</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>(2) 4.7</td>
<td>(6) 14.0</td>
<td>(0) 0.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EFL Teachers’ Attitudes toward Commercial Textbooks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>(10) 23.3</td>
<td>(8) 18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>(17) 39.5</td>
<td>(20) 46.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>(12) 27.9</td>
<td>(7) 16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>(2) 4.7</td>
<td>(2) 4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
<td>(43) 100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first item in this category presents the participants’ views if they think that the textbooks meet the course’s aims and objectives. 28% of the instructors think that commercial textbooks fail to foster the course’ aims and objectives. They think that the course’ objectives are broad and cannot fit within a single commercial textbook. The majority of them give equal opportunities where the textbooks might meet some but not all. This might mean that the textbooks to some extent meet the course’ overall objectives. 32% of the surveyed instructors agree that the textbooks that they use meet the course’ aims and objectives.

Skopinskaja, (2003) states textbook content needs to be analyzed in reference to its specified aims and objectives, e.g., to what extent teaching areas like grammar, vocabulary, reading and writing and culture is present in a student’s book, teachers’ manual, and activity book. Also, it is important to determine whether, for example, cultural information is taught in a particular context (texts, exercises, dialogues) or as isolated facts.

The textbooks might achieve the aims by verifying the learners’ roles that textbooks activities provide. For example, the role of the learners might be that of a participator in some activities, researcher, context explorer, speaker, a builder who constructs products such as diagrams or essays, a listener, a reader, a team member who works on projects, or of a writer who applies and analyzes information.

The second item in this category asked the participants if they think that the commercial textbooks organization fit the course’s time frame. From the mentioned results, we can see that instructors are not satisfied with the time that is required to cover the textbook chapters. 32% of the instructors have negative experiences about managing time to cover the required textbooks within the semester. This issue shows that the EFL program administration might underestimate or overestimate the required period to teach each textbook. EFL programs vary regarding the time required to finish the assigned textbooks. Some school might want to finish the textbooks within two months. Others might need to finish them in four months. This is a dilemma for the language textbooks publishers. They cannot meet the needs of all EFL programs with one textbook. Educationist advocates that there is an appropriate balance between depth and breadth in the treatment of subject matter, the level of difficulty of the material for timely completion of a course book.
In addition, it is clear that some of these commercial textbooks are designed to be self-study materials. However, teachers might facilitate difficulties, manage the activities, provide information, or add examples. Coulson clarifies that the effectiveness of self-study materials will increase “if the teacher actively augmented the instruction by rephrasing difficult program items, adding examples, working through the program problems with the student, and branching the student to different parts of the program” (1967, p. 1). So, the stockholders are varied with their time slots to study these commercial textbooks. As a result, this puts demands on the EFL programs to be careful about assigning the required time to cover the textbooks.

The third question in this category asked the instructors if they think that the commercial textbooks are suitable with regard to the teaching methods used in the classes. 67 percent of the instructors have found that the textbooks can fit with different teaching methods. It seems that the commercial textbooks are fixable with different language teaching methods. Materials should develop a student’s ability to communicate in spoken and written form. Tomlinson (2003) confirms that “materials should provide the learners with opportunities to use the target language to achieve communicative purposes” (p. 21).

Flipped classroom model can be useful as it encourages students to prepare the lesson before the lecture. At present, gamification method is in fashion. It enables students to learn the subject without even realizing. It is a technique which focuses on learning through the use of games. Social media can also be used as a tool for teaching. Today students are well connected to various social media websites and their applications so they need little motivation. For example, the Brazilian Academy of Languages “Red Ballon” asked students to review the tweets of their favorite artists and correct grammatical errors that they committed in an effort to improve their English language skills!

In recent years, publishers have tried to create materials that promote students’ ability to use the language. Littlejohn (1992) states that there is “an increased role for materials in endeavoring to provide ways of promoting communicative language use” (p.108). Even some of them are designed for more updated teaching methods such as the communicative teaching methods. The teachers have the ability to use the same contents with different teaching methods such as the grammar-translation method and audio-lingual method.

D. EFL Commercial Textbooks and EFL Cultures

The fourth category in this study presents the teachers’ attitudes toward cultural issues inside the commercial textbooks. Table 4 summarizes and presents the variables that are related to culture in EFL commercial textbooks.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attitudes</th>
<th>Q#2 Conflicts, Values, &amp; Beliefs</th>
<th>Q#7 Deleted Contents</th>
<th>Q#12 Academic Culture</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>(3) 7.0</td>
<td>(6) 14.0</td>
<td>(0) 0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>(7) 16.3</td>
<td>(17) 39.5</td>
<td>(8) 18.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The first question in this category asked the participants if they believe that the commercial textbooks do not conflict with the students’ values, beliefs and culture. When the instructors were asked about the cultural conflicts in EFL classrooms due to the use of the commercial textbooks, more than half of them give the equal opportunity of agreement and disagreement. They are not quite sure about the cultural issues that commercial textbooks raise in the classroom. This might be due to the fact that the teachers come from different backgrounds and have different cultures than the students’ culture. The instructors might not have a deep understanding of their students’ culture and religious beliefs. It depends on the context and people. Some students might be more open-minded where they can accept discussions on cultural topics such as religious beliefs and religious holidays.

The question to ask ourselves bearing in mind socio-cultural factors in language teaching process is whether teachers should include socio-cultural factors in the teaching process. Wardhaugh (1992) wrote instructors might have a positive or negative response. In case of positive response, then we have to decide how much socio-cultural information should be given to learners and what methods of teaching and kind of techniques should be used while analyzing or teaching the textbooks. We may have different target culture; it does not primarily a native culture like English or British. Instructors must consider the learners’ needs, characteristics and aims.

Zaid (1999) stresses that in some EFL textbooks there are violations to some native cultures. Although the authors may not have intended these insensitivities; all of these, from the perspective of a non-Western culture, promote confrontation. For example, social aspects of Western culture are stressed in exercises and activities: Boyfriend/girlfriend, dating, beach/bikini wear, the consumption of wine, dancing, and hugging. These might be prohibited social activities in certain non-Western societies such as Saudi Arabia.

According to Byram and Grundy (2003), language students can develop cultural sensitivity if they are allowed to internalize different cultural outlooks and perspectives as well as the fundamental aspects of cultures. There is a need that a culturally neutral form of English or target culture tailored English textbooks should be appropriate to nullify the cultural sensitiveness. Global language utilization for communication purposes would enable the non-native speakers to retain their cultural characteristics as much as possible.

The second item in this category asked the participants if they think that the teachers do not need to delete some of the commercial textbooks’ content. More than half of the instructors need to delete some of these commercial textbooks contents. There might be different reasons for
doing so such as cultural conflicts. These textbooks might contain sensitive contents as we have discussed in the second question. Teachers can also delete repeated contents as they might have been covered in other textbooks. Teachers can also delete some contents because they are either complicated and unnecessary for the students, or too easy for them.

The teacher or instructor is not obliged to cover all the content of the textbook. Sometimes, some parts of the textbook are not appropriate for the teaching situation. The process of textbook adaptation is left for language teachers. Some objectives for material adaptation: to eliminate the unnecessary content, to consider individual differences, to provide the content based on learning strategies and cognitive styles of the learners, to justify the content based on the learners’ culture and values, to establish challenges for the talent learners, to accomplish the learners’ interests and goals, to maximize the learners’ involvement in the teaching process, and to reduce stress and anxiety on the part of the learners (Tomlinson, 2003).

The third item in this category asked the instructors if they believe that the textbooks introduce the students to the academic culture of their future colleges. Around 40% of the surveyed teachers assume that the textbooks help the students to understand the academic culture in the colleges. For example, the textbooks might contain topics that explain common rules in colleges that did not necessarily exist in high school such as university rules and principles, college students’ roles and duties, time management in the college life, and creating academic social networks. Materials should be relevant to the learners to be useful for them. Dörnyei (2003) states that language materials should be relevant for the learners because they do care about their learning.

The textbook might include several learning-teaching strategies such as pair discussion sharing, repetition, clarification or identification, guided reading, interview, guided writing, brainstorming, note taking, making a presentation, guessing, classifying, understanding point of view, evaluating, and revising. Hismanoglu (2000) stresses the importance of teaching-learning strategies such as clarification, guessing, practice, participation in the conversation, analyzing, evaluating, and revising the language learning process.

**Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations**

This analytical attempt is conducted to assess the teachers’ attitudes towards commercial textbooks in EFL programs in Saudi Arabia. The results of the study highlighted that the commercial textbooks used in EFL programs are quite ineffective. They do not encounter the needs of the teachers or the students within the Saudi context. These textbooks are not considered a perfect fit within the Saudi educational system from the language instructors’ perspectives. As the textbooks are the major source of contact, the students have with target language; and for teachers, they provide structure and syllabus for a program. Richards (2001), states that there should be a complete agreement with learners, teachers and with the administration. However, as Grant (1987) claims “the perfect book does not exist” yet one can come with the best solution available. Thus the study recommends language instructors to adapt the available commercial textbooks according to their context by applying the methods of simplification, reduction, modification, deletion and editing of contents of the textbooks. They can even bring some of the language materials that are culturally relevant and more authentic. They can even supplement their textbooks with alternative
materials available. They can use authentic materials in the classroom to make the teaching-learning process more realistic and neutral.

Teachers’ negative attitudes towards commercial textbooks act as directives for material designers and developers. The study recommends the course designers to revise their textbooks in a way that they suit the learners’ needs, provide them with ample opportunity to interact with textbook’s contents, enhance their skills and motivate them towards learning. It also suggests them to create and develop specific textbooks to cater the specific needs of the specific discipline. Teachers also found the contents of the selection of the instructional materials will affect teachers, students, and overall classroom dynamics. The said time frame should be kept in mind and should be one of the most important criteria while selecting EFL textbooks. Teachers’ and students’ views should also be given due importance. The use of systematic procedure can result in the most potential selection and will ultimately enhance the learners’, teachers’ and administration’s outcome.

Participants of the study revealed negative attitudes towards the course’s time frame. Now, this brings responsibility on the EFL program administrators to evaluate and analyze textbooks before selecting them for their programs. They should amend and reconsider their EFL textbooks selection policies and decisions related to the textbooks which are culturally inappropriate for KSA. Thus, it is recommended to the course designers to bear in mind the cultural sensitivity of the region while designing textbooks. If the textbooks do not respect the cultural habit of the students, then they will be demotivated from the textbooks. As Karmani (2005) stresses that the material and contents of English textbooks are culturally inappropriate in the Arabian Gulf, the publishers of these textbooks are sensitive to the marketability of their textbooks in the Arabian Gulf region. The attempts to modify the textbooks' cultural elements such as pictures and habits make them acceptable; however, the learners fail to understand and appreciate the target culture.

**Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

One point that might affect the results of this study is the definition of the word attitude. The teachers’ attitudes involve the teachers’ opinions, interests, and values. Dörnyei, (2003) states that the attitudinal questions are “abroad category that concerns attitudes, opinions, beliefs, interests and values. These five interrelated terms are not always distinguished or defined very clearly in the literature” (p. 7). The word attitude is abroad category. However, this study looks for the teachers’ attitudes in general. This might not affect the results of the study. Another limitation point in the design of the study is using questionnaires which might involve subjectivity. For example, the researchers in the study might not know if the participants exaggerate in their answers (Mackey & Gass, 2005; Wallace, 1998). However, the participants were informed that the study is for research purposes and their answers are very important to make conclusions about the textbooks.

The current research shows that there is a need for future studies that study the language teachers’ attitudes and the use of textbooks in the classrooms (Harwood, 2010; McGrath, 2006). Understanding the biographical factors that shape the teachers’ attitudes toward the textbooks will help the language teaching schools and the textbooks publishers to design and provide workshops.
for the teachers to change or strengthen their attitudes. This will result in practical use of the EFL textbooks in the EFL classrooms.

Replicating the study to see similar or different findings will contribute to the research in teachers’ attitudes toward textbooks. Language Teaching Review Panel (2008) writes, “Language teaching is now encouraging original papers which replicate previous significant experimental studies in the field of language learning and teaching” (p. 1). Replication will give the results of this high validity if it has the same results. Future studies might investigate how we can change the negative attitudes of teachers toward the textbooks. Language program can use methods such as workshops and seminars to help the teachers to change their attitudes toward the used textbooks.

Conclusion

The present study is conducted to underscore the commercial textbooks potentiality and suitability in EFL programs from teachers’ perspective. Teachers’ perspective towards instructional materials is accountable as it is a predictor for course outcome. The current research chose the quantitative method where data is collected through a close-ended questionnaire. The questions were themed to sort out the textbooks feasibility with students’ academic backgrounds, their proficiency level, their cultural values, courses’ aim and objectives, time frame, methodology and content relevancy. The results of each item in the survey were then comprehensively analyzed separately. The analysis revealed, in general, negative attitudes of teachers’ toward commercial textbooks. They demonstrated their incompatibility with commercial textbooks. Majority of the instructors maintained that the commercial textbooks do not consider the students’ academic backgrounds. This may be the reason that students coming to undergraduate program are from varied academic background and one textbook cannot cater the background of each student as it needs to comply with its own set standards.

Most of the instructors’ response maintained a mixed attitude with few of the textbooks attributes, like meeting course aims and objectives, with textbooks conflict with students’ values, beliefs, and culture. Based on the results it can be safely concluded that there are many incompatibilities between language instructors and commercial textbooks. They possess mostly negative attitudes toward commercial textbooks in EFL programs. Only a few attributes they showed positive and to others, a mixed sort of attitudes. The obvious factor behind this may be that the teachers in the study share different educational, political, economic, social and cultural background backgrounds.

The negative attitudes of teachers raise the attention of EFL administrators to reconsider the selection policy of the commercial textbooks. They should evaluate and select teaching material on several criteria such as course aims and objectives, learners’ needs, cultural issues and theory of learning. Moreover, these negative attitudes bring certain responsibilities on the teachers themselves. The study concluded that teachers should adapt the contents of the textbook and can supplement them with alternative and authentic materials. The results of the study are like the indicator for the material designer to keep in mind the raised concerns and issues while developing and designing textbooks for EFL programs in KSA. To sum up, commercial textbooks for EFL programs in KSA need more revision, adaptation, redesigning, redeveloping to make them more effective.
About the authors

Dr. Munassir Alhamami is an assistant professor at the Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia. He received his MA degree from Trinity Western University, Canada. He received the PhD degree from University of Hawai‘i at Mānoa, USA. ORCID: http://orcid.org/0000-0003-4229-9947

Mr. Javed Ahmad is a lecturer at English Language Center, Faculty of Languages and Translation, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia. He joined the University as a lecturer in 2008. He received his MA (English Language and Literature) degree from Aligarh Muslim University. He also did Master in Education from Aligarh Muslim University. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8147-0642

References


Appendix A

To what extent do you disagree or agree with the following statement in general:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Neither</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks help the students for their future study at ............</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks do not conflict with the students’ values, beliefs, and culture.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks meet the course’s aims and objectives.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks’ organization fit the course’s time frame.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks’ contents consider the students’ academic backgrounds.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks fit the students’ language proficiency levels.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>In general, the teachers do not need to delete some of the textbooks’ content.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>In general, the teachers do not need to reorder some of the textbooks’ content.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>In general, the teachers do not need to add some content to the textbooks.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>In general, the teachers do not need to replace some of the textbooks’ content.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks provide the students with the language proficiency needed to get success in their studies.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks introduce the students to the academic culture of their future colleges.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks’ content is updated.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>In general, the textbooks are suitable with regard to the teaching methods used in the classes.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thank You
The Englishization of Materiality in the Linguistic Landscape of a Southern Jordanian City

Ghazi Khaleel Al-Naimat
Department of English Language and Literature, College of Arts,
Al-Hussein Bin Talal University, Ma’an, Jordan

Omar Ibrahim Alomoush
Department of English Language and Literature, College of Arts,
Tafila Technical University, Tafila, Jordan

Abstract
This article investigates the interrelationship between English used on signs and materiality in the linguistic landscape (LL) of a touristic Jordanian town, Petra. Its aim is to analyze how the materials that signs are made of reflect recurrent practices of identity formation and numerous socio-cultural norms in the Jordanian tourism context. The signs were first coded according to language, and then categorized within the framework of material practices enacted by sign designers. The results show that signs written on stone and metal surfaces often displaying English in uppercase letters and replicating governmental practices convey a sense of quality, continuity and permanence within economic and tourism-centered ideologies and polices; the visibility of English painted on wooden board signs is evidence of the creativity further manifested in block capitals to denote a sense of freshness and newness; signs printed and hand-written on paper often appearing in uppercase letters manifest the dynamic nature of the LL, ensuring the flow of special offers and even linguistic and non-linguistic changes; most remarkably, monolingual English signs painted inside sand bottles symbolize important environmental, historical, and cultural information on the ancient city of Petra, which contributes significantly to the popularity of Petra as a worldwide tourist destination among members of the tourist population, particularly the international visitors.

Key words: English, linguistic and paralinguistic practices, linguistic landscape, materiality, Petra

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1. Introduction
While many research trends in general linguistics have fundamentally built on Saussure’s (1983) assumption that the ways of inscription have no influence on the linguistic system, that is, “Whether I write in black or white, in incised characters or in relief, with a pen or a chisel”—none of that is of any importance for the signs’ meanings (1983, p. 118), the other pole of research noticeably examines language in its real-world situations and has drawn a close connection between the material type of signs and the capability of reflecting different underlying meanings recognized by some process of semiotic investigation (see Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996; Scollon & Scollon, 2003). As a starting point for establishing a linguistic background for the present study, we will build on the link between the materialistic nature of signs and the meanings conceived in Jordan tourist attractions within a specific theoretical framework of social semiotics. It is no question that the written language is deeply entwined with the iconic aspects of materials on which displays of written language are put up by sign designers, which in turn constitutes a distinguishing characteristic of this subfield of LL (see Backhaus, 2007; Stroud & Mpendukana, 2009; Jaworski & Thurlow, 2010). The materiality of written signs is believed to be a useful device of uncovering social practices through the potential semiotic meanings for portraying the community’s different cultural norms and ideologies (see Keane, 2003; Danesi, 2004).

1.1 Linguistic landscape and tourism
This study is conducted within the general guidelines of LL: “The language of public road signs, advertising billboards, street names, place names, commercial shop signs, and public signs on government buildings combines to form the LL of a given territory” (Landry & Bourhis, 1997, p. 25). Although LL is most typically approached from different linguistic perspectives including language policy (Spolsky, 2009; Backhaus, 2009), discourse analysis (Shohamy & Waksman, 2009; Kallen, 2010), and semiotics and multimodality (Scollon & Scollon 2003; Sebba, 2012; Peck & Felix, 2014), it transcends the boundaries of such pure linguistic analysis to embrace multiple other areas. Therefore, there is a high likelihood of that interplay between LL signs and tourism as a vital economic ideology that has been investigated in some territories worldwide (Kallen, 2009; Torkington, 2014; Koschade, 2016). While these studies in touristic areas mainly consider the valuable usage of local languages taken as a national symbol of authenticity, others maintain the significance of the English interaction with other languages in tourist destinations and how it functions as the lingua franca of international communication, as in the Spanish resort of Mallorca (Bruyèl-Olmedo & Juan-Garau, 2009) and in some Russian Baltic States (Marten et al., 2012). English, in this study, will not be analyzed as a lingua franca in the Jordanian LL of Petra; rather it is aimed to explore farther-reaching linguistic aspects of signs, in particular, the materials of which the textual signs are made in conjunctions with tourism issue for offering potential innovative social meanings.

1.2 Materiality of signage
LL research studies (e.g. Backhaus, 2007; Gorter, 2006; Kallen, 2010) have focused on a wide range of issues, as in the case of multilingualism to scrutinize various languages visible on signs in public space, in addition to monolingualism and bilingualism. It might be assumed that we have to some extent moved away from the major focus of the LL in order to examine the signs in terms of their materiality and the written texts as potential resources of socio-cultural meanings. Thus, the analysis of the signs’ interior components is deliberately considered as much to do with the
issues of materiality and script themselves as to do with specific areas of multimodal social semiotics.

However, it is very important to review and summarize the relevant empirical literature on the material aspects nurtured in different philosophic views and frameworks, which will allow us to define and outline the theoretical principles modelled in the current study. For example, Backhaus (2007) argues that the sign receives a more material meaning in case it is engraved in such a manner as “an inscribed surface displayed in a public space to convey a message” (Backhaus, 2007, p. 4-5). Stroud & Mpendukana (2009) maintain the material significance of sign constructions based on the luxury, necessity, or implosion characteristics of the sites of items advertised. Kress & Van Leewen (1996, p. 232) classify the material aspects into three types: the material outward aspect on which texts are made, such as paper or stone; the material tool of which the texts are made, such as paint, ink, or chalk; and the instrument of writing by which the texts are made, such as pen, marker and highlighter, and chisel. In this respect, Kress & Van Leewen (1996) emphasize the symmetric work of these elements to replicate the forces and meanings of signs’ schemes. Scollon & Scollon (2003, p. 135-136) build upon Kress & Van Leeuwen’s (1996) “visual semiotic framework”, and state that meanings of signs can be transmitted through three aspects: “medium of inscription” such as pen, or brush; “material of the sign itself”, including wood, plastic, or paper; and “freshness of installation” as wet paint or shiny surfaces.

This study has made materiality the focus of interest on the grounds that the semiotic analysis can open up new implications and meanings, given the different socio-semiotic practices that are more likely to tailor particular messages to meet the needs of the readers are strongly determined by the nature of materials used in making signs. Our aim is to shed light on what signs’ materials may tell us about social, cultural, and historical dimensions and facts associated with the Jordanian visual context in general and visual touristic Petra in particular. From these vantage points of view, two-fold crucial research questions emerge:

1. Does English with non-linguistic resources (e.g. materiality, font size, and vertical and horizontal placement) used on signs contribute to the formation of identities and convey an overwhelming sense of geography, culture, history, and social norms in accordance with the Jordanian tourism context?

2. What can the paralinguistic practices of written English texts add to the understanding of the dynamics that contribute to the symbolic construction of visual touristic Jordan?

In order to tackle such questions around the nature of sign materials in touristic spaces such as Petra, we build here upon Scollon & Scollon’s (2003) theory of the three meanings of materials: permanence or durability, temporality or newness, and quality. The essence of the theory is based on the notion that, “the materials out of which an object is made signal much about how we are to take its meaning” (Scollon & Scollon 2003, p. 135). For instance, the signs which are made of high quality and durable material informs that the texts made here are to last longer than those made of low quality and temporary material. To this end, the potential sets of materials in the Jordanian LL will be tested against the above socially semiotic meanings so as to suggest that language is variable according to the social context where the viewer plays a significant role in the interpretation of the social semiotics of materiality together with scripts displayed on signs.

If, going one step further, we intend to analyze the texts in terms of paralinguistic practices, in particular, images, writings, and layouts being taken as social sources of meaning-makings with significant effect (Kress & Van Leeuwen, 1996). According to Cook (2001), such practices refer to the social activities or behavior that accompanies language meanings that are reflected through
choice of typeface and letter sizes, too (Cruse, 2004). In their social semiotics theory, Kress & Van Leeuwen (1996) focus on the visual meanings of signs through color divergence, the use of uppercase and lowercase letters, and font types in written texts. Equally important, the sign meanings are largely confined to their modes of writing, including the capitalized and lower-case letters, typefaces, spellings, punctuations, directions, typography, amongst others.

2. Methodology
The study was conducted in Petra in two major streets: Petra Central and Tourist Street. Petra Central constitutes the major street in Petra and includes different tourist and local establishments and shops such as hotels, clothes shops, pharmacies, coffee shops, bazaars, souvenir shops, restaurants, tourist service offices, bakeries, and supermarkets. Tourist street, which extends about nine Km from the city center area to Al-Beyda, an area also known as “little Petra”, is quite significant for achieving the objectives of the study adequately in line with the interrelationship between English signs and non-linguistic resources such as materiality and font sizes. As far as the unit of analysis is concerned, the definition of signs surveyed is based on the definition enumerated by Backhaus (2007, p. 66) who suggests that “a sign was considered to be any piece of written text within a spatially definable frame […] including anything from the small handwritten sticker attached to a lamp-post to huge commercial billboards.” We, therefore, took pictures of all visible signs within a 900-metre stretch of each street on both sides in a persistent attempt to deeply understand various communication practices with respect to linguistic, textual, and visual modes commonplace in the LL of Petra.

The study would envisage that all monolingual, bilingual, and multilingual signs make a significant contribution to the understanding of the social semiotics of materiality. In addition to the categorization of signs according to language, we coded the signs surveyed in the streets according to the materials of which signs were made. We also explored the issues of signs materiality within the ethnographic approach with an objective to mitigating the framework that we have adopted for this study. For this reason, we had to make different special visits to the survey streets for obtaining quantitative and qualitative data. Our observations and the personal communications with some store owners in their real-life environments made it necessary to conduct more interviews with local business owners. As the ethnographic research is a significant medium of seeking local people’s perceptions of an existing phenomenon in their contexts (Brewer, 2000; Garvin, 2010; Lanza & Woldemariam, 2014; Al-Naimat, 2015), this method demanded us to collect and examine twenty three interviews with people of varied demographic information, including hotel administrators, bath business owners, shop owners, restaurant owners, coffee shop owners, and the owners of bazaars (see Table 1). We, therefore, seek to pursue the participants’ personal thoughts and views about the nature of sign materials in connection with their signs at the moment of seeing them on their establishments or businesses.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Nationality</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hotel administrator</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>BA degree</td>
<td>Jordanian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Hotel administrator</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>Diploma</td>
<td>Jordanian</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Even though all the signs in the survey streets were photographed and categorized according to material types (i.e. metal, stone, wood, paper, glass, and sand), the on-site interviews that generated a wide range of individual responses enhanced and enriched the study with ethnographic evidence that aims at interpreting the mutual relationship existing between the English words and phrases, on the one hand, and materiality, on the other hand.

3. Data analysis
3.1 The quantitative data analysis
As Figure 1 illustrates, four major monolingual and bi-/multilingual trends emerge from all the signs photographed, amongst of which include permanent hotel signs, institutional inscriptions, and semi-permanent and transient signs. The highest proportion of signs (72%) relates to English-only signs (Figure 1). This means that the sign originators tend to select English words and phrases rather than Arabic or any other language to advertise for services and products in a worldwide touristic destination such as Petra (see Alomoush & Al-Naimat, 2018).

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1 Petra Development and Tourism Region Authority.
Other trends in the LL indicate that approximately every one in five signs (21%) is a bilingual English-Arabic sign, while other patterns occasionally appear in the LL (approximately 7%); nevertheless, their visibility is seemingly emblematic rather than communicative as members of the touristic population are proficient in English. In the forthcoming data analysis, we will highlight the presence of English according to their materiality.

As Figure 2 shows, the labeling of signs based on their materials has resulted in: permanent signs that are written on stone and metal surfaces; semi-permanent signs that are painted on wooden boards; and temporary signs that are written on paper and painted inside sand glasses.

### 3.2. The analysis of the sign originators’ perspectives

A total of 23 officials and shopkeepers were asked why they used English with particular materials. As Table 2 shows, the respondents with different social backgrounds (see Table 2) mentioned several reasons that can provide explanations for the Englishization of particular materials in the LL of Petra.
Table 2. Major reasons for the Englishization of particular materials (i.e. metal, wood, paper, glass, and sand)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reason</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a. Symbolism (Metal).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>b. Visibility, beauty, and emblematic significance (wood).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>c. Enhancing the durability of English against the harsh environmental circumstances (Metal &amp; stone).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>d. Metal complements the role of the global and commercial role of English as continuous and permanent materials.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e. Sand is a symbol of the desert, reminding the tourists of Petra and its culture.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>f. The city’s policy requires the use of metallic foam and stainless steel during the process of sign installing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>g. Steel and metal as an enhancer of the role of English as a global language</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>h. Beauty (glass).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i. Sand stone alongside English as a representation of the simplicity of the place as being an ancient civilization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>j. Reflection of traditional cuisine, Jordanian cultural norms and traditions (wood).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>k. The idea of selling some simple and traditional gifts like the rags, carpets, wooden camels which can all remind the visitors of their visit to Petra.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>l. An indicator of high quality of services offered inside the hotel, as well as being the global way of designing the hotel name.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.1 Responses to stoning and metalling signs

To provide evidence from the advertisers’ views while discussing the quantitative data gathered from the LL, nine respondents were asked whether there was any relationship between English and stoning and metalling signs. Returning to Table 1, we notice that the reasons range from the enhancement of the role of English as a global language, visibility, beauty, to the rules and the instructions controlling municipal signs in Petra.

The language practices in visual Jordan are indicative of public bilingualism, but some monolingual practices seem to be challenging to the status quo (see Figure 3). In Petra, the monolingual ideology demonstrated in the persistent use of English is governed and controlled by economic and tourism interests in the commercial streets. Stoning and metaling signs, which comprise names of hotels such as Mövenpick, Petra Guest House Hotel, Sunset Hotel, Edom Hotel, and Candles Hotel, amongst others (see Figures 3 & 4), suggest particular metadiscursive practices apparently provide physical evidence for a socially semiotic meaning.

Figure 3. An example of hotel names displayed on stone
The sign in Figure 3 is a typical example of hotel signs around the world, where the English language is the lingua franca of touristic destinations. Bruyéle-Olmedo & Juan-Garau (2009, p. 388) look at English in such touristic districts as a “foreign language that most visitors share, making those able to decipher English in the LL a ‘dominant language group’ in the resort.” In combination with topographic features (e.g. font size and placement), both classes of monolingual English signs (Figure 3) and bilingual Arabic-English signs (Figure 4) are positioned in strategic places in the Tourist Street in order to be visible to the tourists.

The sign group exemplified in Figure 3 is made on stone surfaces, whereas the one represented in Figure 4 is written on metal surfaces, usually, though by no means always, made of either stainless steel or metallic foam. The Arabic texts in the hotel sign (Figure 4) are displayed on metal materials in an attempt to attract more international tourists (e.g. American, British, French, Russian, Italian, and Spanish tourists) (For a full discussion, refer to Alomoush & Al-Naimat, 2018). English in block capitals appears to be inscribed in a larger font size, so the space that it occupies on the metal background is broader than the one occupied by Arabic in order to convey a sense of “modernity and cosmopolitism” (Hult & Kelly-Holmes, 2018, p.3).

These signs, however, designate other referential meanings as to tailor particular semiotic messages to the visitors. The block capitals of letterforms used appear to be more readable and appealing to the visitors. By all means, “PETRA”, which is now internationally recognized as one of the seven wonders in the world, is written in a semiotic manner to be a signifier of a popular tourist attraction for locals and non-domestic visitors alike. In relation to this, Kress & Van Leeuwen (1996, p. 41) argue that a text does not only acquire much significance from the material surface on which the sign is written, but it is also linked to the semiotic modes of how the language is written with “letters formed as types of font, influenced by aesthetic, psychological, pragmatic and other considerations.” Being so, it is noted, through our ethnographic visits, that hotel names and name of “PETRA” are normally written in block capitals for featuring the significance of these establishments and resorts, and therefore constituting places of attention for the international tourists. The letterform and typeface of “PETRA Guest House Hotel” are in a robust harmony with all other hotels’ letterforms and typefaces, including, amongst others “Mövenpick”, “CROWNE PLAZA”, and “PETRA MOON HOTEL”.

As mentioned above, the material surface is associated with its denotation. The sign frames in question, namely metal and stone, are sometimes installed by government-related agencies (e.g.
The Englishization of Materiality in the Linguistic

Petra Development and Tourism Region Authority PDTRA) (see Figure 5). Scollon & Scollon’s (2003: 2) conviction that signs in the public space “take a major part of their meaning from how and where they are placed” suggests that the languages (i.e. English and Arabic) in signs with their physical emplacement in the streets of Petra are clearly symbolic and indexical of shared language ideologies and economic policies. The nature of these materials shows uniform circumstances regarding the meanings of texts, in which all the signs are in the heart of tourism domains. Services and facilities provided by local government authorities, Tourism Police and Petra Visitor Centre are all written on metal and stone frames. Paralinguistic practices (here referring to the metalling of sign carriers and font typefaces in bold) are apparently as important as the visibility of Arabic and English alike and also meant to emphasize Jordan’s official bilingual linguistic landscaping.

The modern topographic designs that help the text to be clear and readable to the visitors are motivated by economic ideologies. In order to reveal and maintain the globally permanent status of Petra as a magnet for both domestic and non-domestic visitors and travelers, both Arabic and English are painted on metal carriers to promote the government’s economic policy. Apart from the stone materials, the letterforms in Figure 5 show Arabic and English lettering made of metallic materials placed at various positions on the stone building entrance and façade respectively. The metal displays a distinct consistency through using the same size of both the English and Arabic texts, though the latter is assumed to gain more visibility in an Arabic-speaking context.

Furthermore, the stone governmental signs, as appeared from their surface, display great degrees of quality. As such, the metaling and stoning connotations of signs have provided great evidence of how the sign producers are completely aware of many promising meanings related to the services and utilities displayed within materials.

The overall practices on metal and stone surfaces have a hinged policy of color selection, which is generally black—this has been reflected in the majority of the current data set (see Figures 4 & 5). Such a semiotic feature contributes to the language ideology associated with the materials in question, where hotels, and governmental institutions tend largely to use permanent signs with some formality considerations in an endeavor to indicate that the tourist services provided by each are still very much in demand.

3.2.2. Responses to wooden boarding signs
Seven businessmen were asked whether there was a relationship between English displayed on their storefronts and wood on which English words and phrases were painted. As Table 1 shows,
the responses focused on reasons related to aesthetic beauty, visibility, and representations of traditional cuisine and cultural norms.

Signs made on wooden boards or any other identical materials constitute a noteworthy proportion of all other materials. The wood of which a board is made characterizes this type of paralinguistic practices on the part of sign designers; other materials such as paper and paint are more likely to be employed in designing the text. The texts written on boards appeared to be somewhat recessed or hand-painted.

Linguistic boards were categorized into two groups: business name and advertisement boards. The sign in Figure 6 is a prime example of wooden boards on which the Roman script of the Arabic word Al-Hayat [meaning life in Arabic] is designed in such a way to stimulate many meanings of talent and art, in particular, the ostensible beautiful annotations within all the typefaces of letter (A) that mark a distinct identity to the sign. This conspicuous linguistic layout could communicate the message of the bazaar itself where items, products, gifts, and foods are likely to be made by skilled staff, and therefore, the letterforms are serving as an amazing way of attracting more customers to the shop. Still, the examination of most boards with restaurants, shops, or bazaar domains shows the appealing aspect, where the signs are designed with texts displaying Roman scripts, or English capitalized letterforms.

![Figure 6. A wooden board showing Al-Hayat Bazaar](image)

Medium-size advertising poster boards are often hand-painted and present a unique and impressionistic style. As demonstrated in Figure 7, the sign designer seems to fully engage the readers, presumably foreign tourists coming from different parts of the world, including Chinese visitors, in the arrangement of tours to different tourist attractions in Jordan. Linguistic creativity and innovation are manifested in texts portrayed as portraits rather than linguistic texts meeting the conventional grammatical rules of a language, as in the case of violating the conventional rules of English in respect of punctuation such as the absence of full stops and commas, and the use of noun phrases instead of whole sentences (see Figure 7). This has been mentioned by the office owner that, “the use of English here is just for communicating the aim of the office […] we do not much follow the English rules.” A relatively similar matter is induced in the display of the text in red at the bottom of the advertising poster board, which is a signal denoting significant information regarding this advertisement, at the same time, it assists the sign maker’s employment of two different colors for probably constructing some personal appealing channels for purely economic and commercial purposes.
The texts on the board in Figure 8 also show some other personal semiotic designs as to spot itself a place of exoticness and uniqueness. The major semiotic feature here is the duplication process of the advertisement (Why Jordan Tours) in such an odd writing mode. The three words have some influential visible properties. While the word (why) below is painted with some ornamental font and extended strokes pointing to the question mark occupying and cutting some parts of the image of Petra, the words (Jordan) and (Tours) are both displayed with capitalized-letters. According to Kress & Van Leewuen (1996), the upper part of the visual writings represents the ideal and general essence of the information, whereas the lower part represents the real and more information. This suggests that the upper English part in this sign is for achieving the readership on the part of tourists for whom the tours are primarily arranged, rather than the local people who are assumed to first read the Arabic lower part information.

As far as Scollon & Scollons’ (2003) meanings of materiality are concerned, the board material features greatly go with the temporality and newness connotations, where the materials allow the texts to be removed, modified, or repainted. In this context, what enhances the temporality is the sign advertisers’ placement of boards in different areas; for example, some signs appeared to be fixed on the streets in front of its business (see Figure 7), or they are sometimes fixed above its intended businesses (see Figure 8). In addition, the temporariness of board is reflected in the new and distinct personal layouts with the careful selection of striking colors, in particular, red use against all other words in black (see Figure 7) that also suggest meanings of modernity, newness, and progression. The multimodal practices (see Figure 8) and the semiotic personal ways of inscribing signs in bazaar (see Figure 6) contribute to the fact that the individuals
chose the boards along with these semiotic linguistic ideologies as personal conduits to approach the tourists with services offered. The locals’ use of painted English on such boards may be more appealing to tourists because they represent personal attempts to contact them, unlike the formal writing modes used in metaling and stoning, in which the block capitals and capitalized lettering with use of one color reveal how the services and utilities are formally revealed to the tourists.

3.2.3 Responses to glass-papering and wall-papering signs

Four shop keepers responded to the question if there was a connection between English and the material (i.e. glass and paper) used for displaying the English words and phrases. According to their own perspectives, the reasons were simply related to a range of reasons: (a) presumably allowing better mobility (paper), (b) adding more aesthetic beauty to the English wording, (c) and consequently attracting the attention of the visitors, especially the international ones.

Paper is typically known as white material often used for writing. Signs of paper comprise two equal materials: the A4 sized papers which are affixed inside the glass surfaces of some businesses; and the paperboards which refer to the heavy paper-like materials, and are often displayed above some items outside the businesses, or stuck to some other items. The overall signs which include no large announcements made on boards or signage appeared to be printed or hand-written. Hand-written texts on paper serve as a means of informing tourists some commercial notices concerning the prices of items, offers, or general information about opening and closing times. For example, the small paperboards in the monolingual English sign used for promoting an antique carpet (see Figure 9) appears to be hand-written in black ink with relatively capital letters for showing the significance of items advertised. The use of red color here clearly suggests special price reductions on the products advertised.

![Figure 9. A monolingual English paper sign promoting an antique carpet](image)

The commercial advertisements on fronts of souvenir shops are, as the business owner reported, “…aimed to publicize the Jordanian culture via some simple means outside the shops and to entail great popularity with international visitors”. With this in mind, meanings of newness and temporariness seem to lend themselves to transient materials implied in the use of papering in the Jordanian touristic LL. Such meanings conform to paper material signs, where the majority tells the visitors about the temporary state of the commercial offers, prices, and other relevant information. The languages used in paper material constitute linguistic practices having the potential to transfigure transient and temporal advertisements.
Even though such signs are not kept safe, their text transience acquires much relevance of their language significance. The momentary texts within such a tourist sphere would probably cause shifting to the nature of the English language used (Sebba, 2010). English here can address the processes of commodification of advertised language products to be viewed as a circulating and ephemeral language. Being so, looking beyond the temporary signage of papering to advertise language for commodification of the intended products necessitates recognizing the process of language circulation within recent global forces. Equally important, the language displayed seems to play a great role in circulating the socio-cultural meanings of the handmade antique carpet as an indispensable part of Jordanian cultural life in both rural and desert areas, which can be understood as emblems of Jordan’s cultural and social life, i.e. camel and carpet are respectively seen as a nomadic herding life style and Bedouin and rural woven objects, both of which are used in the handwritten advertising poster made of paper. These joint circumstances have demanded understanding the language as inherently associated with commercial contexts of products that allow English to function as a trigger of tourism and economic domains.

The papering of signs seems to gain more linguistic significance in case of contrasting the handwritten with printed languages. Accordingly, the owner of the business in Figure 10 manifested a special viewpoint that his printed paper sign is more convincing to the tourists than the handwritten ones in terms of making a better commercial message and incorporating a formal mode of writing for addressing foreign visitors.

![Figure 10. A temporary paper sign displaying a big discount](image)

A claim can reasonably be made about papering choice, the texts in black word-initial capital letters in “Big Discount” and block capitals painted in a bold black color as displayed on the wording of “Closing Down” could be a place of respect and regard on the part of viewers, and a further compensation for the less durability of papering.

**3.2.4. Responses to artful sand painting in bottles**

Three shopkeepers responded to the question if there is a connection between English and sand used to form English words. The responses were closely related to the assumption that both serve as a multimodal reminder of Petra’s ancient civilization, cultural life, desert environment and its herding nomadic lifestyle, and the like.

Such sign materials are prevalent in the corpus, though they do not occupy a great percentage of all the data. Different writing tools and surfaces were employed for conveying the meanings of the signs. Multimodality, which involves linguistic texts and visual and other semiotic material, is extensively employed. In Figure 11, the sign designer decided to place stickers on glass in order
to possibly reflect the business owner’s professional craft of writing the guests’ names inside the sand bottle, which is a common practice in Petra. Much to the amusement and persuasiveness of passers-by is displayed in the creation of words by placing sticky letters on the glass seemingly characterized by hardness, transparence or translucence, and fragility.

![Figure 11. Sand bottle](image)

Sand painting in bottles has been used as a prime example of the practices that can encourage economic profitability and familiarize international visitors with the desert life of Jordan as displayed on the paintings of the sand bottle in Figure 12: camels, desert, sand dunes, palm trees, marvelous sunshine, and mountains, all of which raise important questions about the role of multimodality in conveying historical and socio-cultural information about the LL.

Basing the analysis of this multimodal sign on Kress & Van Leewuen’s semiotic frame (1996), it can be said that the meanings of the language relate to the informative purpose of the text grounded on the belief that, “the placement of elements endows them with the specific informational values attached to the various ‘zones’ of the image” Kress & Van Leewuen (1996: 177). This unveils that both images of the camel and Petra represent the most illuminating cultural values in the Jordanian tourism context—such visual elements are displayed in the center of the sign.

These non-linguistic practices are not designed for marketing Petra as a desolate place offering discomfort and hardship, but as a wonderland of historical sites presenting a great amount of comfort and relaxation and therefore identifying the socio-cultural roles of the sign designer. As displayed, such multimodal signs show a great deal of visual creativity and innovation used as a vehicle for visual communication and interaction between the sign designer and the visitors.

![Figure 12. A prime example of sand painting in bottles](image)
As far as materiality is concerned, the multimodal role of sand bottles seem to represent Scollon & Scollon’s (2003) material meanings in which the temporary and newness aspects served as innovative ways of writing empowered by the bottle designer’s choice of sand colors to represent the Jordanian geographic culture. This further related to language mobility which demands designers to use the language resources in unpredictable ways so as to make the linguistic messages mobilize worldwide. English can be seen as having a dynamic global function in these souvenir bottles, as the lingua franca of international tourists, permitting several ways of accessibility and mobility (Moriarty, 2014, Blommaert, 2010). This omnipresence of English on signs undoubtedly underlines the role of English as a worldwide medium of tourism, mobility, and marketing.

4. The Englishization of permanent, semi-permanent, and temporary signs in visual touristic Jordan

The current LL research is relevant to the study of worldwide English varieties, as it tackles the Englishization of the public space in touristic destinations and closely-related cultural processes such as globalization and glocalization. Englishization is not only possible to be regarded “as a savage indictment of globalization leading to unidirectional homogenization and perceived destruction of the local,” but it may also be perceived “as a driving force of localization, contributing to the complexity and diversity of the local linguistic landscape” (Selvi, 2016, p.38). This suggests that the Englishization of sign materials are driven by a number of motivations and trends, including global mobility and accessibility, social prestige and symbolic significance, better tourism, and marketability.

Enhancing the role of English as an index of official and communal ideologies and policies

The division of signs according to materiality indirectly reflects the ideologies that govern and control the sign actors, pointing to the close relationship between the linguistic component, the material itself, and the social context in which we live. This means that the understanding of signs from a materialistic perspective transcends the traditional conception of a sign not going beyond the theoretical dimension. Some researchers (e.g. James, 2014) build upon Halliday’s (1994) three parameters of field, tenor, and mode, as here adapted to fully understand the meanings conveyed in the visual marketplace. The ideational, interpersonal, and textual meanings would be employed to identify who has created the linguistic text and what it is all about (field); how it addresses the viewers and is the language used formal or informal (tenor); and how the text is structured. Meanwhile, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) is very important to understand how language is negotiated and constructed in the social context (see Fairclough, 1989; 1995; James, 2014).

There is no question that metal and stainless steel emphasize the role of English as having important instrumental, regulatory and innovative functions in the Jordanian context. An official PDTRA employer (participant 5) comments on that:

I think that most bilingual Arabic-English governmental signs associated with Jordan Tourism Police and Petra Visitor Centre are most likely to be displayed on metal or stone backgrounds for reasons of high quality. It is true that English itself can achieve that role, but the material can enrich and enhance the distinctiveness of English as a language having significant functions domestically and internationally (Our own Translation).
This excerpt emphasizes the role of paralinguistic features in understanding the position of English in an Arab Middle Eastern country. This is evident in the inscription of Arabic and English on metal and stone backgrounds. The same applies to hotels that tend toward the use of English-only signs and other bilingual signs on permanent materials.

**English as a driving force toward better tourism**

It seems that retailers and commercial companies have a little economic interest in very much displaying the Arabic language. Instead, English adds a great deal of prestige to the businesses in the commercial streets of Petra. Thus, on the basis of what has been examined in the fieldwork, materiality enhances the role of English as a global language. From the perspective of the approach of “translanguaging”, non-linguistic resources (e.g. materiality, font size, and so forth) contribute to the semiotic construction of the LL.

In comparison with other approaches applied in LL research studies, the current research has attempted to highlight why sign designers select particular linguistic resources, English in particular, and nonlinguistic devices, especially materiality. This has been evident in applying the approach of “translanguaging” to LL research studies; for example, Gorter & Cenoz (2015) have examined individual languages instead of highlighting that communication should transcend words and phraseology to include non-linguistic resources (Canagarajah, 2013; Pennycook, 2017). Thus, on the basis of what has been stated by Alomoush & Al-Naimat (2018), the generation and promotion of tourism play a vital role in the economy of Jordan in general and Petra in particular. An owner of bazaar (participant 16) comments on this assumption:

I really preferred to design English texts on the front of my bazaar by using a wooden board as just to make the tourists get the idea of selling some simple and traditional gifts like rags, carpets, wooden camels which can all remind the visitors of their visits to Petra.

It seems that business owners attempt to attract the attention of the international tourists through the employment of different non-linguistic resources to boost and increase their own benefits.

**English alongside materiality as an index of socio-symbolic meanings**

It is quite normal that everyone travelling to a foreign country should be familiar with English. As a result, there is no question that English is the most commonly used foreign language in Jordanian touristic destinations (see Alomoush & Al-Naimat, 2018). However, English has a symbolic function. To maintain the English words and phrases for a long period of time and to show an air of authority, stainless steel and metal may be used as planned by the sign designers (Participant 3):

For me as an employee in Petra Development and Tourism Region Authority, the English wording is more likely to last for long if it is displayed on metal or stone backgrounds. This material helps English remain and continue to exist in spite of the harsh environmental circumstances, and consequently enhances the value of English in the public space (Our Own Translation).

English words and phrases are also used on other materials to symbolize the city’s cultural life, ancient history, and even Jordanian traditional cuisine.
5. Conclusions
It seems that English as well as non-linguistic resources (sign materials, font size, color, and so forth) play a significant role in the historical, cultural globalization of the city. The interconnection between sign materials and their textual content is so significant that they are designed to perform particular semiotic functions (e.g. political, authoritative, social, historical, environmental, and so forth). Solidity, durability, and continuity that characterize some sign materials, particularly metal and stone surfaces, convey an air of authority, socio-economic/political power, wealth, and social distinctiveness, as illustrated on the signs placed on stone hotel buildings, tourist service offices, and signs placed on metal surfaces installed by governmental and municipal institutions.

It is no question that such materials are an apparent representation of governmental establishments and local authorities’ real actions to make the intended signs look durable and of high quality in the eyes of visitors. The wooden board signs made by the local residents seem to convey some semiotic layouts in order to play a key role at the stage of the semiotic construction of the visual marketplace of Petra. Meanings of newness and temporality apparently prevail in the wooden materials, whose semiotic meanings can be visually read on the wooden boards with the use of typefaces often in block capitals displayed on the fronts of restaurants, bazaars, shops, and so forth. Paralinguistic devices such as the production of different letterforms and the use of non-textual modes (e.g. the image of Petra) complement the role of materials in the interpretation of the semiotic LL. Paper is a prime example of transient, ephemeral materials often appearing in uppercase letters; this might be accompanied by the employment of some materials taken from the Jordanian culture such as the antique carpets made by Jordanian Bedouins known for the weaving of carpets, as innovative ways of displaying more cultural meanings related to the Jordanian desert life. These cultural elements establish themselves as mobilized artefacts seen in the drawings of Petra with Jordanian reflection of real colors and views to gain the worldwide image with tourists.

Apparently, there is a parallel trend to use materiality forms in connection with the type of language ideology for reflecting the significance of tourism and economic services provided in Petra. While English use molded on metal and stone surfaces has shown official representations of the authorities of governmental institutions in the ever-growing importance of the services offered, the local individuals established other linguistic and non-linguistic implications via painting, writing, or inscribing English letters on temporary materials (e.g. wood, paper, and sand bottle) as ways of conjoining their own personal semiotic layout and multimodal practices as individual approaches and strategies of opening up amenable ways with tourists for exhibiting Petra as a mobile tourist province.

In addition to the semiotic analysis of signs, we had interviews with 23 officials and shopkeepers to understand more deeply if there was a relationship between the use of English and materiality. The semiotics of materials, sign designs, script, often Roman script, and color selection apparently exhibits communication strategies to market Jordan’s most popular tourist attraction, Petra. Unlike the previous studies such as Kress & Van Leeuwen (1996) and Scollon & Scollon (2003), the present study establishes links between the nature of materials, on the one hand, and socially semiotic functions beyond linguistic texts, on the other hand. It should be mentioned that linguistic practices are very important in the profound understanding of some semiotic meanings attached to materials.
About the authors:

Ghazi Khaleel Al-Naimat (PhD) is an Assistant Professor of Linguistics in the Department of English Language and Literature at Al-Hussein Bin Talal University in Ma’an, Jordan. He completed his PhD at the University of Liverpool, UK. His research interests focuses on Sociolinguistics in particular semiotic aspects of signs in the LL, Semantics, Syntax, and Discourse Analysis.

Omar Ibrahim Alomoush (PhD) is an Assistant Professor of Linguistics in the Department of English Language and Literature at Tafila Technical University in Tafila, Jordan. He completed his PhD at the University of Liverpool, UK. His research interests focuses on Sociolinguistics in particular multilingualism in the LL, Semantics, Morphology, and Discourse Analysis.

References


WhatsApp: An Online Platform for University-Level English Language Education

Mufleh Salem M. Alqahtani  
Department of English Language and Literature  
Faculty of English, College of Arts, King Saud University  
Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

C. Vijaya Bhaskar  
Department of English  
Anna University, Chennai, India.

Kesavan Vadakalur Elumalai  
Department of English Language and Literature  
Faculty of English, College of Arts, King Saud University  
Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

May Abumelha  
Department of English Language and Literature  
Faculty of English, College of Arts, King Saud University  
Riyadh, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia

Abstract  
Technology has developed immensely and its role in the aspects of learning a language has grown bigger and bigger. Among the university level students, WhatsApp at present is getting into the frontline as one of the most widespread online social networking platforms concerning language learning. The research work undertaken tries to understand if university level students consider WhatsApp as a significant learning platform that can develop and support their language learning skills. Moreover, the research work focuses on the routine practices or use of WhatsApp by students. The outcome of the survey data reveals that students consider that WhatsApp may be utilized as a teaching cum learning online platform to assist them in the process of language learning. They also highlighted the necessity of imitating language courses associated with WhatsApp, integration of technology through WhatsApp for the access of class materials with a set of objectives and outcomes explicitly focused on learning language to create meaningful experiences for students. Pedagogically, the study concludes by emphasizing the efficacy and prospective role of WhatsApp in improving the capability of students with regard to learning a language at university level.

Keywords: English language learning, e-learning, survey study, use of technology, WhatsApp

Introduction

The widespread employment of smartphones by students at university level in various parts of the world indicates that smartphones have become an important element of their e-routines. In addition, subscribing to unlimited data plans, students gain internet access by using high-speed Wi-Fi connectivity at home and on university campuses. The development of operating systems such as Symbian, IOS, Windows Mobile, and Android enhances smartphone usage in the present age. Android in particular, garners users’ interest due to the advancement of hundreds Android oriented applications. The accessibility of the Internet via smartphones permits students to explore various applications such as WhatsApp, Facebook, Skype, and GO SMS Pro (Jadhav, Bhutkar, & Mehta, 2013). Interaction with members of family as well as friends is feasible by varied asynchronous as well as synchronous communication tools like Viber, Line, WeChat, BBM, KakaoTalk, Skype, Twitter, and WhatsApp (Pew Research Center, 2015).

Mobile devices offer prospects for education by letting students to access content related to courses and converse with their course instructors and peers (Shih & Mills, 2007; Kukulska-Hulme & Shield, 2008; Richardson & Lenarcic, 2008; Cavus & Ibrahim, 2008, 2009; Nihalani & Mayrath, 2010). The universal existence besides the unique aspects of Mobile Instant Messaging (MIM) apps present in smartphones possesses the tenacity to foster a competent and supportive learning and learning platform. Rambe and Bere (2013) state that, the implementation of MIM apps in smartphones for educational motives at university level requires exploration to the fullest. The addition of the above tools to curriculum at university level is a challenge for researchers exploring in the zone of learning using mobile. Course instructors who use computers to teach are not in a comfortable position to use WhatsApp while they teach; such instructors do not realize the capacity of MIM, which provides dialogic space for students to involve in learning through collaboration (Rambe & Bere, 2013).

It is useful to understand whether students at university level could improve their English using this newest communication source at which as per (Jadhav, Bhutkar, & Mehta 2013), WhatsApp is the most-used messenger app by students studying in university. The current generation’s dependence on platforms based on social networking such as WhatsApp supports the language learning aspect of students. At present, WhatsApp is known for its specialty as a widespread and well-known social networking platform; also, it is helpful to examine whether activities using WhatsApp may lead to learning of English language either through direct or indirect means. In terms of figures, nearly 1 billion people use WhatsApp across 180 countries to stay connected with family members as well as friends (“About WhatsApp,” 2018). Considering the fact with regard to a number of WhatsApp users, is WhatsApp an efficient English learning base for students studying in university? What are the opinions of students studying at university on using WhatsApp concerning learning English? Can WhatsApp truly assist students in learning English language?

A sort of reaction to such questions, this study intends to inspect whether students perceive WhatsApp as a significant and constructive platform that could enhance, strengthen, or support the aspect of English language learning. This study would guide and facilitate researchers and educators recognize that WhatsApp is potential for contributing to English language learning. Moreover, the present work suggests means in which students learning foreign language can
increase their language skills using WhatsApp, chiefly in the areas of speaking, vocabulary, writing and reading. Considering the outcomes of the present study, policymakers, educators, and course instructors can develop and incorporate relevant, essential, and innovative pedagogical inputs that make efficient employment of WhatsApp for learning English language. The present study features the following research questions:

1. What are students’ common practices or uses of WhatsApp?
2. Do students consider WhatsApp as an online platform that helps to advance their English language learning? If yes, in what aspect?

**Literature review and theoretical perspectives**

**WhatsApp as a platform for learning English**

As a bonus to Facebook and Twitter, WhatsApp is a rising online platform that facilitates teaching and learning in classroom. Many online resources provide tips for educators concerned with utilizing of WhatsApp as a means for teaching. In addition, various articles are present on institutional home pages, personal blogs, and other general websites featuring about the advantages of utilizing WhatsApp in learning and teaching by employing its special aspects like chat groups, audio, videos, and graphics. These features facilitate real-time communication between teachers and students, allowing students to persist in learning even beyond the classroom. WhatsApp’s exclusive features motivate students to connect and correspond in any language with anyone in the world. Nevertheless, one should have the understanding and familiarity with English to exploit the application, as it features the application of English in all its aspects. As a whole, all of the above-said aspects of WhatsApp signifies that it holds the potential as a means for English language learning at university level.

The foundational ideas, which revolve in this research work, fall in line with the study (Godwin-Jones, 2008) who demonstrates that technology-based tools like WhatsApp, which can enhance communication, interaction with one person to another person besides language learning. (Gon & Rawekar, 2017) state that WhatsApp has become a new and convenient platform for teaching and teaching with which teachers can be present anywhere and at any time. (Rambe & Chipunza, 2013) and (Riyanto 2013) also emphasize that WhatsApp could be utilized as a means to enhance students’ language skills, as it provides students the chance to present their opinions in an open platform. Special features available in WhatsApp have the capacity to boost students’ dynamic participation in EFL classrooms (Baffour-Awuah, 2015) and inspire them to get involved in purposeful activities with a special emphasize on effective learning outcomes (Beetham & Sharpe, 2013). WhatsApp supports a great number of functionalities that gives chances for pedagogical rethinking (Conole & Alevizou, 2010).

(Sharma and Shukla, 2017) conduct a sociological study regarding students’ utilization of WhatsApp concerning frequency, reasons, fulfillment of academic and personal needs, most-used features, and the technology’s influence on their academic performance to recognize the means in which WhatsApp is utilized by the younger generation. Regarding collaborative research projects, (Ngaleka & Uys, 2013) study the deployment of WhatsApp through a group of students studying undergraduate course (Alghazo & Nash, 2017), investigate WhatsApp’s impact as a tool to manage classroom concerning students’ accomplishment and in-class behavior. The study utilized an
experimental as well as control group, and the results proved that there was no major variation between both the groups regarding course achievement, though WhatsApp had a constructive effect by lowering absentees in the class and missed assignments, an indication of positive class behavior.

From the perspective of learning a language, (Salem, 2013) explores WhatsApp’s impact in learning the English language in Kuwait and Gutiérrez-Colon et al. (2013) study the aspect of WhatsApp in learning English. (Alsaleem, 2014) finds that utilizing WhatsApp as an authentic platform to enhance writing, vocabulary, word choice, and communication in English, students were in a situation to meet the linguistic, grammatical, and functional objectives of the language course. (Gasmi, 2014) explores the impact, potential benefits, and limitations of utilizing WhatsApp to develop writing skills of Omani students. (Allagui, 2014) explores the WhatsApp’s effectiveness in enhancing undergraduate students’ basic EFL writing skills at university level, finding those students’ motivation levels for writing increased while using WhatsApp.

Aburezeit & Ishtaiwa, (2013) try to comprehend WhatsApp’s effectiveness on interaction in an Arabic language-teaching course. They found out that WhatsApp developed three varieties of interactions: student-content interaction (54%), student-student interaction (71%), and student-instructor interaction (42%). The study in addition recognized that WhatsApp provided a virtual space for expressing ideas, communicating, and exchanging information. (Han & Keskin, 2016) observe the influence of WhatsApp tasks on students’ speaking anxiety at university. The results of the study brought forth the views that students’ EFL speaking anxiety was considerably diminished owing to their employment of WhatsApp during the language acquisition process. In addition, (Samaie et. al,2016) study WhatsApp’s efficiency for peer- and self-assessments of oral language proficiency, aiming to look at the dissimilarities between mobile-assisted self and peer assessments, procedural differences between mobile-assisted self and peer assessments, participants’ attitude change toward both assessments, and reasons for attitude changes.

**Theories of learning in the WhatsApp platform**

The present study makes use of the theories of incidental learning, active learning, activity, community sharing, and learning communities, that acknowledge the notion that collaboration encourages learning. WhatsApp encourages the creation of an online group to learn and teach within students who work together while taking part in course exercises. WhatsApp as a medium advances the growth and spread of information among participating and communicating students by collaborative learning exercises (Bielaczyc & Collins, 1999). WhatsApp interventions persuade students to make enquiries that can be immediately addressed while taking an interest in a helpful, intuitive, and collective group (Rovai, 2002).

Much research examines online platforms for education; in particular, research work related to reading comprehension along with learning vocabulary employ concepts concerning incidental learning to elucidate patterns of learning and behaviors (Shahrokni, 2009; Chun, & Plass, 1996; Akbulut, 2007). In an educational course, incidental learning leads to unplanned or unintentional learning, thereby resulting in both non-academic and academic activities (Kerka, 2000). Incidental learning is successful by means of solving problems, social interaction, repetition, and observation (Rogers, 1997), and in addition when tasks are completed in an online
setup (McFerrin, 1999). Holzinger, Pichler, Almer, and Maurer (2001) state that incidental learning from the viewpoint of education and technology would incorporate the theory of (Ross-Gordon & Dowling, 1995), who proposed that learning occurs through mistakes, doing, networking, and a sequence of interpersonal experiments. Likewise, (Herrmann, Fox, & Boyd, 2000) state that the combination of technology with education leads to both optimistic and pessimistic outcomes from an intentional or unintentional view. Therefore, it is implied that employing online technologies in education may have both negative and positive impact on students.

According to Nagel and Kotzé (2010), incidental learning happens in a community of practice and focus must be on the idea of interpersonal relationships, community building, and social networking as other ways to learn, observe, and experience. Such activities could happen while people with related interests use WhatsApp. In a pedagogical setting, members of the group can continue to have dynamic and significant educational experiences.

The activity theory at individual, community, and technological levels forms a theoretical outline for collaborative learning process. Activity theory encourages teachers to reintroduce information (Mercier & Higgins, 2013) where online collaborative learning approaches are implemented in online communities to enhance language-learning activities. This theory may help teachers identify important aspects of students’ requirements to take in online interaction.

(Engestrom, 1987), proposes community sharing, which is an additional theoretical basis for the current study. Engstrom proposes that activity theory includes rules that encourage the division of work between the subject and learning group. The community sharing theory examines the social and mechanical parts of activity pertaining to society (Bertelsen & Bødker, 2003). Group or externalization is reflected as a social scenario of the framework and a group level of activity theory. In an experimental study, all students are occupied with the activity system whereby their involvement in learning depends on social correspondence; they articulate their opinion to form a community focused on learning.

Anecdotal facts as well as research have revealed both negative and positive impacts of the deployment of WhatsApp for teaching and learning purposes. Positive aspects include enhanced communication between teachers and students (Khatun & Al-Dhlan, 2017), strengthening of students’ learning and enthusiasm (Hamad, 2017), creation of pleasant platforms and in-depth acquaintance with fellow students, better access to learning materials, as well as greater teacher availability (Veeresh & Kumara, 2017). Contrarily, negative aspects include annoyance caused by excessive irrelevant messages (Najafi & Tridane 2015), internet addiction, and its effect on educational triumph as well as mental health (Kakkar, Ahuja & Dahiya, 2015). Owing to this varied influence of WhatsApp, a debate still exists about whether WhatsApp should be seriously considered as a platform for learning, particularly at university level.

Method
Participants
This study that deals with the quantitative survey was implemented at King Saud University. The survey’s main motive was to understand students’ common practices or uses of WhatsApp and
their opinions on WhatsApp as an online educational platform. The survey would be resourceful in recognizing the basic problems which are of worry to students who happen to use WhatsApp for learning the English language. The study randomly chose 300 students studying from King Saud University to take part in present survey through convenience sampling.

Instrument and data analysis
A questionnaire was used in this survey study consisting of two parts. Section A focuses on students’ demographic information and language usage. The demographic data gathered was students’ language abilities and gender. Section B gathers information about students’ use of WhatsApp and Section C consists of 14 items about learning English using WhatsApp. The elements in Section C were obtained from Blattner and Fiori (2009), who studied English learning via Facebook. The aspects were modified on needs analysis, experiences and observations of dynamic users of WhatsApp. A 5-point Likert scale of “strongly disagree” to “strongly agree” was utilized to collect students’ responses. The items in this section emphasize the enhancement of students’ language skills and confidence, motivation and attitude towards learning English language.

To analyze the demographic facts and practices of WhatsApp, percentages and frequency were used. To describe the elements in section C, frequency, mean score and percentages were extensively utilized to reflect students’ views on WhatsApp as a learning platform platform for English.

Findings and Discussion
The forthcoming three sections discuss the outcomes of the survey. The first section deals with the demographic facts; next section briefs students’ common practices and uses of WhatsApp. Section three addresses WhatsApp’s function as an online platform that helps students to learn English language.; i.e., whether WhatsApp has positive effects on (1) the enhancement of students’ language skills and (2) students’ confidence attitude, and motivation concerning English language learning.

Demographic data
Overall, 163 male (54%) and 137 (49%) female students participated in present study. Of all the students, 20% used English to converse through WhatsApp while 80% of the students used both Arabic and English.

Students’ general uses of WhatsApp
All the 300 students were involved in the study used WhatsApp; it had already become a part of their e-routines for communication. Almost 78% of the students answered that they were part of a WhatsApp group and the remaining 22% said that they were not a part of any WhatsApp group.

WhatsApp as an online platform that facilitates English language learning
By considering the mean scores of all the sixteen aspects given in Table 1, a large number of students answered that they agreed that WhatsApp could serve as an online platform to facilitate English language learning in terms of the enhancement of (1) language skills and (2) their
confidence, attitudes and motivation towards English language learning. As a whole, the students gave a positive response that WhatsApp helps them inculcate a more positive attitude concerning learning English as a second language (mean score = 3.65), improve their communication skills (mean score = 3.88), enhance their reading skills (mean score = 3.85), improve their writing skills (mean score = 3.82), learn new vocabulary (mean score = 3.81), and enhances their confidence to write, read, and communicate, respectively (mean score = 3.78, 3.65 and 3.75). These positive views towards WhatsApp as a platform to facilitate English language learning may be attributed to the viewpoint that online platforms present an authentic communicative space. Such experiences might lead to learning L2 and broaden students’ understanding of subject matter taught in the classroom. They create a feasible ambience by giving scope for the students to interact collaboratively concerning clarity, peer assessment, and other language-related perspectives (Mwakapina, Mhandeni, & Nyinondi, 2016).

Table 1 WhatsApp as an online platform that facilitates English language learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>SD (1) %</th>
<th>D (2) %</th>
<th>SLA (3) %</th>
<th>A (4) %</th>
<th>SA (5) %</th>
<th>M</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 WhatsApp helps me improve my communication skills in English</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 WhatsApp helps me improve my writing skills in English</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>3.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 WhatsApp helps me improve my reading skills in English</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 WhatsApp enhances my confidence to write in English</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 WhatsApp enhances my confidence to read English material</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>3.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 WhatsApp enhances my confidence to communicate in English</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 WhatsApp motivates me to communicate in English</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 WhatsApp motivates me to read in English</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 WhatsApp motivates me to write in English</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 WhatsApp makes learning more interesting</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>3.55</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
WhatsApp: An Online Platform for University

Table 1. The Result of the Mean Score for the Selected Statements (N=64)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>WhatsApp provides a base to learn English</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>WhatsApp helps me learn new vocabulary</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>WhatsApp helps me develop a more positive attitude towards English as a second language</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>WhatsApp makes learning easier</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>WhatsApp helps me tolerate language mistakes</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Improvement of language skills**

As per Table 1, although the mean scores for the majority of the items were below 4, the overall percentage of students who agreed and strongly agreed for all the aspects was above 60%. As a result, it is obvious that students feel WhatsApp is an online learning platform. The percentage and mean scores are provided to have better idea on students’ views concerning their patterns and practices of using WhatsApp to learn English.

In the present study, the students felt that WhatsApp could be an efficient online platform in which to use English. Nearly 61% of students felt positively that WhatsApp had paved the way to increase their communication skills (mean score = 3.88). Text-based communication leads to healthy interaction, thereby eliminating hurdles like lack of communication like, shyness, cultural differences, lack of time, and other language learning issues faced by students in English classrooms. With WhatsApp, there are plenty of chances for all students to share their thoughts on any given topic, especially those who are intimidated to converse in class or those who require some time to plan, think, and respond. The anonymity present in WhatsApp language learning tasks may also add to the development of students’ communication (Aburezaq & Ishitaia (2013). Almost 63.6% of students felt that they could write better after starting to use WhatsApp for the purpose of exchanging messages (mean score = 3.82). According to Alsaleem (2014), WhatsApp electronic journaling would permit university EFL teachers to include writing in their subject matter across the syllabus to assist students to increase their writing skills. In addition, 64% of students felt that their reading skills had improved while using WhatsApp (mean score = 3.85). The results of the reading skills for the present study concurs with that of Hazaea and Alzubi (2016), who implemented an experimental study to understand the effect of mobile technologies in enhancing students’ reading skills. The study’s outcome showed a marginal enhancement in participants’ code-breaking practices, text use, text participation practices, as well as text analysis practices while using WhatsApp. Students acknowledge that WhatsApp provides them opportunities and scope for language improvement.

**Confidence**

As a language-learning tool, WhatsApp helps students possess confidence in their capabilities (Hamad, 2017). Regarding the enhancement of students’ confidence levels, 60% of students felt
that WhatsApp could increase their level of confidence in writing in English (mean score = 3.78). In addition, 65% of students felt that by using WhatsApp, their confidence in reading had increased (mean score = 3.65). As for students’ communication skills using English, 60% of students believed that their confidence level had improved (mean score = 3.75). According to Kumar, Lian, & Vasudevan (2016), WhatsApp can improve students’ confidence levels and the process of language learning concerning both spoken and written forms. (Motteram, 2013) proposes that students’ reading skills could be developed by means of WhatsApp because it offers an authentic chance to converse with various people from various parts of the world using English. (Yunus & Chenzi, 2012) state that technology-based activities will increase students’ confidence levels and nurture positive learning attitudes. It is understood that confidence levels are substantial concerning use of WhatsApp to improve reading skills. Henceforth, curriculum designers and textbook writers should make it a point to consider the positive aspects of incorporating WhatsApp for the enhancement of reading skills (Khalaf, 2017).

Motivation
With regard to motivation, 64% of students felt motivated largely to converse in English (mean score = 3.75). Nearly 61% of students felt motivated by large extent to read in English (mean score = 3.64). Additionally, 62% of students felt motivated to write in English (mean score = 3.62). (Allagui, 2014) explores the usefulness of instant text messaging using WhatsApp at university level for undergraduate students and finds that students’ motivation levels for writing increased when WhatsApp was implemented in the classroom. According to Awada (2016), WhatsApp is helpful in developing students’ critique writing proficiency regarding rhetoric when compared to conventional modes of teaching. The present work also recommends that course instructors use mobile apps to enhance students’ motivation for learning English writing. (Kumar, Lian, & Vasudevan, 2016) in their survey study discover that students were further motivated to utilize Mandarin after utilizing WhatsApp as a source to learn the language. (Plana et al., 2013) in Spain probe the implementation of WhatsApp in English language learning and report that there was a rise in students’ motivation concerning reading skills. (Manan, 2017) finds that WhatsApp plays a critical part in motivating students to learn. In particular, motivation level of the students increased with regard to speaking in English in presentations and group discussions after using WhatsApp. The above-said studies fall in line with the outcomes of this study, clearly showing that WhatsApp has a greater role with regard to the motivation of students to speak, read and write.

Attitude
With a mean score of 3.68, nearly 65% of students believed that WhatsApp provided them a base for learning English. (So, 2016) studies the utilization of WhatsApp to enhance learning and teaching at university level and confirmed that WhatsApp could bring out innovative opportunities to learn, promote effective communication, allow for significant feedback, offer formal and informal learning opportunities, and support collaborative learning. This precisely emphasizes that WhatsApp offers a space for students to learn English. Nearly 61% of students felt that WhatsApp helps them learn new vocabulary (mean score = 3.81). (Güroçak, 2016) examines the effect of mobile learning and students’ attitudes regarding this technology and, similar to this study, found that mobile language learning situations could increase students’ knowledge of vocabulary and support them in learning target words. This indicates that vocabulary learning through mobile phones can be motivating. (Lu, 2008) further emphasizes that students
in general hold positive attitudes towards learning vocabulary via mobile phones. 64% of students had positive attitudes concerning WhatsApp’s use in learning English as a second language (mean score = 3.65), which concurs with many prior studies that have figured out that most of the stakeholders in educational institutions show an optimistic attitude concerning the use of such technologies to learning (Bere, 2012; Bouhnik & Deshen, 2014; Demirbilek, 2010; Cochrane & Bateman, 2010). In addition, 62% of students felt that WhatsApp made learning easier (mean score = 3.69). This is supplemented by a study conducted by Amry (2014), at which students’ attitudes were positive towards WhatsApp as it made their learning easier. This may be because technology paves the path for the self-learning process as well as easy access to data that teachers may not be capable to provide (Lam and Lawrence, 2002). Nearly 60% of students felt that WhatsApp helps them bear language mistakes (mean score = 3.52). This particular view is similar to that discussed by (Mwakapina, Mhandeni & Nyinondi, 2016), who emphasizes that WhatsApp created a supportive and safe platform for learning. Students are often concerned about making mistakes while learning a language, and WhatsApp can help them stay positive and relaxed within their friendship circles. The more relaxed the students feel while language learning, the more likely they are to participate without much concern about their language mistakes.

Conclusions and Implications
In this study, we attempted to examine King Saud University students' beliefs and practices regarding WhatsApp as an online platform to learn English. The study’s outcome proposes that while WhatsApp is utilized as an online platform to provide communicative opportunities, it can lead to implicit learning both outside as well as inside of the classroom. To exploit the positive aspects of WhatsApp for learning, it is mandatory to motivate students to identify, comprehend, and engage in learning opportunities using WhatsApp. This will let students to augment their levels of confidence, knowledge, competence, lifelong learning perspectives, and life skills (Mealman, 1993). In view of this, teachers can implement teaching-learning tasks that use WhatsApp both as a platform to study as well as a way for socialization. This can be accomplished in an organized way by informing the students in relation to the objectives and learning outcomes of tasks with a special emphasis on learning aspects rather than other general uses of WhatsApp.

Statement of Original Work
The authors affirm that this manuscript presents their original work.

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About the Authors:
Mufleh Salem M. Alqahtani, Ph.D. is an assistant professor in Theoretical Linguistics (Phonology) at King Saud University. He has obtained his MA in Applied Linguistics from the University of Sussex in the UK and his PhD in Linguistics from the University of Newcastle Upon Tyne in the UK. He has published articles peculiar to some phenomena in Somali and Persian languages. He is a member in one of researched groups endorsed by Deanship of Scientific Research at King Saud University.

(Corresponding author) https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2546-4584
Vijaya Bhaskar, Ph.D. is working as a Teaching Fellow in Anna University, Chennai. He has an overall 10 years of teaching experience both at college and university level. He is also a theatre artist and acted in more than 25 stage shows. He has also published a short story in a national magazine. Besides, he has more than 10 national and international publications and his area of interest is speaking skills, TBLT, grammar teaching etc
https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3837-3588

Kesavan Vadakalur Elumalai, Ph.D. is an assistant professor of Applied Linguistics in the department of English Language and Literature, College of Arts at King Saud University. He has published a few articles in the field of language teaching and learning in reputed journals and he is one of member in a research group approved by Deanship of Scientific Research at King Saud University. https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5700-3294

May Abumelha, Ph.D. is an Assistant professor in applied linguistics at the Department of English at King Saud University, Saudi Arabia. Received the Ph.D. in applied linguistics from the University of Leeds, UK. Research interests include second language acquisition, language instruction, and discourse analysis studies. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8830-1240

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Intercultural Competence in ELT Contexts: A Study of EFL Teachers’ Perceptions

Abdelhak Bouslama
Department of English, Faculty of Letters and Languages
Abdelhamid Ibn Badis University, Mostaganem, Algeria

Fawzia Bouhass Benaissi
Department of English, Faculty of Letters, Languages and Arts
Djilali Liabès University, Sidi-Bel-Abbès, Algeria

Abstract
Intercultural competence (IC) has been promoted by many educationalists as the most exalted type of competence in modern foreign language teaching (FLT). Among the difficulties to incorporate IC into FLT can be due to the fact that teachers may not have sufficient knowledge on the concept. To test this hypothesis, we attempt to answer the following question: how do Algerian English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers perceive the concepts of culture and IC as well as the objectives of the intercultural approach (ICA) in English language teaching (ELT) contexts? The present study proceeds to analyze teachers’ knowledge, perceptions and understanding of the concepts of culture, IC and the ICA and seeks to identify any potential deficiencies that may hinder effective IC teaching. The main aim of the study is then to help teacher trainers establish training programs that address more efficiently targeted teachers’ needs with regard to IC teaching. This paper will hopefully assist in improving the implementation of IC into FLT classrooms. Data were gathered through semi-structured interviews with eight teachers and then analyzed thematically. The findings revealed that many EFL teachers displayed a lack of theoretical understanding concerning the ICA and its objectives, which may well impact negatively on their IC teaching practices. Teacher educators therefore need to focus more on updating EFL teachers’ on both the theoretical and practical levels that learners are today expected to grow as cultural mediators equipped with a set of skills rather than as native-like proficient language users.

Keywords: culture, ELT, intercultural competence, perceptions

1. Introduction

As people from different cultures are today constantly coming into close contact with each other, it has become imperative for them to acquire a number of competences in order to be able to cope with the requirements of the new age of globalization. Many educators and applied linguists did not delay to shed considerable light on how important it is to incorporate IC as part and parcel of EFL teaching (Byram, 1997; Lo Bianco et al., 1999; Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000; Fantini, 2000; Corbett, 2003; Deardorff, 2006; Larzen-Östermark, 2008). In that respect, Byram et al. (2002) state that “learners need not just knowledge and skill in the grammar of a language but also the ability to use the language in socially and culturally appropriate ways” (p. 7).

In addition, a growing body of literature suggests that it is also of great importance to investigate teachers’ knowledge, beliefs and perceptions as they have a significant impact on their classroom practices and decision making (Nespor, 1985; Pajares, 1992; Kagan, 1992; Pohan & Aguilar, 2001; Errington, 2004). For example, according to Errington (2004), teachers’ perceptions and beliefs “appear to have a potentially significant impact on innovation by influencing what is possible, desirable, achievable and relevant from the teacher’s own governing perspective” (p. 40). It follows therefrom that one way to ensure effective IC integration is to study and understand teachers’ knowledge and perceptions concerning IC teaching. Emerging data from the study may prove helpful to (1) teacher trainers who may elaborate, on the basis of tangible facts, a training program that focuses on teachers’ specific needs and IC-teaching deficiencies, and to (2) syllabus and textbook designers who may use the findings to design IC teaching material in harmony with teachers’ beliefs and perceptions (Tillema, 1994).

To gain deeper insights into the subject, it is first necessary to review the place of culture in ELT contexts, define the concept of IC and discuss Byram’s (1997) IC model. The article then proceeds with research questions, methodology of the study, results and discussion as well as implications for EFL teaching.

2. Theoretical background

2.1 Culture in ELT contexts

The relationship between language and culture is of extreme complexity because “on the one hand language is an integral part of culture, but on the other hand it is an expression of culture” (Larzén, 2005, p. 27). This intimate relationship is also reflected in Derrick Sharp’s preface that “since language and culture are inseparable, we cannot be teachers of language without being teachers of culture - or vice versa” (Byram et al., 1994).

Over decades, researchers in the field of FLT attempted to define the concept of culture and ended up with significantly different definitions. Nevertheless, a certain consensus has been reached where culture was categorized as Capital-C culture and small-c culture. In defining these two categorizations, Lee (2009) states:

The Big “c” domain represents a set of facts and statistics relating to the arts, history, geography, business, education, festivals and customs of a target speech society. It is, by nature, easily seen and readily apparent to anyone and memorized by learners, and has been utilized heavily by many L2/FL/ELT language practitioners to teach a target culture. The
small “c” domain, on the other hand, refers to the invisible and deeper sense of a target culture (that is, the mainstream socio-cultural values, norms and beliefs, taking into consideration such socio-cultural variables as age, gender and social status). (p.78)

Kramsch (1993, p. 191) explains that a traditional view of culture in FLT has limited the teaching of culture to the transmission of bare information about the target language Capital-C and small-c culture. Kramsch (1993) also brings our attention to the fact that “culture in language learning is not an expendable fifth skill tacked on, so to speak, to the teaching of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. It is always in the background, right from day one" (p. 1). In other words, since culture permeates the language class, it cannot therefore be treated as a separate element from the four linguistic skills.

Concern was also expressed with regard to the national view of language and culture. This is troubling given that English today is used as a lingua franca and cannot be limited to any particular geographical boundaries. In this context, Baker (2011) explains that “English as a global lingua franca forces us to go beyond notions of teaching a fixed language and cultural context as adequate for successful communication” (p. 69). In other words, the current global status that English has acquired makes it no longer the property of native speakers; rather, it belongs to its users. Hence, the cultural context of the learner needs not be neglected. Kramsch (1993) calls for ‘a third place’ which is “a place that preserves the diversity of styles, purposes, and interests among learners, and the variety of local educational cultures” (p. 247). In that respect, Crozet et al. (1999) state:

An intercultural interaction is neither a question of maintaining one's own cultural frame nor of assimilating to one's interactant's cultural frame. It is rather a question of finding an intermediary place between these two positions of adopting a third place. In so doing the participant in the interaction is an experencer, not an observer of difference. The ability to find this third place is at the core of intercultural competence. (p.15)

Such a conception of mediation between cultures stands right at the heart of the ICA where learners are expected to grow as ‘intercultural speakers’ (ISs), i.e., as individuals who can mediate between different cultures and who are equipped with the necessary means to survive in the globalized world.

2.2 Understanding IC in FLT contexts

In the last decades, researchers have provided a number of definitions for the concept of IC and have suggested several models in an attempt to identify its components and to limit its scope (Byram, 1997; Byram & Zarate, 1997; Chen & Starosta, 1996; Ting-Toomey, 1999; Deardorff, 2006; Fantini, 2000). Despite the different available definitions, a certain consensus has been reached referring to IC as the ability to handle interactions with culturally unalike people. For example, Spielberg & Changnon (2009) define IC as “the appropriate and effective management of interaction between people who, to some degree or another, represent different or divergent affective, cognitive, and behavioral orientations to the world" (p. 7). Also, Byram (2000) refers to IC as “the ability to interact effectively with people of cultures other than one’s own” (p. 297).
The research literature has reflected a move from a position where IC was considered as a single ability denoting effectiveness and appropriateness in interaction to IC being seen as a makeup of abilities or competences. For example, Fantini (2005) views IC as “the complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself” (p. 1). Byram’s (1997) model of Intercultural Communicative Competence (ICC), being one of the most famous IC models, comprises four competences, one of which is IC which is in turn divided into five components, or saviors, as follows:

1. **Attitudes (savoir être):** Curiosity and openness, readiness to suspend disbelief about other cultures and belief about one’s own.
2. **Knowledge (savoir):** Knowledge of social groups and their products and practices in one’s own and in one’s interlocutor’s country, and of the general processes of societal and individual interaction.
3. **Skills of interpreting and relating (savoir comprendre):** Ability to interpret a document or event from another culture, to explain it and relate it to documents or events from one’s own.
4. **Skills of discovery and interaction (savoir apprendre/faire):** Ability to acquire new knowledge of a culture and cultural practices and the ability to operate knowledge, attitudes and skills under the constraints of real-time communication.
5. **Critical cultural awareness (savoir s’engager):** Ability to evaluate critically and on the basis of explicit criteria, perspectives, practices and products in one’s own and other cultures and countries.

From their part, Chen and Starosta’s (1996) triangular model of IC comprises ‘intercultural sensitivity’, ‘intercultural awareness’ and ‘intercultural adroitness’ referring to the affective, cognitive and behavioral components of IC respectively (as cited in Fritz et al. 2005, p. 54). On the other hand, Hammer et al. (2003) have drawn a major distinction between ‘intercultural sensitivity’, being “the ability to discriminate and experience relevant cultural differences” (p. 422) and ‘intercultural competence’, being “the ability to think and act in intercultural appropriate ways” (ibid.).

Furthermore, Arasaratnam and Doerfel (2005) suggest that IC encompasses five qualities: empathy, intercultural experience/training, motivation, global attitudes, and the ability to listen well in conversation (as cited in Salazar & Agüero, 2016, p. 44). From these models, it becomes clear that cognition, affect and behavior are three major components that define IC.

In the Algerian educational system, IC teaching has gained attention from Algerian educators. The national EFL curriculum of secondary schools issued by the Ministry of Education (2006) calls teachers to increase learners’ cultural knowledge, to compare different cultural aspects between learners’ culture and the target language culture, and to promote positive attitudes of tolerance, openness and respect for the other. Despite such instructions, classroom practices still seem to fall behind desired expectations. Also, Algerian EFL teachers tend to focus mainly on the teaching of the linguistic competence so as to prepare their learners for tests and exams (Messerehi,
We believe that such attitudes and practices do not seem to aim at promoting learners’ acquisition of IC and preparing them for intercultural encounters.

3. Research questions

The present study attempts to answer two main questions:

1. How do Algerian high school EFL teachers perceive the concepts of culture and IC, and the objectives of the ICA in ELT contexts?
2. What implications do the findings have for ELT?

The first question seeks to enquire into teachers’ academic knowledge, perceptions and readiness in effectively incorporating IC into their EFL classrooms. It is undeniable that teachers do play an influential role in the teaching/learning process. Therefore, one way to successfully ensure effective IC teaching is to investigate whether EFL teachers are sufficiently equipped with the necessary knowledge and skills to raise their students as ISs or cultural mediators. On the basis of the results obtained from the first question, the second research question aims to offer a number of implications for EFL teaching contexts.

4. Methodology

The present study is a piece of qualitative research in which data were collected from eight EFL teachers from some high schools in Mostaganem (Algeria) through semi-structured interviews. Participants were sampled by ensuring maximum variation where different ages, genders, academic qualifications and teaching experience groups were covered. The interviews were conducted in time and space convenient to the participants. Teachers’ during the interviews were allowed as much time as they wished and were left to express themselves without least interruption from the researcher to avoid bias.

The interviews were recorded after participants’ consent and transcribed verbatim for ease of analysis (see Appendix A for interview protocol and transcription symbols, and Appendix B for a sample interview transcript). Each interview participant (IP) was assigned a code name from IP1 to IP8. Emerging themes were highlighted and then grouped into categories in order to answer the research questions. The analysis of teachers’ perceptions also proceeded in parallel with the four dimensions of Byram’s (1997) model of IC, namely, knowledge, attitudes, skills and critical cultural awareness to see if all areas of IC are taken into account in the EFL classroom.

5. Results and discussion

The results are presented and discussed under three headings in accordance to the order of the three research questions and within the paper’s theoretical background presented earlier.

5.1 Teachers’ perceptions of culture in ELT contexts

Teachers’ understanding and perception of the concept of culture in ELT contexts can be summarized in the following four points:

5.1.1 Culture as a body of factual knowledge

In defining culture, most teachers referred to it as a body of factual knowledge about the target culture to be transmitted either from the teacher or the school textbook to the learners (Kramsch,
This view of culture reflects a traditional approach to culture teaching. However, an intercultural approach to culture teaching fosters the promotion of attitudes, skills and abilities in addition to knowledge necessary for individuals to grow as ISs or cultural mediators. In support of this perception of culture, consider the following interview excerpt from IP4:

…when we talk for example about Queen Elizabeth + Queen Elizabeth when we talk about English we have a symbol right? Queen Elizabeth the symbol of the language Queen Elizabeth London a symbol + now there are some + students who don’t know even where is London situated yes or no? (IP4)

5.1.2 A national view of culture

Based on Brown’s (2007) definition of culture as “the ideas, customs, skills, arts and tools that characterize a given group of people in a given period of time” (p. 380), a cultural group is one which shares common ways of thinking, norms, attitudes and so on. Therefore, a cultural group does not necessarily have to be marked by national borders of a country. Within one national culture, there are many subcultures where cultural groups are bound together on the basis of race, ethnicity, gender, social class, etc. (Kramsch, 1998, p. 81). Such a perception of culture emphasizes that individuals need IC to communicate across and within national borders of a culture. The interview data revealed that all teachers perceived culture in the national sense, hence justifying the need for culture of IC teaching strictly when cultures across national borders come into contact with each other. To illustrate such thinking from interview data, IP1, for example, stated: “what if someday they will go to such + place at least they will have an idea + about this country and its language”.

5.1.3 A focus on NS culture(s)

The NS model views NS language and culture as the target of ELT. However, teaching culture from an intercultural perspective foregrounds the IS model as a substitute to the previous model where culture teaching focuses on the acquisition of knowledge, skills, attitudes and abilities necessary to survive in a world of overlapping cultures. When the IS is set as the target of ELT, EFL teachers have a multitude of cultural input ranging from cultural groups within one national culture to different cultures across national borders. Interview data revealed that because teachers held a national view of culture, they perceived of the target culture(s) as belonging to NSs with an exclusive focus on British/American culture(s). To illustrate this point, IP7 mentioned: “…yeah so if we are going to talk about the English language so you’re going to talk about the American or British culture”.

5.1.4 Culture as a supplementary element in the EFL classroom

Prevalent amongst the participants was their view of culture as an element of ELT that is secondary in importance in comparison to language. In fact, culture should not be considered as a fifth skill (Kramsch, 1993) taught only when teachers have free time. When the participants were asked about how much time they devote to culture teaching in comparison to language teaching, they gave such answers as IP1’s: “language __ could be 70% + if we’re going to take it + (…) could be 30% for culture”. It is questionable then if a share of 30% of the overall EFL teaching time would be sufficient to meet the core objective of the ICA, i.e., to produce potentially competent ISs able to successfully manage through intercultural communication situations.
5.2 Teachers’ perceptions of IC in ELT contexts
In defining IC, teachers listed qualities which constitute an IS. The results showed that the majority of the participants pointed out to two elements which can be grouped under Byram’s (1997) IC dimensions as follows:

a) Knowledge about the other’s culture. In fact, all teachers viewed culture as factual knowledge to be transmitted, either from the teacher or the textbook to the learners. In support of this definition, consider the excerpt below from IP4.

First + teachers should have they should have enough information enough information about the culture of the + culture of the country they are teaching the language for example English right? + do our teachers have enough information about Britain? + yeah? ++ do they know for example just an example do they know + __ about __ history of Britain? + do they know what __ what the __ special dish of the British? Right? You get what I mean? (IP4)

b) Attitudes of openness and tolerance. Teachers’ focus on the IC dimension of attitudes reflects their recognition of their students’ lack of receptivity towards the other. Consider IP5’s statement below as an illustration.

__ we need to compare between __ we need to compare the other culture because __ it is very important to learn the other culture to be open-minded to be __ in order not to fall the mistakes in order to respect the other culture one you study the other the other culture you became __ you became open open person you became open to the other civilization and it is very important for you as a person to be __ to be civilized __ to be __ more __ more open to the world. (IP5)

It is noteworthy that few teachers referred to the IC dimensions of skills of discovery and interaction, skills of interpreting and relating as well as critical cultural awareness. I believe that when learners are deprived of such, they will consequently not be able to continue developing their IC autonomously. Teachers’ perceptions of IC then reflect a lack of appropriate theoretical understanding of the concept.

5.3 Teachers’ perceptions of the objectives of the ICA
In order to study EFL teachers’ perceptions of the objectives of the ICA, they were asked give reasons why they thought culture/IC should be integrated as part and parcel of ELT. The results can be summarized as follows:

5.3.1 Culture for language learning/understanding
Teachers believed that culture teaching is important so that learners can learn and understand the English language appropriately in its cultural context. The following interview excerpt reflects this perception:

…ok + sometimes you give a proverb sometimes you say a proverb something but they don’t understand it correctly it’s like they understand it literally + you understood… (IP1)
so but some it has to do with culture if they know the culture of the foreign country or language they would understand it the correct way. (IP1)

5.3.2 Culture for effective communication/language use

Some teachers argued that culture learning is necessary so that EFL learners can use English in its appropriate socio-cultural context and conduct successful intercultural communication. Consider the following illustration:

…you know we live now in a very in a global world you know and they are going to come across native speakers or American or or (...) or Spanish people and they are different in their lifestyles in the way they speak in the way they think… (IP2)

5.3.3 Cultural mediation

The notion of cultural mediation is of paramount importance in the ICA. Kramsch (1993) refers to it as ‘a third place’ in which the target culture(s) and learners’ home culture co-exist harmoniously. In such a place, learners are referred to ISs or cultural mediators. Interview data revealed that most EFL teachers perceived cultural mediation as one taking place especially between British/American culture(s) and learners’ home culture. This is not surprising given they still hold on to the NS model. Cultural mediation as used in the ICA, however, is not limited to NS culture(s) and learners’ own culture. Considering the status of English today as a lingua franca (ELF), an international language (EIL) or a global language (EGL), ISs are expected to mediate between their home culture and any other cultural group’s in the world.

…for me I cannot teach them the other’s culture of the target language without teaching them about their own culture so I always make some similarities the contrast you know so what do we have what they don’t have like ___ or this is something lacking in our society I’m gonna give you an example I remember last year I had a fourth unit of ___ third unit of ___ not third fourth unit of third year classes which is Feelings and Emotions and we spoke a lot about how we are different you know our mindsets ___ like for example American people they share a lot they they you know they say “I love you” a lot you know… (IP2)

5.3.4 Global citizenship

One of the objectives of the ICA is to bring up learners as citizens of the global society. When EFL learners develop their IC, they get to acquire the necessary skills to communicate effectively and live harmoniously with the members of such a society. Interview data revealed that two out of eight participants pointed out to the importance of global citizenship as an objective of the ICA. As an illustration of this point, one interviewee mentioned:

For for me I think teaching them to be universal which means to be (...) the citizens of the world ok not only his own country or his micro or macro society ok? I mean macro society the family the so + I think teaching our students to be universal which means whenever he get into contact with English speakers French + he has already the ___ (...) the ___ notion that this one is different from him + you see? So ___ (IP6)
6. Pedagogical implications and recommendations

The present study revealed some deficiencies in EFL teachers’ perception of the concepts of culture and IC in ELT contexts. Given that teachers’ perceptions can affect and shape their classroom practices (Pajares, 1992; Cronin-Jones, 1991), teachers do not seem disposed to effectively implement the ICA in their EFL classrooms and help learners grow as ISs.

The results also show that there are opportunities for enhancement on a number of levels. Firstly, EFL teachers seem to lack appropriate understanding of the concepts of IC and culture and in-depth theoretical knowledge about the ICA and its core objectives. Therefore, educational professionals should ascertain that the field of intercultural communication studies and its pedagogical applications in ELT contexts are taught as a course at universities with as much depth and breadth as need be. Secondly, educational professionals should also work towards the establishment of pre-service and/or in-service teacher training programs to introduce EFL teachers to the ICA, its merits and relevance to today’s education and to provide them with practical methodology on the appropriate ways to proceed to effectively integrate IC into their EFL teaching practices. In addition, teachers could embark on a personal effort to learn more about the ICA in consideration of the educational demands of the globalized world.

7. Conclusion

The present paper investigated teachers’ perceptions of culture, IC and the objectives of the ICA in ELT contexts. The results revealed that although all teachers acknowledged the importance of culture/IC in the EFL classroom, their perceptions of the concepts can be one of the reasons EFL learners may not be able to develop their IC efficiently. Although there is a certain degree of awareness amongst teachers concerning recent teaching approaches, most teachers do not seem to be updated with the current demands of the globalized world.

The main conclusion of this study calls for a need to educate teachers on the ICA and promote their own IC so that they could subsequently promote that of their learners. Teaching culture through the transmission of factual knowledge, prioritizing language over culture and holding on to the NS model run counter to an effective integration of IC into the EFL classroom. This paper may be useful to EFL teachers to raise their self-awareness through self-reflection. Teacher trainers can also build upon the findings and accommodate their training programs to address teachers’ specific needs. Further research is encouraged especially with regard to the effect that teachers’ perceptions can have on their IC teaching practices.

About the authors:
Abdelhak Bouslama holds an MA in Didactics of English and Applied Linguistics and is currently a doctoral student in applied linguistics at the University of Abdelhamid Ibn Badis (Mostaganem, Algeria) and an EFL teacher at secondary education level. Main areas of interest include applied linguistics, intercultural communication, discourse analysis and translation studies. ORCiD: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5186-398X

Prof. Dr. Fawzia Bouhass Benaissi holds an MPhil in Arts Education and Applied Linguistics from Warwick University (Great Britain) and a Doctorat from Djilali Liabes University (Algeria). She teaches and supervises postgraduate students in areas of applied linguistics, discourse studies.
and psycholinguistics. Areas of interest: intercultural communication, differential psychology, assessment, and teacher growth. ORCiD: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0420-0945

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Appendix A
INTERVIEW PROTOCOL

Notational conventions used along the interview transcriptions

R. Researcher
IP Short for ‘interview participant’
(…) Inaudible instance of the recording
( ) Additional information supplied by the research
[ ] Overlap (two interlocutors speaking at the same time)

Participant code: __________________
Date/Time/Duration: ___________/____________/___________
Location: ________________________

A. ELT objectives
➢ What do you think is the most important objective in EFL teaching?
➢ Have your teaching priorities changed over time? What may have been the cause(s) for that?

B. Teachers’ perceptions of ‘culture’ and ‘IC’
➢ How do you define the term ‘culture’?
➢ What do you think constitutes culture?
➢ What does ‘intercultural communication’ mean to you?
➢ What do you understand by ‘intercultural competence’?

C. Teachers’ perceptions of culture teaching and the ICA
➢ Do you think culture should be integrated into EFL teaching?
➢ What do you think are the main objectives of the ICA?

D. Teachers’ IC/culture teaching practices
➢ How much time do you devote to culture teaching in comparison to language teaching? (Give a rough percentage)
➢ How do you integrate culture into your EFL classroom? (Examples of tasks/practices)

Appendix B
SAMPLE INTERVIEW TRANSCRIPT (IP1)

R. What do you think is the most important objective in EFL teaching? When you are teaching __ in class.
IP1 I think it is important to learn the language as well as the culture of the foreign + country + you are dealing with.
R. [Ok so __ and what do you think of the real situation we are in (…) the current situation the real situation where we are teaching + this is __
IP1 You can’t teach culture all the time, you can’t __ how do you say (…) Imple implement (…) no
R. [Ok, yes implement culture
IP1 yeah you can’t implement it all the time.
R. Ok __
IP1 [Maybe with our classes
R. So you think in our situation in high school education secondary education the most important objective in EFL teaching is primarily language
IP1: Yes. At least they will have some vocabulary to interact with the other person.
R.: Ok so you so the most important objective is to learn English for communication?
IP1: Yes
R.: When you started teaching the first time and if you compare the first day with this day do you think that your priorities in language teaching have changed like you started teaching
IP1: [yes]
R.: something and then with time through experience you realized that you have to give more
IP1: [yes]
R.: importance to certain aspects of language than the other?
IP1: Yes it changed a lot (…)
R.: [or aspects of teaching
R.: so what made you change?
IP1: (Sigh) so we are going to talk about teaching now
R.: [yeah teaching in general that’s what I’m doing for the moment
IP1: The syllabus which is very long and you can’t do things that you you want to deal with because of the syllabus because you are obliged to finish in a certain time so you will have to give up on few things.
R.: What do you think is what do you think culture is? What does it mean to you? What is culture? In general
IP1: Culture (sigh) is like knowing ___ about ___ + It has to do sometimes with customs and traditions
R.: customs traditions
IP1: yeah so if we are going to talk about the English language so you’re going to talk about the American or British culture
R.: Ehem which means if you are going to teach culture what are you going to teach so these elements you are going to teach they are culture what do you teach (…) culture for example just our their traditions traditions of ___
IP1: [yes]
R.: [their the ___ foreign one
IP1: [that’s all we have just traditions
IP1: [no but heh
R.: ok
IP1: and to relate it
R.: [you mean the home culture with the foreign culture which means the
IP1: [yes
R.: home traditions with the foreign traditions
IP1: [with the foreign traditions
R.: (…)
IP1: [like comparison yeah
R.: (cough) what is intercultural competence? + Any idea about intercultural competence +
IP1: [(…)
R.: If you want to make your students interculturally competent you want to have individuals
IP1: [hm
R.: who have intercultural competence what does it mean they have?
IP1: (…) going to say intercultural does it mean the ___ like the about the foreign one? It has to do with the foreign
R.: [you understand it the way you want I dunno
IP1: [(…)+ they know
R.: [(…)
IP1: they have an idea about the foreign culture
R.: + Ok?
IP1: For instance when it comes to idioms and proverbs + here it has to do with culture too
R.: [Hehem
IP1: ok? + sometimes you give a proverb sometimes you say a proverb something but they don’t understand it correctly it’s like they understand it literally + you understood?
R.: [(cough) ok
so but some it has to do with culture if they know the culture of the foreign country or language they would understand it the correct way.

IP1 Now do you think that we should integrate culture as part of teaching?

IP1 [it has to do with ethics and beliefs and so on?]

R. Do you think that you should __ that culture should be integrated as part of EFL teaching?

IP1 Yes, definitely

R. Do you think it is important?

IP1 Yes, it is. (…) What if someday they will go to such + place at least they will have an idea + about this country and its language it’s important + to be open minded too

R. What do you think the main objectives when you are teaching __ as an intercultural approach? We do this for example in third year classes we have education in the world + we compare education in Algeria with +

IP1 [yes [with the Algerian with the British or American]

R. [yeah [yeah]

R. So what is what is your goal to have such comparisons in culture?

IP1 To know about the other culture + open-minded mindedness

R. [so __ ok to be open minded + so attitudes Ok.]

IP1 [It has to do with citizenship and so on I’m just trying to remember]

R. Now another question, do you have any time for do you devote any time for culture teaching? + Do you give some time for culture in class?

IP1 [sometimes eh it depends]

R. Ok so how much time do you give for culture if I ask you percentage?

IP1 Language __ could be 70% + if we’re going to take it + (…) could be 30% for culture.

R. Ok

IP1 Because we are limited with the (…) program

R. The program

IP1 Yes

R. Ok + when you want when you are teaching culture how do you ah how do you teach culture? What do you use? How do you integrate it? The methodology or the materials or (cough)?

IP1 I don’t use ICTs unfortunately (in low voice)

R. You don’t use ICTS? What do you use for example?

IP1 [No ++ textbook and ah

R. __ (…) [once there was a project about it on this unit and the pupils brought food ah traditional food

R. to your class.

IP1 Yes + like couscous. __ + and so on
EFL Learners and Their Success in Learning English in the Thai Context

Phothongsunan Sureepong
School of Arts, Assumption University
Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract
The main aim of the study is to explore 15 high achieving English language learners’ accounts of their undertakings in learning English in a Thai upper secondary school. The researcher adopts the view of social learning, particularly in reaching better understandings of the learners’ experiences in learning English. As there exists a tendency to gauge learners’ success in English based on examinations, this study asserts that language learning involves more than a cognitive process, thus values the social aspects of experiential English learning. The focus lies on investigating the perceptions of these high achieving English language learners of their success in learning English as well as the influences contributing to it. Two methods are used to collect data: focus groups and interviews. The findings indicate the participants’ perceptions of their own success in learning English in three main aspects: English language ability, examination performance and skills in teaching others. In particular, the ability to speak English fluently and correctly appears to be of utmost importance for a successful English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learner. It is also found that most learners identify their own performance in class, the teacher, including teacher rapport, and school culture as contributing to their English learning achievement. In focusing on the learners’ perceptions and their actual experiences, insights into how the learners actually undergo the learning opportunities provided by the education system can be obtained. To understand the extent to which innovations in English language teaching and learning have been successful, the everyday realities of the language classroom and school have to be accentuated.

Keywords: EFL learners, English learning, learning context, learning experiences

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Introduction

Intending to understand the learners’ experiences of learning in view of their English achievement as measured through a formal assessment, the researcher wanted to find out why some high achieving Thai English language learners have been more successful in learning English. By acknowledging the learners as whole persons and social beings, some historical and cultural background on the learners’ experiences with English would be explored. This provides a basis for understanding the identity of these learners, how they see their progress in English, how they see themselves as learners of English and their responses to English teaching and learning situations. Their reasons for learning English, their constructions of themselves as learners of English and their perceptions of learning English as a subject in school would also be examined.

The researcher was interested in the experiences of learners who had been successful in terms of examinations. What other people thought these learners had accomplished in English based on formal learning indicates that examination results had been simplistically regarded as an indicator of success.

There is a strong inclination in Thailand to measure learners’ progress in English solely in connection with examinations, reflecting a mainstream second language acquisition view that language learning is a cognitive process, and that it involves a process-product approach where attainment in the latter is simply measurable. The researcher started this study with an assumption that these learners, based on their excellent results in the English examinations, were successful English language learners. However, the researcher also took the stance that language learning involved more than a cognitive undertaking, thus deciding to explore the social aspects of the learners’ experiences of learning English which could account for their success in English as well.

Two main research questions in the study are:
1. What are the perceptions of high achieving English language learners of their own success in learning English?
2. What are the influences that the learners identify as contributing to their success as EFL learners?

Literature Review

With the view of social learning, language learning is a relationship between social and cognitive processes, which involve a social and collaborative endeavor and transformation of learners’ identities and participation in the context of learning where language has its own distinctive role in the learning of a language (Breen, 2001).

Language learning also depends on linguistic input. This is because theorists such as Krashen (1982) believes linguistic input is the main source for language learning. According to Krashen’s input hypothesis, to acquire language one needs to be exposed to comprehensible linguistic input. If the input contains forms and structures just beyond the learner’s current level of competence both comprehension and acquisition of the language can occur (Lightbown, 2000).

Interactionist theorists similarly agree that input is the key source of language learning. This suggests that as the learner tries to manage his or her interactions with second language input
and then organizes his or her second language output internally and invisibly (Lightbown, 2000), based on Swain’s (1985) output hypothesis, language learning can advance.

The implication of such a position is that the language classroom is seen as of value as a linguistic data provider to shape learners for efficient mental processing of the language (Breen, 2001). This seems to reflect the common belief in Thailand that the classroom is the most important context for learning English.

From the viewpoint of theorists and researchers working within the information-processing model of human learning and performance (McLaughlin, 1987; Johnson, 1996) language learning is perceived as the accumulation of knowledge systems such as grammatical structures through ‘practice’ and integration of the learning task that results in a fluent performance.

From this assumption it is through practice that learners will be able to store various aspects of the language learned, and that when the learner wants to perform an action, the stored knowledge can be retrieved from memory (Johnson, 2001). This implies the notion of transmission learning which involves the one-way flow of information from the teacher to the learners. More crucially, the idea that the learners have accumulated knowledge of the language from the teacher is something readily explored. This probably explains the reason why in Thailand learners’ progress in English is mainly evaluated through examinations.

However, as stated earlier language learning can be perceived as social and collaborative phenomena embedded in social activities in which people engage in various everyday situations and settings. In the second language learning situation, the teacher becomes a co-participant, a source of constant affirmation, to develop learners’ sensitivity to learning through direct exposure to stimuli and to develop in the learners’ cognitive prerequisites for such direct learning (Kozulin, 1998).

This collaborative social interaction is viewed to be most productive within the zone of proximal development (ZPD). ZPD is understood as the distance between the learner’s actual development and the learner’s potential growth (Wertsch, 1984). In second language learning, this zone can be interpreted as the distance between learners’ basic knowledge in the language and the extent to which the learner can advance to a higher level of proficiency in the language. It is believed that within this ZPD that effective learning takes place with the help of or in collaboration with the others who serve as mediators.

Within this zone, a teacher can also develop strategies to assist learners. The support provided by the teacher is known as scaffolding (van Lier, 2001). In the initial stages of learning, learners are supported more directly in their learning, for example, through explicit instruction. However, as learners show a sign of being capable of dealing with the learning task on their own, the scaffold must be gradually dismantled.

From this perspective, in the formal teaching and learning situation, the learners’ development and learning seem to be shaped by their relationship with the teacher. Based on this view, it is therefore important to recognize that learners’ achievement or success in formal second
language learning, is partly under their own control, and partly under the control of their teachers (Mercer, 2001). The language learners, therefore, arguably are not solely responsible for their own achievement.

By developing the notion of learning as a social and collaborative activity, it is important to note that within the social framework, language is considered the most important tool for such activity. We need language both first language (L1) and second language (L2) to mediate and regulate our relationships with others, and with ourselves as in organizing our thoughts for reasoning, planning and reviewing, and hence change the nature of the relationship (Candlin & Mercer, 2001). In other words, this means that we do not use language just for communication where communication among other things involves sharing our culture but also we use it for thinking and in turn, understanding (Williams & Burden, 1997).

Mercer (2000) asserts that language, in fact, helps people to think together, and thus, introduces the notion of interthinking. According to Mercer, when people interact through language, they are in actual fact combining their mental resources. Through observation, imitation and taking part in joint physical activity by means of language, people can jointly create new ideas and evaluate the quality of their achievement.

Methodology
This study adopts a case study approach. It fits the needs to explore the situation under study where data are from people’s experiences and perceptions and so are considered realistic and rich. Case studies are a data source from which further investigation can be made which can lead to further research. It is therefore important to realize specific cases and ensure a more holistic approach to research (Cohen et al., 2000).

Sampling
The participants consisted of 15 Thai high school students who were studying in grades 10, 11 and 12 in a Thai school in suburban Bangkok. From the total, five students from different classes in each of the grade levels were selected. They studied in a Thai program and English was learned about three hours per week in a 15-week semester. Ten of them were female while the 5 others were male. The participants were purposively chosen based on their English grades in which case they must have received at least 85% (A grades) from English courses for as minimum the past two semesters consecutively. None had experienced studying overseas.

Data collection
To obtain data for this study, two methods were used: focus groups and interviews, all carried out in Thai, fully transcribed, and then translated into English. A focus group is as a group discussion on a particular topic organized for research purposes. This discussion is guided, monitored and recorded by a researcher (Silverman, 2000). This method was used in this study because the researcher found that the participants once asked to take part in this study were generally eager to express ideas and account for their experiences in learning English. Thus, it was decided that stranger groups would be used as the participants would be able to speak freely without fear of repercussion, and challenges to other participants could be more challenging and probing, leading to richer data. Three focus groups for which each level represents were deployed.
The researcher was, however, conscious that being in a group could also mean that learners were unwilling to assert their views because of a fear of being intimidated by their peers, the interviewer or even the situation (Powney & Watts, 1987). Similarly, being in a friendship group could also pose some problems, as learners’ views may tend to converge in order to keep the peace. In the light of these foreseen drawbacks, during the group discussions, the researcher tried to encourage all the participants to talk and to monitor these individuals who could have dominated the conversations (Creswell, 1998).

Interviews were another principal method of data collection for the reason that findings created through the interaction of the inquirer and the phenomenon (the individuals) are often more plausible (Guba & Lincoln, 1998). In addition, Fontana and Frey (1994) state that interviewing is most powerful in trying to understand people. Cooper and McIntyre (1996) suggest that, in gaining access to learners’ perspectives, what is needed is an approach that enables the participants to express their own personal views or constructions of their experience.

A semi-structured interview technique was used in order to give the participants ‘a voice’ with a certain degree of freedom to talk about what was centrally significant to them within the designed framework of this research study (Bell, 1993). At the same time, using a semi-structured interview enabled the researcher to probe and ask for clarification as the participants constructed their meaning in response to the questions raised about their experiences in order to construct an understanding of their accounts and perceptions of learning English.

**Data analysis**

The data was initially transcribed. The focus group discussions were transcribed verbatim during the first phase. These transcripts were then returned to the groups for respondent validation (Radnor, 2002). Similarly, the individual interviews were transcribed and returned to the participants for respondent validation.

In the first instance, adapting the analysis procedures advocated by Knodel (1993) for focus group data, the researcher used the discussion guideline as a point of reference in coding the data. These coded data were then transferred to an overview grid that provided a descriptive summary of the content of the focus group discussions. This overview grid served as a guide for further coding. The transcripts were read and re-read taking into account the group as well as the individual responses. As emphasized by Morgan (1993), discussions in focus group depend on both the individuals that make up the group and the dynamic of the group as a whole.

The coding process was undertaken based on emerging units of meaning (Maykut & Morehouse, 1994). Throughout this process, the data was constantly compared across groups and across individuals in the group. At this point, descriptive accounts were written out based on the categories to indicate relationships and patterns. The next step was then to integrate the data to yield an understanding of the participants’ constructions of English learning experiences.

Similar procedures were used for the individual interviews. However, the constant comparative method was based on comparing across individuals within the same level and in different levels based on similar units of meanings. Similar units of meaning were identified and
coded. These were then matched to the data from the focus group discussions to understand the overall learners’ perceptions of their success in learning English and the influences that they identify as contributing to their learning success.

Findings and Discussion
To answer the first research question, three major domains can be addressed: English language ability, examination performance and teaching a skill.

In terms of English language ability, all participants believed that the ability to speak English fluently and correctly was important to be successful English learners. They seemed to have a powerful image that if someone was to be good at English, the person should be able to speak English fluently, correctly and even without hesitation. Nine out of fifteen participants also indicated that a native-like accent could clearly distinguish successful from unsuccessful EFL learners. Interestingly, four of the participants from grade 10 pointed out that the use of English vocabulary and the length of vocabulary made them stand out among their classmates at school. All five respondents from grade 12 opined that ability to write well-developed essays attributed to their success in learning English.

Regarding performance in examinations, all participants reported being able to do well in English exams as an important criterion of becoming a successful EFL learner. This is because for the participant's grades were seen as an achievement indicator that is tangible and acceptable as recognized by teachers, peers, and parents. Moreover, about half of the participants (N=7) found taking English tests with confidence significant for an efficient English learner.

Another interesting finding was on teaching a skill as many participants (N=8) pointed out. Ability to teach other people English seemed to be necessary as they reasoned that if ones could teach or guide others to use English well, they would be qualified and competent enough to use English for communication, and this would be a clear sign of success. In other words, many participants justified that to be a successful English user, one role was to have a teacher-like figure to help other learners achieve a higher level of proficiency in English.

From the findings, the learners identified speaking as an important characteristic of a good English language learner. English speaking was the skill they needed to be able to pursue their present and future academic/professional as well as social endeavors. However, what most of these learners underscored was the ability to speak English confidently and correctly because they seemed to believe they had to speak English without grammatical mistakes. That all the learners emphasized the ability to converse in English more than other skills as their key criteria for having achieved in English can be pertinent to the learners’ sense of accomplishment in English mostly related to the extent to which they felt they could speak English. This finding seemed to concur with Tse’s (2000) finding that for the students in her study, the conversational ability was the most important criteria that reflected their actual proficiency in English more than traditional measures of academic competence.

Another issue that could be related to the participants’ perceived success in learning English was their concern for correctness in the language. It can be deduced that due to the focus
on examinations and on covering the prescribed framework, correctness in the language was emphasized over the message carried by the language (Lightbown, 2000; Wells, 2003).

Some learners seemed to be referring to their experience in school. Possibly influenced by their experience with written work in their English lessons, these learners referred to the quality written work as a standard a successful learner should have. It can also be implied that good language learners or users seem to be judged based on formal learning. Thus, learners’ ability to use English or specifically speak the language could be predominantly perceived from a written perspective as well.

The participants admitted placing a high value on examinations. On the one hand, this seemed to reflect the influence of an examination-oriented education system in Thailand. On the other hand, this could also be due to the fact that examination performance would determine if these learners could pursue their higher education with success. By emphasizing on preparing students for examinations, this reflects the notion implied by Hopkins (2001) that the organizational conditions of the school are closely related to classroom practice that directly and indirectly impacts student learning.

Regarding the teaching skill raised by many participants as vital in becoming successful in learning English, teaching from this perspective is the process of creating situations whereby students are able to interact with the material to be learned in order to construct knowledge. The feeling of accomplishment also seemed to relate to the idea that the learners had been given empowerment in their learning, which again reflects the notion of transmission learning. Assuming a teaching role relates to a perceived change in the learners’ identity as teachers to become co-participants (Kozulin, 1998) in other learners’ learning of English, making all their learning experiences more social.

The second research question deals with influences identified as contributing to their success as EFL learners. Most of the participants (N=10) referred to their own performance in class. They reported participating actively during all lessons, doing what was required of them as learners, though they hardly asked questions. This relates to the notion proposed by Wright (1987) that students may be merely acting ‘in role’ as learners based on the status they believed accorded to them in the classroom situation.

More than half of the participants (N=8) believed that the teacher and rapport with the English teacher helped them to succeed in learning English, without specifically indicating the teacher’s age or native or non-native status. They on the other hand commented favorably on the English teacher’s personality and ways of conducting lessons. Interaction with the English teacher seemed to have provided an opportunity for real language practice through informal more than formal conversations. Five participants from grade 10 agreed that the teacher seemed to have provided a chance for the learners’ voices to be heard during lesson activities and within the learning framework. The teacher is always seen as a key authority in the language classroom. Supposedly as an English expert, the teacher is a facilitator who can help support learners’ learning as they try to rationalize their language learning experiences (Kozulin, 1998; Williams & Burden, 1997). Simultaneously, the teacher can offer the scaffolding to enhance learners particularly in the
initial stages of learning. The teacher also seems to hold power concerning whether the learners have access to speaking and using English in context (Norton, 2000). Put differently, the teacher seems to make it possible regarding whether learners have a chance to practise different language skills. Similarly, the teacher is the person who can provide learners with emotional backing as they experience an adjustment in identity whenever using a second language. Obviously, what is important is a relationship between learners and the teacher, as this appears to affect the learners’ learning and development in the language.

Three other participants mentioned school culture in particular. In their school, English is mainly used in the classroom and tested in examinations. English learning is perceived for examination purposes, and the school concentrates on classroom learning where the focus is on learners’ passing the examinations. School culture includes the professional culture of educators, standards of local organization and administrative practice (Husén & Postlethwaite, 1994). Thus, the way schools in general perceive English learning could also account for the way English is used by learners within the school environment. This relates to the notion presented by Spolsky (1989) that school rationale, priorities and goals for the target language are important as they seem to determine an extent to which learners can use English in and outside the language classroom either to practice or to continue learning the target language or merely to focus on taking examinations.

Conclusion
Using an interpretive inquiry focusing on learners in the attempt to understand their perspectives of learning English in school, this study, has provided invaluable insights into how the learners discovered themselves, which can be seen as extending the research scope in the field of EFL. Findings from this study indicate that successful EFL learners do have clear conceptions of their learning experiences, demonstrating that Thai learners, given the opportunity to articulate their experiences, are able to voice their views on different issues related to their perceived success in learning of English. Future research with different target groups and types of school are worth considering. These can provide concerned stakeholders with different insights into learners’ social worlds of learning English. Within the field of second language learning in EFL contexts, research into learners’ perspectives in terms of their general experiences of school has not been conducted extensively. Thus, further research involving learners’ perspectives on different issues of teaching and learning of English within the social context of Thai schools can be seen as broadening an understanding of second language learning.

About the Author:
Sureepong Phothongsunan works at the Theodore Maria School of Arts, Assumption University. Holding a doctorate in TEFL from the University of Exeter, UK, he has published books, articles, and research in English Language Teaching. ORCiD: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-8115-4375
References


Comparative Error Gravity: Toward a Cross Linguistic Theory

Nathaniel Lotze
Dhofar University, Salalah, Oman

Abstract
Negative transfer is a difficulty for Arabic-speaking students of English. This study juxtaposes eight categories of Arabic-to-English transfer errors with equivalent and near-equivalent errors in Arabic. It compares their error gravity as rated by teachers and students to discover whether there are any differences between teacher and student perceptions that might inform teaching practices. It is also the first step toward a cross-linguistic theory of comparative error gravity based on the functional equivalence approach to translation. It finds that teachers tend to perceive grammatical errors as graver than mechanical or lexical errors, with most differences in perception appearing to stem from cultural background. Among students, there is very little consensus, in line with previous studies. This study concludes that teachers and students might benefit from a better understanding of both their own tendencies in perceiving errors and those of the other party in the learning process. It also recommends the development of a full-fledged theory for moving between languages for the purpose of studying error gravity comparatively in languages other than Arabic.

Keywords: Arabic, comparative linguistics, English language teaching, error gravity, ESL/EFL

Introduction

There are two broad errors into which students can fall in English. One is developmental and stems from the built-in difficulties of the language itself (e.g., using a form like *eated instead of ate). The other is transfer, or when, as Lado (1957) first described it, forms and meanings of a first language are applied to English in a way that does not quite work. When that first language is very different from English, the odds of negative transfer rise (Lennon, 2008). For Arabic-speaking students, negative transfer is no small problem.

The topic of this study is error gravity in English and Arabic. Arabic-to-English transfer errors are juxtaposed with equivalent and near-equivalent errors in Arabic in an attempt to discover whether there are any differences in the way they are perceived by teachers versus Arabic-speaking students. Its goal is the same for both groups: to sensitize the one to how errors are perceived by the other.

Literature Review

Arabic-speaking students face unique difficulties in learning English, from spelling to discourse, resulting in a great deal of negative transfer (Grami & Alzughaibi, 2012; Muftah & Rafik-Galea, 2013; Hassan, 2014; Sabbah, 2015; Albalawi, 2016; etc.). Deacon (2015), for instance, demonstrates that they make more spelling errors in English than do speakers of other languages. Thompson-Panos and Thomas-Ruzic (1983) blame this propensity in part on the fact that short vowels are not normally written in Arabic due to their relatively low functional load, resulting in a phenomenon that Ryan and Meara (1991) dub “vowel blindness” (p. 24). Mohamed and Omer (1999), meanwhile, demonstrate a wide gulf between English and Arabic discourse in the use of coordination and subordination, which can result in Arabic-speaking students transferring Arabic modes of discourse “intensively” (Stapa & Irtaimeh, 2012, p. 260)—for instance, by overusing conjunctions (Al-Khresheh, 2011), or producing sentences that in English are considered run-on (Al-Katib, 2001).

Khuwaileh (1995) posits that this negative transfer is often the fallout of a grammar-translation approach to writing, in which students think in Arabic during the writing process and translate their thoughts into English as they go along. On the other hand, Dweik and Abu Al Hommos (2007) find that students who write well in Arabic tend to write well in English, too. They conclude that writing skills can transfer positively between Arabic and English; however, their conclusion seems a bit off-target, akin to saying that good pianists make good cellists. They very well might, but if so it is probably thanks to a knack for music in general, not transfer—which, in the case of Arabic and English, as noted above, is nearly always negative.

Errors resulting from negative transfer are perceived very differently. Sweedler-Brown (1993), for instance, finds that non-teachers tend to zero in on errors at the sentence level, while teachers typically incorporate a more bird’s-eye view of discourse as a whole. However, even among teachers there is very little consensus on error gravity. For whatever reason, most studies of error gravity have focused on its perception by native versus non-native English speakers. Some, like Kobayashi’s (1992), find that the former are “more strict” (p. 81). Others turn up only small differences (Porte, 1999). Still others—the majority, say Hyland and Anan (2006)—conclude that native English speakers are, in fact, more error-tolerant than their non-native counterparts.
McCretton and Rider (1993) fall into this last category. They point to a number of similarities in the way that both native and non-native English speakers perceive errors, considering the possibility of a “universal hierarchy of errors” (p. 177) but ultimately concluding that similarities tend to be a product of shared background, not a universal hierarchy. Still, background plays a role in perception and seems a perfectly valid focus of study, as when Vann, Meyer, and Lorenz (1984) demonstrate that teaching experience affects how a teacher perceives errors. In theory, then, error gravity hierarchies might be predictable by background, including whether or not the teacher is a native English speaker, teaching experience, and any additional factors that further study might turn up (e.g., psychological state at the time of the study; Brackett et al., 2013).

Which brings us to the fact that students are part of a teacher’s background, too: their first language, the errors they make as a result of negative transfer, and how those errors are perceived. And here there is a gap in the research. To my knowledge, only Mahoney (2011) has studied error gravity from the student point of view. He finds that students have opinions about errors and their gravity, but little to no frame of reference for forming them, and that as a result their perception of errors is quite different from that of their teachers.

This study is an attempt to close the gap somewhat by providing the missing frame of reference.

**Method**

This study has its roots in a conversation with a class of Arabic-speaking students in the Foundation Program at Dhofar University, Oman. The students had studied the third person singular form of simple present verbs the term before but were still producing sentences like *He study English* despite repeated modeling and correcting. Finally, it was pointed out to them that dropping the -s was on par with how Gulf Pidgin Arabic speakers jettison all inflectional morphology (Avram, 2014), and a rather grating example provided. The analogy was weak, but it had the desired effect. The students chuckled, and thereafter there was a noticeable uptick in their use of -s.

This impromptu juxtaposition of errors prompted the idea of a more systematic theory whereby error gravity could be compared cross-linguistically. This study is a first step in that direction. It focuses on transfer errors and asks three questions:

1. How do teachers perceive different categories of transfer errors in English?
2. How do students perceive equivalent or near-equivalent categories in Arabic?
3. Are there any differences between the two perceptions that might inform teaching practices?

Perception of the errors that students make differs from teacher to teacher. To answer the first question, eight examples of English usage that is prone to transfer errors from Arabic were collected from the Level 1 (i.e., CEFR Level A1) Reading & Writing textbook. There are, of course, other errors, both developmental and transfer, that Arabic-speaking students make, but the eight in question are common in Level 1 (and beyond).
Examples 1-4 are grammatical, 5-6 mechanical, and 7-8 lexical. Two sets of eight sentences were constructed, each with one of the eight transfer errors. Rifkin and Roberts (1995) allow that constructed texts are valid in error gravity studies when the questions at stake are theoretical. In this study, the first two questions are. The focus is not errors but error categories; accordingly, it was necessary to limit the errors in each text to one of the eight categories. Teachers were asked to rate the error gravity of these constructed texts (c-texts) from 8 (least grave) to 1 (gravest) for both sets.

The approach to the second question was the same. Arabic c-texts with functionally equivalent or near-equivalent error categories were constructed in Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) with the help of three university-educated native Arabic speakers and students asked to rate their error gravity from least grave to gravest. In the context of this study, a functionally equivalent error is one that involves the same category of error and transfers in both directions, albeit in slightly different form. For instance, the errors in *There are 50 state in the US and the Arabic c-text translated as *There are 6 country in the GCC are formally equivalent, with a singular noun used where the plural is required; however, they are not functionally equivalent because *50 state is an Arabic-to-English transfer error while *6 country is not an error that English speakers tend to make in Arabic. Conversely, *Amarel has 12 brother and *Amal has 12 brothers (which is incorrect in Arabic) are not formally equivalent because the word brother is singular in the English c-text and plural in the Arabic, but the errors are functionally equivalent transfer errors in the use of singular and plural nouns in both languages.

It should be noted that not all of the errors in the Arabic c-texts were functionally equivalent in the sense of being transfer errors, and one of them (capital letters) had no formal equivalent. In fact, no error, developmental or transfer, is 100% equivalent between two languages, and there was room to approach any or all of the eight categories differently in both English and Arabic. The approach of this study, however, was to construct c-texts whose errors were, insofar as it was possible, functionally equivalent, and to use them to answer the study’s third question of how differences in their perception might inform teaching practices. If it was not possible to construct a functionally equivalent Arabic c-text, a formal equivalent or near-equivalent was used. The following is a list of the English c-texts and translations of the Arabic c-texts. The Arabic c-texts are provided in Appendix A. For brief explanations of the approach to their construction, see Appendix B.
The three native Arabic speakers who helped to construct the Arabic c-texts recognized the errors immediately and, when asked to correct them, did so in the same way. When shown the English c-texts, they agreed that the error categories were more or less equivalent and had the same “feel” as the Arabic.

The study was conducted with 27 teachers and 94 students in the Foundation Program. Teacher ratings were analyzed according to cultural background and experience, and student ratings according to level of English study.

**Results**

**Teachers**

The teachers who participated in the study represented a breadth of background and experience. Fourteen were South Asian (Indian or Pakistani), seven were from across the Arab world from Morocco to Oman, and six were from English-speaking Western countries. Two were PhD holders. Their teaching experience ranged from 6 to 34 years, with anywhere from 3 to 33 years in the Arab world. Figure 1 shows their perception of the errors in the English c-texts. For each of the three different teacher backgrounds (South Asian, Arab, and Western), categories whose rating differed from the average (Teachers) by more than 0.5 are in bold.
Teachers tended to perceive grammatical errors as graver than mechanical or lexical errors. Across the board, leaving out the verb *be* (COP) was rated as the gravest error, followed by leaving out the word *of* in noun phrases (GEN) and articles (ART), though the latter was bunched with the misuse of conjunctions (CONJ) and singular and plural nouns (SG/PL). Spelling errors involving either consonants (C) or vowels (V) and uncapitalization (CAP) were perceived as the least grave.

South Asian teachers, who comprised slightly more than half of the teachers who participated in the survey, were more or less in line with the average. Only one category, SG/PL, was more than 0.5 off the average (5.2 vs. the average of 4.5). In this instance, the average was pulled up by ratings from Arab and Western teachers, who tended to perceive the misuse of singular and plural nouns as a much graver category of error.

Ratings by Arab teachers were unique in several ways. In the first place, they were less categorical regarding leaving out the verb *be*, rating it as more than a full place less grave than the average, and tied with leaving out the word *of* in noun phrases at 2.9. They also tended to perceive spelling errors involving consonants as much graver than the average, tied with the misuse of singular and plural nouns at 4.1, while ratings from South Asian and Western teachers for this category hovered around 6. In addition, they rated leaving out articles as less grave than did either South Asian or Western teachers, essentially bunching the categories C, CONJ, and SG/PL as middling errors in the range of 3.9 to 4.1, while South Asian and Western teachers swapped out C for ART with a bunching range of 4.1 to 4.5. Finally, Arab teachers tended to perceive uncapitalization as the least grave error by far—at 7.2, nearly a full place less grave than the average of 6.3, and more than a full place below their rating for spelling errors involving vowels.

Western teachers unanimously rated leaving out the verb *be* as a 1, the gravest error. They also tended to perceive the misuse of singular and plural nouns as graver than the average (3.3 vs. the average of 4.5), but leaving out the word *of* in noun phrases less so. Still, there was a clear differentiation in the way they tended to perceive grammatical errors on one hand and mechanical
and lexical errors on the other, with a gap of 1.6 between the least grave grammatical error, leaving out the word of in noun phrases, and the gravest error of any other category, the misuse of conjunctions—which, at 5.6, they tended to perceive as less grave than the average of 4.2.

Ratings were also analyzed according to teaching experience. Nine of the 27 teachers had less than ten years of experience in the Arab world, and four had taught for less than ten years in total. (Interestingly, these four were a cross section of the teachers as a whole, with two South Asians, an Arab, and a Westerner.)

Experience appears to have played little role in teachers’ perception of error gravity. Both groups rated the eight categories of error in the same order as the average (COP-GEN-ART-CONJ-SG/PL-C-CAP-V). For those with less than ten years of experience in the Arab world, only two errors, leaving out the verb be and spelling errors involving consonants, were more than 0.5 off the average. Meanwhile, those who had taught for less than ten years in total tended to perceive errors quite similarly, with only two instances of bunching (for the categories CONJ and SG/PL, and CAP and V), with the result that half of the categories were more than 0.5 off the average.

Teachers were fairly consistent in their ratings between the c-texts in Set 1 and Set 2, meaning that paired ratings for *There are 50 state in the US and *Amarel has 12 brother, for instance, were for the most part the same or similar. Of the 216 paired ratings, only ten (4.6%) differed by more than two places. Four of the ten were for the category CAP. The four teachers who rated this category differently between Set 1 and Set 2 tended to perceive *the man is tall as more grave than *I am from oman (4.3 vs. 6.3), indicating that they perceived uncapitalization of the first word in a sentence as graver than that of a word in an arguably less prominent position.

**Students**

The students who participated in the study were a cross section of the student body as a whole. Sixty-nine were women and 25 were men, in line with the student body ratio of 3-1. Thirty-one were from Level 1, 33 from Level 2, and 30 from Level 3. All were Omani. As with teacher ratings,
categories whose rating differed from the average (Students) by more than 0.5 are in bold for each of the three different levels (Level 1, Level 2, and Level 3).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Arabic c-texts</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>Level 1</th>
<th>Level 2</th>
<th>Level 3</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>COP (2.9)</td>
<td>COP (2.2)</td>
<td>COP (3.6)</td>
<td>COP (2.7)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C (3.4)</td>
<td>C (2.8)</td>
<td>C (3.9)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GEN (4.5)</td>
<td>GEN (4.6)</td>
<td>GEN (4.1)</td>
<td>GEN (4.4)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SG/PL, V (4.8)</td>
<td>SG/PL (4.9)</td>
<td>SG/PL, CAP (4.9)</td>
<td>SG/PL, CAP (4.9)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ART (5.2)</td>
<td>ART (5.0), CONJ (5.1)</td>
<td>ART (5.4)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CONJ (5.6)</td>
<td>CONJ (6.0)</td>
<td>CONJ (5.8)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 4. Error gravity by student level

Leaving out the verb *be* was rated as the gravest error, albeit not very categorically at 2.9. It was followed by spelling errors involving consonants. The other six categories were bunched between 4.5 and 5.6.

Level 1 students were more categorical about leaving out the verb *be* and spelling errors involving consonants, both of which they tended to perceive as graver than the average. (The rating of 2.2 for leaving out the verb *be* was likely due to the fact that at the time of the study they were studying that very topic of grammar.) They rated leaving out articles as less grave than the average (5.8 vs. the average of 5.2) but were otherwise more or less in line with the average.

Level 2 students were the least consistent in their ratings, with all eight categories bunched between 3.6 and 5.1.

No category was more than 0.5 off the average for Level 3 students.

Student ratings were much less consistent than teacher ratings. Of the 752 paired ratings for the c-texts in Set 1 and Set 2, 261 (34.7%) differed by more than two places. The categories SG/PL and GEN were the top two culprits, with 43 and 40 inconsistent pairs, respectively. These two categories were analyzed separately to determine if students tended to perceive one c-text of the pair as graver than the other. This analysis, in fact, was planned for SG/PL. Arabic uses plural nouns for 3-10 but singular for 11-99. As noted above, *50 state* and *6 country* are formally equivalent; meanwhile, where an Arabic speaker might produce a sentence like *Amarel has 12 brother* in English, *12 brothers* (plural) is an English-to-Arabic transfer error. The two approaches represent the tension between formal and functional equivalence. It was decided to include both to see if students rated one as graver than the other.

Across the board, students rated the formally equivalent Arabic c-text containing *6 country* (Set 1) at 5.1, and the functionally equivalent *12 brothers* (Set 2) as graver, at 4.4. The
differentiation was more pronounced among the 43 students whose ratings for the category SG/PL differed by more than two places, at 5.4 for *6 country and more than a place and a half graver for *12 brothers at 3.8. These ratings were somewhat surprising given that formally equivalent translations are generally regarded as the more stilted. Meanwhile, the errors in the c-texts for the category GEN, *part the book (Set 1) and *kinds cheese (Set 2), were rated at 4.2 and 4.8, respectively, but two whole places apart by the 40 students in question, at 3.3 for *part the book and 5.3 for *kinds cheese.

**Discussion**

As noted above, there is very little consensus on error gravity. It is possible that the same sets of English and Arabic c-texts would produce different results with different study participants. The question is whether or not they are likely to produce different results—or more consistent results, given the fact that students’ paired ratings were quite inconsistent. Consistency, of course, is not the same thing as validity. Fourteen of the 27 teachers, for instance, rated the paired English c-texts with exactly the same error gravity between Set 1 and Set 2 despite the fact that they were scrambled, indicating that they recognized that *50 state and *12 brother were the same category of error. There is, then, the quite real possibility that these teachers rated Set 2 by referring back to Set 1 instead of judging each c-text vis-à-vis the other c-texts in its set, thereby veiling differences like the one that appeared between *the man is tall and *I am from oman. However, ratings from these teachers were in line with the average, with only the category SG/PL out of order, owing mostly to the fact that five of the 14 were Westerners, who, as noted above, tended to perceive the misuse of singular and plural nouns as graver than the South Asian and Arab teachers. Thus, while the study’s methodology might have been improved by flipping Set 1 and Set 2 for half of the teachers, the results appear valid.

Student ratings, on the other hand, were more or less the antipode of teacher ratings. Only seven students rated all eight paired Arabic c-texts within two places of each other between Set 1 and Set 2, and none rated them with exactly the same error gravity. There are several possible reasons for this inconsistency. In the first place, they might have misidentified the errors. This possibility was considered when the surveys were being compiled, with the first draft requesting students to correct the Arabic c-texts in addition to rating them for error gravity, to validate their recognition of the errors. However, this draft was scrapped as impractical time-wise and unnecessary, as the three native Arabic speakers who helped to construct the Arabic c-texts agreed that the errors were clear to any Arabic speaker. It was also possible that the paired c-texts differed in their error gravity, as with *the man is tall and *I am from oman. In the case of the categories SG/PL and GEN, above, some students do appear to have differentiated between the two sets. Most of them, however, did not: students whose ratings were consistent between Set 1 and Set 2 for the two categories in question rated both *6 country and *12 brothers at 4.9, and both *part the book and *kinds cheese at 4.7. As a whole, then, students did not perceive either of the paired c-texts as significantly different in terms of error gravity. Finally, there is the very real possibility that some students were disinterested in the study, rating the c-texts in a slapdash way that resulted in inconsistency. To test this possibility, all inconsistent ratings (i.e., those that differed by more than two places between Set 1 and Set 2) were removed.
No rating was more than 0.3 off the average. What this means is that students were not necessarily slapdash in their ratings. They merely had, from student to student, differing perceptions of the error gravity of the Arabic c-texts—a lack of consensus that resulted in the bunching of six of the eight categories.

Which brings us to this study’s third question: Are there any differences between teacher and student perception of transfer errors that might inform teaching practices?

Teachers and students both tended to perceive leaving out the verb be as the gravest error, but rated the other seven categories quite differently. In fact, only SG/PL was rated to within 0.5...
between teachers and students, at 4.5 and 4.8, respectively. The most striking difference was how students rated spelling errors involving consonants as much graver than did teachers (3.4 vs. 5.5).

There were, however, several interesting parallels between ratings by Arab teachers and students. In the first place, they both rated leaving out the verb *be* at 2.9. They also tended to perceive spelling errors involving consonants as graver than did South Asian and Western teachers. This might stem from the fact that Arabic utilizes an abjad in which short vowels are not normally written and consonants carry a much greater functional load than in they do in English.

As a follow-up, it was decided to have the Arab teachers also rate the Arabic c-texts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error gravity</th>
<th>English c-texts</th>
<th>Arabic c-texts</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>COP, GEN (2.9)</td>
<td>COP (1.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>GEN (3.1)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>COP, GEN (2.9)</td>
<td>COP (2.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>ART (4.8)</td>
<td>C (3.4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>ART (4.0)</td>
<td>GEN (4.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>ART (4.4)</td>
<td>GEN (4.5)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>ART (5.2)</td>
<td>CAP (5.9)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>CAP (5.9)</td>
<td>CONJ (5.9)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 7. Error gravity, Arab teachers and students*

Four categories differed between the English and Arabic c-texts for the Arab teachers. In the first place, they tended to perceive leaving out the verb *be* much more categorically as the gravest error in the Arabic c-texts, at 1.4. Leaving out articles was also rated as graver, as was uncapsulation, which, while not particularly grave at 5.9, was more than a full place graver than teacher ratings in the English c-texts. The biggest difference, however, was the rating of CONJ, which dropped a full three places from 3.9 to 6.9 between the English and Arabic c-texts. It is interesting that the Arab teachers tended not to perceive spelling errors involving consonants as graver in Arabic, rating them as less grave in the Arabic c-texts, at 4.4, than in the English c-texts, where they were rated at 4.1.

The Arab teachers and students, meanwhile, differed by more than 0.5 in their ratings of every single category in the Arabic c-texts. The only commonality, in fact, was that the misuse of conjunctions was rated as the least grave error (albeit in the students’ case not by much). The upshot is that the Arab teachers and students tended to perceive errors quite differently, even in their shared first language, a finding that corroborates with Sweedler-Brown’s regarding teachers and non-teachers.

That said, translation, and the translation of errors in particular, is a tricky business, more art than science, and there was, as noted above, room to approach any or all of the Arabic c-texts differently. For instance, one Arab teacher called into question the use of numbers, pointing out
that they are typically written out in Arabic, and visually jarring when they are not. (The decision not to write them out was deliberate. The rules governing number-noun agreement in Arabic are rather labyrinthine, and the worry was that writing them out might focus students away from the real errors.) His ratings reflected this perception. He rated the Arabic c-text translated as *There are 35 kinds cheese as a 2, with its pair for the category GEN (which did not have a number) as a 6. For the category SG/PL, he rated *6 country as a 1 and *12 brother as a 3. His perception, however, was shared by neither the other Arab teachers, who rated the two SG/PL c-texts at 4.7, nor the students, who rated them at 4.8. It appears, then, that he was unique in focusing away from the real error (the misuse of singular and plural nouns) and that the use of numbers in the Arabic c-texts did not significantly skew their perception by either Arab teachers or students.

**Conclusion**

The first question asked by this study was how teachers perceive different categories of transfer errors in English. The broad conclusion is that they tend to perceive grammatical errors as graver than mechanical or lexical errors. A notable exception is that Arab teachers tend to perceive spelling errors involving consonants as graver than do South Asian or Western teachers.

The second question was how students perceive equivalent or near-equivalent categories in Arabic. For the most part, students tend to perceive leaving out the verb *be as the gravest error, followed by spelling errors involving consonants. Aside from these two categories, there is little that can be concluded from student ratings.

The third and most practical question was whether there are any differences between the two perceptions that might inform teaching practices. While students do tend to perceive leaving out the verb *be as the gravest error, it was rated as less grave vis-à-vis teachers, and it might be constructive to point out this fact to them. It might also be pointed out to them that while they tend to perceive spelling errors involving consonants as the second-gravest category of error, teachers perceive it as less grave and place more gravity on grammatical errors.

More broadly, teachers and students might benefit from a better understanding of both their own tendencies in perceiving errors and those of the other party in the learning process. For teachers, this means focusing more on helping students to improve in areas in which errors tend to be perceived as graver (without, of course, trivializing less grave errors). For students, this means coming to the particular kind of clarity afforded by a frame of reference whereby they hear their own voices as they really are—or, at least, as they are perceived by English speakers.

Areas for further study involving error gravity in English and Arabic might include any of the categories in this study to better understand, for instance, the role of prominence in uncapitalization, or different spelling errors—particularly those involving vowels. Most dialects of Arabic have a scant five phonemically distinct vowels by quality, and three letters for spelling them. Meanwhile, most Englishes have at least a dozen, and any number of ways to spell them. The vowel /u/’, for instance, can be spelled twenty-one different ways.

This study is the first step toward a cross-linguistic theory of comparative error gravity. It has utilized what is a very rudimentary approach to translating c-texts from English to Arabic, that of
functional equivalence. A full-fledged theory for moving between languages for the purpose of studying error gravity would be a welcome second step, at which point this study could be adapted to study transfer errors in other languages.

About the Author:
Nathaniel Lotze is a lecturer of English at Dhofar University, Oman. His research interests include English language teaching and Semitic linguistics. Orcid ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0667-9195

References


**Appendix A**

Arabic texts

**Mandatory**

**1** مجموة

هناك 6 دولة في مجلس التعاون الخليجي.

كرات جزءاً من الكتاب.

الرجم طويل.

أنا سوار السماك.

ذهب إلى لندن, باريس, مدريد, نير بوروك, و.ERROR الوسم.

المستشفى بعيد.

على سوف هذا عددًا.

**Mandatory**

**2** مجموة

الجبر مشصم.

إذا من حرام.

لم أحمد في البيت أمس.

مكونات الكبسة هي الأرز, اللحم, والخضار.

إذا طالب في جمعة طفارة.

لأجل 12 إخوان.

هل تحب موز؟

هناك 35 نوعًا للحبن.
Appendix B
Construction approach

1. Singular and plural nouns (SG/PL)

The approach to the construction of the English and Arabic c-texts for this category is provided in the Results section.

2. The verb be (COP)

Dropping the verb be in English is a developmental error for children, a colloquialism, headlinese, and a characteristic of certain Englishes. It rarely introduces ambiguity in meaning, nor is it a common English-to-Arabic transfer error. In Arabic, the verb be is dropped in most contexts, and it was difficult to construct c-texts in which it was both used and droppable without introducing ambiguity in either meaning or error category. Two particles that mark the future and negative past tenses and require the verb be were used. The resulting errors were formally equivalent to those in the English c-texts.

3. Noun phrases with of (GEN)

In Arabic, most noun phrases like the history of Japan and the capital of France have no preposition; however, for certain noun phrase heads (including part and kind), a preposition meaning “of” or “from” is required. Dropping the preposition in the Arabic c-texts was not a transfer error but a hypercorrection, and the errors in the English and Arabic c-texts were formally equivalent and functionally near-equivalent.

4. Articles (ART)

The zero article marks indefinite nouns in Arabic, and dropping a or an is a common transfer error. With no indefinite article to drop in the Arabic c-texts, the definite article (which is required for general nouns like knowledge and bananas) was dropped as a functionally equivalent English-to-Arabic transfer error.

5. Capital letters (CAP)

Errors in capitalization are less clear-cut as to whether they are transfer or developmental. It is tempting to say that for a language like Arabic, which does not use a Latin-based alphabet and has no formal equivalent of capital letters, there is nothing to transfer and capital letters are merely a built-in difficulty of English, like irregular verbs. Yet it is plainly a transfer error when a Dutch speaker forgets to capitalize I or Tuesday because ik and dinsdag are not, and we might just as well say that, more than a word here or there, the entire vocabulary of Arabic is uncapitalized, and that uncapitalization blanket transfers to the sentence case of English.

The difficulty for this study was how to represent capital letters in the Arabic c-texts. Forms were used as a workaround. Arabic letters have up to four different forms depending on their position in a word. Incorrect forms were used in the words the man and Oman. The resulting errors were formally near-equivalent to those in the English c-texts.

Hitherto, I have avoided defining the terms developmental error and transfer error except broadly. This was deliberate. If there is very little consensus on error gravity, there is even less on
its typology. The goal of this study is not to define terms but to sensitize teachers and students to problem, and it seems counterproductive to that goal to rule out a common category of error merely because it is less clear-cut as to whether it is transfer or developmental. That said, I have described the errors in the Arabic c-texts as near-equivalent formally, but not functionally (i.e., as non-transfer errors). It might be argued that because English letters have only one lowercase form, errors in writing multi-form Arabic letters are, like uncapitalization, an example of blanket transfer from English to Arabic. This argument, however, does not stand up to scrutiny. Developmental errors are one-off. A form like *ate, for instance, might be lost to attrition, but once learned it is not prone to errors resulting from first language transfer. This is precisely what we see when English speakers are learning to write Arabic. They might butcher Arabic spelling, but they rarely, if ever, use incorrect forms of Arabic letters (Brosh, 2015), and the learning process entails nothing like the recurring difficulty that Arabic-speaking students have with uncapitalization. As such, the errors in the Arabic c-texts cannot be called functionally equivalent, or even near-equivalent.

6. Conjunctions (CONJ)

In lists, commas and the conjunction *and function in the same way between English and Arabic. Swapping them is a transfer error in both directions and functionally equivalent.

7. Spelling with vowels (V)

As noted above, spelling presents special difficulties for Arabic-speaking students. In this study, two common categories of misspelling were included in the English c-texts: using an incorrect vowel and dropping a vowel. Constructing equivalent Arabic c-texts was surprisingly difficult because vowels function quite differently in the two languages. In words longer than *bag, English is fairly forgiving when it comes to misspelling, and it is not difficult to see what is meant by *important and *beautiful, even out of context. In Arabic, however, short vowels are not normally written, and misspelling the long ones can produce an entirely different word.

In the first Arabic c-text, the long vowel in *hospital was changed from /a/ to /i/ by adding two dots. Like the misspelling in *important, the change was visually small and the meaning of the c-text clear. In the second, the long vowel in *University was dropped. The resulting word means “Friday,” but what is meant is still clear from context. The errors were functionally equivalent to those in the English c-texts.

8. Spelling with consonants (C)

Arabic does not distinguish between /b/ and /p/. The misspelling blay is a transfer error and jop a hypercorrection. English speakers, meanwhile, often have trouble with /s/ and the pharyngeal /sˤ/ in Arabic. The letter representing /s/ was transferred to *fisherman in the first Arabic c-text and hypercorrected to the pharyngeal in the second, making the English and Arabic c-texts functionally equivalent.
Towards an Analytical Model in Critical Pragmatics

Fareed Hameed Al-Hindawi
Department of English, College of Education for Human Sciences
University of Babylon, Babel, Iraq

Wafaa Sahib Mehdi Mohammed
Department of English, College of Languages
University of Baghdad, Baghdad, Iraq

Abstract
Aspects like power, dominance or ideology affect our choice of words in addition to other contextual factors (such as settings, participants and so on). The power we enjoy as social actors or the ideology we adhere to concerning any issue in life may play a crucial role in our language production or interpretation. Issuing a certain speech act rather than another or producing one impolite form rather than a polite one owning to such aspects falls within the realm of critical pragmatics. It is one analytical methodology where critical issues are examined in terms of the pragmatic phenomena to explore how the latter aid in the manifestation of the former. It attempts to answer this question: what are the most common pragmatic phenomena that reveal how racists or sexists pass on their critical ideologies? It aims to develop an analytical model for critical pragmatics and identify the common pragmatic themes utilized. The study is qualitative. It confines itself to the political discourse in the American context. The analysis of the data proves the workability of the model that has been developed by the study. It also shows that various pragmatic phenomena can be utilized to unravel critical issues.

Key words: critical pragmatics, pragmatics, racism, sexism

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1. Introduction

Since Morris’ definition of pragmatics as the study of the relation between signs and their users (1938), pragmatics has been one of the earliest paradigms that links language to context; it considers language use as an action. As such, it easily lends itself to the critical and social constructivist approaches to discourse studies. Critical pragmatics (CPs) alludes to lending a critical eye to the pragmatic theories and how they are activated in examining critical issues. It differs from pragmatics proper in that language abuse is scrutinized rather than ordinary language use. If pragmatists are concerned with, say, the categorization of speech acts, felicity conditions, the way of using them appropriately and correctly in social settings, critical pragmatists aim to increase the independence and freedom of language users by making them aware of the linguistic conditions of power exercising in societies and institutions.

Relations of inequality and domination are typically seen as illegitimate. Focusing on such perspectives is the inherent meaning of criticality. Since language is one of the “social practices through which people enact relations of domination and subordination” (Cameron, 2001, p. 161), it is not surprising that power and how it is enacted in language is subject to investigation. Thus, inherent to any kind of critical study is the concepts of power and ideology. Critical discourse studies are defined as critical approaches to discourses such as critical linguistics, feminist linguistics, critical discourse analysis, critical stylistics, and so on (Polyzoa, 2018). Hence, CPs is one such an approach that focuses on how the pragmatic issues are exploited in critical language use. Its basic pillars are specifying a stance and presenting a critique.

2. Previous Attempts in CPs

Mey (2001, p. 320) argues that it is important to critically examine how language functions in society to understand its various uses and manifestations. Language use is inherently a combination of linguistic variations and sociological parameters. As a social science, pragmatics needs to help us recognize social injustice or discrimination to work to end it (p. 321). It is vital to notice that social aspects in pragmatics concern our language use and the authority we form out of our words. Thus, we may delve into examining language use in society to have a critical eye on certain states of affairs like discrimination, injustice or rudeness, among others. This is how Mey (2001) introduces his concept of CPs which represents a pioneering attempt to ignite the eclecticism between criticality and pragmatics in language production and interpretation. He builds his insights on Fairclough’s Lancaster School of critical language awareness (p. 316). The term critical is associated with assigning power to groups in society whether on the level of production or interpretation (Fairclough, 1989). In this regard, we may produce or construe a piece of discourse in a powerless or a powerful way.

Korta and Perry (2011, p. 93) introduce their view of CPs to portray a picture of how parts of the language are used to materialize human thoughts and actions because it critically tries to probe into how human beings use language so as to shape and influence the realities of the community to which they belong. This means that people may intentionally use their language to impose or reveal their power or higher status. The co-authors advocate a focus on intention discovery because “speaking is an intentional activity and understanding involves intention discovery” (Korta and Perry, 2011, p. 2), at a first place. They aver that intentions are part of plans as “plans do not occur on their own, but with beliefs” (p. 4). Plans are cognitively originated and fostered.
Korta and Perry (2013, p. 161) subsume that understanding any utterance is a process of grasping the speaker’s communicative intention even by inference or recognition of the illocutionary force of that utterance. Utterances are inherently of different levels. In assigning contents, one needs to consider “what the rest of the world has to be like for the utterance to occur and be true” (p. 162). The meaning of words provides one level of content. Other levels are further added by other facts related to the utterance such as the speaker, addressee, place, time and communicative intentions of the speaker.

2.1 The Current Perspective of CPs

Mey (1989) claims that “there is a pragmatic aspect to all linguistic phenomena” (p. 829); pragmatics “should get itself involved in improving the human environment” (p. 830). Mey (2001) argues that pragmatists “need to integrate their practical endeavors toward a better use of language with a theory of language use” (p. 289). For Korta and Perry (2011), language is action; meaning is derived from the speaker’s intentions (p. 2-4). They blame the mono-propositional concept that was believed to be adequate for the pragmatic meaning. Their basic purport is that CPs is a natural development of these insights that have never received their due attention from contemporary pragmatists (p. 158). Thus, a critical eye needs to be given to the pragmatic issues. One such an approach can be exemplified by intermingling these pragmatic issues into the critical examination of language use.

Archer et al. (2012, p. 41) aver that empirical studies take the interactional aspect of language and the role of receivers into consideration. To activate these arguments, critical approaches to discourse can provide such a widening of scope. CPs is one kind of critical studies which is concerned with shedding light on discourse just like critical linguistics or critical stylistics. This is how Polyzou (2018) differentiates between critical discourse analysis and critical studies on discourse. He expounds that “critical discourse studies would be more concerned with communication in a broader sense – we might consider communication successful for one participant only if that participant has met her goals regardless of or even at the expense of another” (p. 196). As cognitive principles, the pragmatic norms of Grice’s Maxims or Austin’s Conditions are narrow for critical discourse analysts. The maxims can be flouted to generate irony or humor and our interlocutors would grasp our intention. Thus, the analysis needs to be enriched by looking at a broader context (p. 196).

Archer et al. (2012) hold that pragmatics is after “what is unsaid/unwritten yet communicated” (p. 291). The explicit theorization of what is ‘not said’ in pragmatics hints to more than the context. This counters the idea that critical linguists ‘read into’ texts ideologies that are not stated explicitly (p. 291). According to LoCastro (2012, p. 6), an inclusive perspective of pragmatic analysis should encompass aspects like the intended meaning of the speaker, the perceived meaning, the purpose of the talk, social and cultural contexts, the distance between interlocutors, non-verbal elements, among others. All these go beyond the scope of linguistic pragmatics which looks for the linguistic forms used by a speaker.

An approach to criticality entails that a stance is to be embraced concerning the critical issue at hand. As far as racism is concerned, an anti-racist stance is adopted to show how utterances may convey racism. The same applies to sexism. Specifying such a stance entails unraveling how the
critical issue is analyzed and discussed to lay it open in front of receivers and making them aware of the undesired racist or sexist implications in language. This is a critique process. To think of putting the racist utterance in another form raising racism from its meaning, is a process of reproduction.

To sum up, bringing glimpses and borrowing ideas from previous approaches to pragmatics and criticality and their interrelatedness, this research paper adopts the CPs as an analytical method to probe into discourses looking for the manifestations of critical ideologies that are imparted via pragmatic theories. This paper concerns itself with racism and sexism as critical issues in social communication by adhering to an anti-racist/anti-sexist stance. It explicates such instances in a critique endeavor to put the illegitimate points unveiled to receivers making them aware of them. A proposed reproduced form might be suggested to minimize the racist or sexist aspects in alignment with the political correctness attempt which is the “excessive concern with the replacement of problematic words with the correct term” (Mills, 2008, p. 100).

3. Basic Concepts in CPs

Key concepts in all critical studies are ideology and power. Incorporating these issues in the pragmatic work is the goal of CPs. These two issues are not alienated from the pragmatic frameworks, yet they are not given their due attention there. Ideology is a cognitively-related concept that is associated with language production and interpretation. The theory of ideology can be traced philosophically or sociologically, but most importantly socio-cognitively as the latter approach relates ideology to discourse: how “ideologies articulate themselves at the level of discourse meaning” (van Dijk, 1995, p. 244). According to Verschueren (1999, p. 238), the constellation of commonsensical, fundamental, and usually normative, ideas and beliefs that are related to certain aspects of social reality is termed as ideology. It is “associated with underlying patterns of meaning, frames of interpretation, worldviews or forms of everyday thinking and explanation” (Verschueren, 2013, p. 7). The most salient “manifestation of ideology is language use or discourse which may reflect, construct and/or maintain ideological patterns” (p. 17).

Power, on the other hand, has been discussed as one of the sociological variables along with distance and rank of imposition in the theory of politeness (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 79). Power is a value assigned to the individuals or their roles in a particular context (p. 83). Following Archer et al. (2012, p. 133), pragmatic investigations of power are the basic constituent of CPs. Courtroom talk, police interaction, political interviews, doctor-patient interactions and talk in the workplace are instances where power emerges as an effective element which might be violated. This study attempts to hinge upon political debates as another proposed genre of investigation in terms of CPs.

4. Pragmatic Works and Critical Issues

In (2004), Chilton worked on the pragmatic concepts of implicature and presupposition in the analysis of political discourse. Wodak (2007) studied how the pragmatic devices related to rhetoric such as allusions or puns are utilized in terms of their functions to convey anti-Semitic prejudices in political speeches. Both scholars maintain, however, that the pragmatic aspects can be one level in the critical analysis of discourse. This research paper argues that other pragmatic phenomena can be incorporated into the critical orientation in analyzing language use. Such phenomena may
play a role in underpinning the ideological perspectives. Put conspicuously, these pragmatic aspects are used as strategies to convey a certain critical state of affairs such as racism or sexism.

4.1 Racism

The notion of racism is basically related to that of race. Wren (2001) holds that race designates a “pseudo-scientific division of all humans into distinct categories based on skin color” (p. 142). The race is based on “inherent inferiority of particular racial groups” (p. 142). For Hill (2008, p. 6), it is a basic category of human biological variation. To Garner (2010, p. 5), racism is a social relationship and this essentializes an imbalance of power realized by various accesses to resources.

Essed (1991, p. 39) conceives racism as an ideological construction where a relationship of power is sustained in a systemic process of domination exercised by one group over another. For Guillaumin (1995), “racism is a symbolic system operating inside the system of power relations of a particular type of society” (p. 30). It is fostered by the concept of differences. Racism is used loosely and unreflectively to describe all the negative hostile feelings of one group toward another and the actions emerging from such attitudes (Fredrickson, 2002). It is not only about human differences or bad thinking of one group against another with no control, but also it proposes and sustains a hierarchy of order which is believed to be a natural law (p. 6).

Two manifestations of racism can be scrutinized: overt and covert (Teo, 2000, p. 8). The overt is exemplified by the use of racial slurs, epithets or jokes. The word nigger is a slur that stigmatizes an African American person in American society. The covert form is disguised in subtleness and it can be resolved via the pragmatic aspects.

4.2 Sexism

To discriminate is to make a difference in treatment on a categorical basis (Graumann and Wintermantel, 1989, p. 183). Discrimination is a phenomenon of exclusion. In this regard, Wodak (2009, p. 315) stipulates that gender-differentiation is one form of discrimination. Women have always been subject to marginalization and segregation. Sexism is a product of the dominant patriarchal ideologies where males are superior to females in the social hierarchy. Recent studies view gender as “another manifestation of social diversity” (LoCastro, 2012, p. 216).

Two kinds of sexism in language are distinguished: overt and covert. The overt is “the type of usage which can be straightforwardly identified through the use of linguistic markers” (Mill, 2008, p. 11) such as the use of the generic ‘he’ or words as ‘actor’ and ‘actress’. The covert kind of sexism, on the other hand, is embedded in language and it is unraveled by means of implicature, presupposition and so on. These aspects fall within the domain of pragmatics. This means that other pragmatic aspects can be operationalized to detect sexism (or racism) in language. It is worthy to mention, however, that overt racism as well as overt sexism are out of the realm of this study and the main concern focuses on the covert kinds of both.

5. Pragmatic Issues

Due to space limitation, speech acts (SAs), reference, strategic maneuvering (SM) and implicature in addition to their strategies are chosen as the pragmatic phenomena to understand how critical issues are conveyed via language.
5.1 Speech Acts (SAs)

The engagement in any communicative encounter entails the use of various SAs. The essence of Austin’s (1962, p. 101) theory of SAs is that saying is doing. A racist or sexist speech is a form of offensive speech which has an illocution. Offending or hurting the feelings of hearers is its perlocutionary act. Searle (1969, p. 54) explains four felicity conditions for the successful execution of an illocution: propositional, preparatory, sincerity and essential conditions. A classification of five macro categories of SAs has been introduced (Searle, 1976, pp. 17-20) where each one hosts some other micro-acts distinguished from each other by their own felicity conditions. The five macro ones are: commissives (the speaker is committed to doing something as in promising), declarations (the speaker’s utterance causes an external change like declaring a war), directives (the speaker gets people to do something such as requesting), expressives (the speaker expresses his feelings and attitudes like criticizing) and representatives or assertives (the speaker informs others about the truth as in affirming).

To ridicule, pose a threat, accuse or belittle a person due to the racial origin, sexist differentiation or even religious practices or political beliefs is to issue such acts. Directive acts as commands and orders, for instance, are used by the powerful to tell others to do or not to do something (van Dijk, 1993, p. 100). The prevalence of such acts in discourse hints to authority and power of speakers. Skinner (2008, p. 647) expounds that SAs need to be understood in relation to the circumstances in which they are issued. Racist accusations uttered about people from various backgrounds are understood as such in their own contexts (Reyes, 2011, p. 464).

5.2 Reference

Reference is a wide research topic with fuzzy borders where the meaning is relative to a specific situation (Crystal, 2003, p. 231). It occurs when a speaker intends to impart a piece of information about a particular object with a certain property or relation. It houses proper names, definite descriptions, demonstratives, pronouns, indexicality or deixis (Korta and Perry, 2011). Deixis is the study of deictic expressions in language (Levinson, 2007, p. 100). Deixis falls into distinct semantic fields: personal (you, me), spatial (here, there), temporal (now, then), social (Mr., his highness), etc. The latter is best interpreted in terms of familiarity and respect. In social contexts where the status of interlocutors, their age and their power are recognized, such uses have specific denotations (Yule, 1996, p. 11).

In portraying the positive-self and the negative-other representation in revealing racism (van Dijk, 2004, p. 44), referencing has a notable role (Wodak, 2009). To call someone by his first name or to refer to someone by a specific attribute is to show ideology in terms of one’s projective angle. This can be best clarified by the pragmatic investigation. Interest in referencing as far as the pragmatic study is concerned lies in its psychological reference. Physically close objects are projected as psychologically close and the opposite is true. A speaker, however, may wish to represent a physically close object as psychologically distant due to ideological motivations. Out of a racist motivation, one may say ‘that person’ to denote remoteness pointing to a person who is standing in front of his eyes, present in time and space.
5.3 Strategic Maneuvering (SM)

People usually maneuver so as to capture their goals, win the assent of interlocutors or be persuasive. To maneuver is to manipulate situations or events in order to gain some ends with a skill or cunning way (Web Source 1). The mere act of expressing an ideology or let it pass through words is a gain by itself. The pragmatic dimension in this theory is linked with the descriptive insights from the theory of SAs, Grice’s philosophy of language and discourse studies (Goodnight, 2009, p. 77). The dialectical dimension, on the other hand, is inspired by the reasonableness of arguers. Then the rhetorical aspect (exemplified by the presentational devices) has been noticed as effective, if incorporated in the dialectical efforts (Eemeren et al., 2012, p. 38).

SM is an amalgamation of reasonableness and effectiveness. Reasonableness is “using reason in a way that is appropriate in view of the situation concerned”, as Eemeren (2010, p. 29) observes. Thus, it is a context-specific concept. Effectiveness is associated with rhetoric which, in turn, has to do with the persuasive techniques (p. 39). Classic rhetorical devices such as metaphor, hyperbole, pun and so on are effective presentational devices in argumentation.

Eemeren and Houtlosser (2002) observe three basic aspects in the analysis of SM: topical potential, audience demands and presentational devices (p. 135). To maneuver is to highlight one of the three aspects more than the others (Eemeren and Houtlosser, 2009, p. 6). Each aspect has its own realization. The first dimension of topical potential involves selecting materials from those available in terms of what is believed to be the best to serve the advantages of a speaker (Tindale, 1999, p. 43). Arguers choose topics from a list of topics available at their disposal that best advance their interests as they discuss and present them. A racist, for instance, may resort to topics like how immigrants are burdens for the country (by taking jobs or destroying infrastructures).

Audience demand is to lead the moves in speech “in such a way that they are expected to be optimally acceptable to the other party in view of that party’s views and preferences” (Eemeren and Houtlosser, 2002, p. 136). Adherence to audience demand, can be represented by claiming common grounds with hearers as belonging to some group of people who share specific wants, needs or goals, intensifying interest in hearer’s wants and desires (Brown and Levinson, 1987, p. 117). These two aspects are utilized in this work. Presentational devices are subsumed under the rhetorical dimension resulted from Grice’ work and his maxims.

The classical presentational devices relate to the “phrasing of the moves a party makes” (Rees and Rigotti, 2011, p. 207) and the style of presentation. Their function lies in the fact that “they present something in a certain light” (p. 207) and project the situation in a particular way so as to appropriately fit the aims of the speaker. The use of euphemisms or hyperboles to emphasize or deemphasize meanings or the use of metaphors to describe the ‘invasion’ of immigrants are usually noticed in racist discourses (van Dijk, 2012, p. 26).

5.4 Implicature

Grice’s (1975) Cooperative Principle signals some basic assumptions concerning the nature of any conversation where interlocutors are expected to adhere to quantity, quality, relevance and manner maxims in their contribution. By flouting such maxims, figurative uses of language result such as metaphors, hyperboles and so on. A metaphor is an example of flouting the maxim of
quality; a hyperbole results from flouting the maxim of quantity (Grice, 1989, p. 34). An implicature is an additionally-conveyed meaning (Yule, 1996, p. 35). These are conversational implicatures as they are derived due to the violation of the aforementioned maxims. If the implicature is derived from the conventional meaning of the word, it is called conventional implicature or explicature (Horn, 2007: p.19).

In addition to the four maxims, there are other sorts of social, moral or aesthetic maxims that generate nonconventional implicatures such as ‘Be polite’ (Grice, 1989, p. 28). This means that all impolite utterances observed in interactional exchanges are instances of nonconventional implicatures because by not adhering to politeness strategies the speaker implicates that he shows impoliteness whether intentionally or not.

6. The Model of Analysis

The model of analysis developed by this paper is based on the pragmatic issues discussed in the previous sections. The analytical framework is basically divided into four basic components: SAs, reference, SM and maxim breaching. This last strategy yields implicature. These pragmatic phenomena are utilized as strategies. SAs invite the macro acts of Searle’s (1979) categorization into the scene. Reference, following Korta and Perry (2011), is concerned with the deictic expressions, definite descriptions and proper nouns. SM, as Eemeren and Houtlosser (2002) expound, focuses on topical potentials and audience demands. Implicature is conversational, conventional and nonconventional. Conversational implicature yields some tropes like metaphor, hyperbole or the like (Grice, 1975). It is worthy to mention that all the examples that are observed as racist or sexist are characterized with the non-conventional implicature since being racist or sexist is an impolite act because it inherently designates discriminatory behaviors and thoughts as well as prejudice against others due to inappropriate conceptions. Thus, the eclectic model of analysis is engineered in Figure 1 as follows:

![Figure 1. An analytical framework for critical pragmatics](image-url)
7. Data and Analysis

7.1 Data Collection and Description

The data under scrutiny are extracts taken from a transcribed version of the third presidential debate of D. Trump and H. Clinton in 2016 (Web Source 2). The choice of this debate is due to the fact that it represents the American context. Since it is between a man and a woman candidate, sexist instances are looked for. Four excerpts, where instances of racism and sexism manifest themselves, are selected. The unit of analysis is the utterance. The most relevant contextual factors of the data are summarized in Table 1, following Hymes’ (1974) grid of SPEAKING (p. 55).

Table 1. The contextual factors of the data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contextual Factors</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Setting</td>
<td>Las Vegas, Oct. 20, 2016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| Participants       | Speaker: Trump  
                              Addressee: Clinton |
| End                | Elections |
| Instrumentalities  | Spoken |
| Genre              | Presidential debate |

7.2 Analysis

The eclectic model developed by this study and represented by Figure 1 is the basic apparatus for analyzing the data of this work. Four illustrative examples, two for racism and two for sexism, are introduced.

7.2.1 Racist Exemplifications

Excerpt 1
“Trump: Just to finish on the borders, she wants open borders. People are going to pour into our country. People are going to come in from Syria. She wants 55% more people than Barack Obama. And he has thousands and thousands of people. They have no idea where they come from. And you see, we are going to stop radical Islamic terrorism in this country”.

Trump’s racism against immigrants (the Syrians) manifests itself via his words. Those different Others (immigrants) are not welcomed by Trump because they cause fear to America as potential terrorists. The image coincides with the positive-us/negative-them dichotomy. He associates the Syrians in the States with terrorism, which has become associated with Islam. There is a sense of accusing all Syrians of being terrorists. His racism is also shown by utilizing SM. This is activated by the potential topical aspect where an urgent theme has been chosen by Trump (immigration) to be related to (terrorism). Referencing to the Syrians (using the proper noun) clarifies this racist ideology.

The word ‘pour’ in this extract is a metaphor. It represents the image of refugees and immigrants pouring like unstoppable water in the sense that it is difficult to contain or control them as with liquids; this image conveys a notion of danger, threat and urgency of action. Moreover, water lacks shape and color and those people are given similar attributive qualities. In the Gricean paradigm, metaphors are generated by flouting the quality maxim (Grice, 1989, p. 34). The hearer has been misled by additional information making the speaker as uncooperative. According to (Holmgreen, 2006, p. 96), metaphors are ideal instruments for maintaining powerful positions. The
word ‘border’ is associated with the wall Trump wants to build, a recurrent theme in his speech denoting the idea of isolation and power. It hints to a racist tendency.

**Excerpt 2**

“Trump: I will do more for African-Americans and Latinos than she can do for ten lifetimes. All she's done is talk to the African-Americans and to the Latinos, but they get the vote and then they come back, they say ‘we’ll see you in four years’.”

Trump claims that he will help and do more for African-Americans and Latinos in America. Those groups are minorities. He hints to his superior status over such weak jobless people emphasizing the negative-them/ positive-us dichotomy. He views himself as better and superior to Clinton (alluding to sexism) promising to help those people who are conceived as inferior and helpless in American society. His racism is manifested by the commissive SA of promising (See Searle, 1969, p. 54 for the felicity conditions of promising), although this promise can be but a lie. He uses definite descriptions as a referencing strategy. “African-American” refers to a minority group in America who descends from a black racial group from Africa (Web Source 3). The word “Latino”, on the other hand, refers to a person of “Dominican, Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, South or Central American, and other Spanish origin or culture” (Web Source 4). It is a minority group that suffers from the lack of job opportunities. The utterance alludes to a prototypical belief that those people are lazy; therefore, they are left unemployed. His words remind those people of their negative image: helpless, jobless or vulnerable.

**7.2.2 Sexist Exemplifications**

**Excerpt 3**

“Clinton: That's part of my commitment to raise taxes on the wealthy. My Social Security payroll contribution will go up as will Donald's assuming he can't figure out how to get out of it, but what we want to do is --

Trump: Such a nasty woman”.

The moderator discusses the Medicare and Social Security programs in America as they need to be saved and put in effect. Trump intends to cut taxes, when he is elected, whereas Clinton wants to put more money into the Social Security program by raising taxes on the wealthy. He rejects her idea and calls her ‘nasty’. Calling a woman as ‘nasty’ is a pejorative act that is not suitable for women who like to be respected and appreciated especially in public. This negative word means evilness and wickedness. Trump’s utterance counts as an expressive SA of insulting. Women are sensitive creatures who can be injured easily.

The utterance exploits SM by touching upon audience demands. By cutting taxes, Trump shows interest in some of his audience’s needs. According to Haney-Lopez (2014, p. 54), the phrase ‘cut tax’ is a code word that politicians deploy as veiled racial appeals to persuade white voters to support their favorite policies. This word conveys a message to the middle-class people in the United States that your money is not going to be spent and wasted on the minorities. Thus, this utterance bears a racist hint, as well.

**Excerpt 4**
“Trump: We have a country with tremendous numbers of nuclear warheads, 1,800, by the way. Where they expanded and we didn’t. 1,800 nuclear warheads. And she is playing chicken. Look. Clinton: Wait. Trump: Putin from everything I see has no respect for this person.

The sexist ideology of Trump appears when he refers to Clinton saying: ‘this person’. This is a demonstrative pronoun, a referencing strategy, that is exploited to belittle Clinton. It is an expressive SA that regards or portrays someone or something as less impressive or important than reality. Instead of referring to her as a candidate or call her by personal name, he uses this phrase. Regardless of the fact that this is a debate between two rival candidates where each one tries to win the votes of viewers, Trump directly attacks Clinton and calls her names and disrespects her publically out of his sexist ideology. He says that she is ‘playing chicken’ which means that she is playing a dangerous game just to show who is the bravest (Web Source 5). This is a metaphoric use of language. His utterance counts as a SA of criticizing. Trump criticizes Clinton of indifference in the hard times the country is passing through. He criticizes her policies and political visions. This implies that he sees himself as better than her due to his sexism.

The qualitative analysis shows that focus on the pragmatic phenomena can help manifest racism or sexism in language. These phenomena, in turn, are the pragmatic strategies utilized to impart such ideologies. For example, different SAs (such as accusing or insulting, etc.) are utilized to reveal these ideologies. The referencing strategies of resorting to proper nouns or definite descriptions are utilized as well. Table 2 below demonstrates a summery for the analyses of the four instances scrutinized above.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ex.</th>
<th>Critical ideology</th>
<th>SAs</th>
<th>Reference</th>
<th>SM</th>
<th>Implicature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Racism</td>
<td>Accuse</td>
<td>Proper nouns</td>
<td>Topical potential</td>
<td>1.Conversational (Metaphor) 2.Non-conventional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Racism</td>
<td>Promise</td>
<td>Definite description</td>
<td>Audience demands</td>
<td>Non-conventional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Sexism</td>
<td>Insult</td>
<td>Definite description</td>
<td>Audience demands</td>
<td>Non-conventional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Sexism</td>
<td>Belittle Criticize</td>
<td>Definite description</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>1.Conversational (Metaphor) 2. Non-conventional</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Conclusion**

According to the above analysis, the following conclusions are derived:

1. The analysis of the data under investigation proves the workability of the model that has been developed to analyze a piece of discourse in terms of the critical pragmatic paradigm.
2. Since CPs is an analytical methodology that activates pragmatics in analyzing and understanding discourses, this approach is useful to probe into critical issues and how they are implemented via language. The aim is to unravel and oppose them. In this case, the social
functioning of language is highlighted and how such criticality may affect harmony in society is put under focus.

3. Different pragmatic phenomena can be discussed in the critical pragmatic approach to discourse. This includes pragma-linguistic, pragma-dialectic and pragma-rhetoric levels.

4. Under the critical pragmatic paradigm, it is recommended to follow the data-driven method in the analysis. Put conspicuously, the data that are characterized by a critical issue can be examined to find out how the pragmatic aspects help in imparting such a critical issue.

5. There is an overlapping between the racist and sexist ideologies in the minds of speakers. What seems to be as implicating racism implies sexism as well. This is so because both ideologies stem from the concept of discrimination, prejudice and superiority. One may even claim that sexism is one form of racism in the sense that sexism is a kind of prejudice against the other sex (usually women) fed by discrimination and the feelings of superiority.

6. Doing a critical pragmatic analysis requires vast background knowledge in terms of the detailed aspects of contexts, history, culture, cognition, societies among others as well as conscious pragmatic competence. Critical pragmatists need a pragmatic meta-level which enables them to make sense of discourse and the world and see behind the lines delving into speakers’ minds.

Endnotes:

About the authors:

Prof. Fareed Hameed Al-Hindawi holds Ph. D. in English Language and Linguistics. His M. sc. degree was from the University of Edinburgh, UK. He teaches B. A., M.A. and Ph.D. programs at the College of Education for Human Sciences, University of Babylon. He has published twelve books and more than fifty articles in national and international academic journals. He is interested in pragmatics, discourse studies and phonology. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2627-2146

Wafaa Sahib Mehdi Mohammed, University of Baghdad, College of Languages, Department of English. She holds a M. sc. degree in English language and linguistics. Her Ph. D. dissertation is concerned with critical pragmatics. The areas of interest are pragmatics, critical studies, stylistics and discourse analysis. She has published various papers, a book and co-authored some many other ones. ORCID ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5506-9529

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Towards an Analytical Model in Critical Pragmatics

3. https://www.google.iq/search?q=who+are+the+african+americang+who+are+the+african+americand&q=who+are+the+african+american&d=chrome..69i57j0l5.10802j0j7andsourc=chromeandie=UTF-8
4. https://www.google.iq/search?q=who+are+latinos&d=chrome..69i57.5383j0j7andsourc=chromeandie=UTF-8

i Kauffeld (1998, p. 252) sets the following felicity conditions of accusation, as cited in Andone (2013, p. 6):
1. Propositional content condition: predicts hearer’s responsibility for some state of affairs
2. Preparatory condition: the state of affairs is bad according to speaker.
3. Sincerity condition: speaker has knowledge of hearer’s behaviours.
4. Essential condition: producing the act counts as an attempt to set hearer accused and needs to response.

ii Following Meibauer (2016, p. 157), the expressive act of insulting has these felicity conditions:
1. Propositional content condition: what is to be expressed is any proposition or expressive meaning functioning as insulting.
2. Preparatory conditions: S does not need to have a particular motive for insulting hearers (henceforth H). S may have one, however.
4. Essential condition: counts as an undertaking to the effect that H feels insulted.

iii The belittling SA is an expressive act; it has the following felicity conditions:
1. Propositional content condition: a negative picture of H results.
2. Preparatory conditions: a. S holds that H is (or anything referring to him or any of his characteristics) not important in terms of previous premises in S’s mind or aim. b. S has power to impart such an unimportance about H to surface or S believes he can do so.
3. Sincerity conditions: a. S wants to show the unimportance in H (or anything related to H) due to personal desire or belief in S. b. It is beneficial for S to communicate that.
4. Essential condition: S wants to communicate H’s unimportance to others for a purpose or aim.
Gender Differences in Advice-giving among Jordanian Undergraduate Students at BAU

Yasser Al-Shboul
Department of English Language and literature
Al-Balqa’ Applied University
Al-Salt, Jordan

Adnan Abumahfouz
Department of English Language and literature
Al-Balqa’ Applied University
Al-Salt, Jordan

Abstract
This study aims to investigate the differences in the understanding of how to give advice among Jordanian male and female students at Al-Balqa’ Applied University (henceforth, BAU). In addition, it aims to provide explanations of these prominent differences between the two participating groups. Hinkel’s (1997) Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) is used as a data collection instrument. The questionnaire is translated into Arabic to ensure that participants truly comprehend the situations. Results demonstrate that there are differences between the two participating groups. For example, Jordanian male students favour to give advice indirectly more than using hedge advice, direct advice and opting out in both peer acquaintance and instructor situations. On the other hand, Jordanian female students prefer to use hedge advice in responding to both peer acquaintance and instructor situations more frequently than using direct advice, indirect advice and opting out. The present study concludes with a discussion of essential directions for future research.

Keywords: advice-giving, gender, Jordanians, MCQ, speech act

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Introduction

In many cultures, advice or singular a piece of advice undoubtedly refers to the good intention of the speaker trying to express what the addressee should do in a particular situation or what is good for him/her. It can be formal as a recommendation or informal as an opinion. Moreover, the advice is a very polite form of language communication. The advice also is a human trait that makes the social relations and communications move smoothly and become stronger. Giving advice is related to people who are superior, not in social or economic status, rather in their behaviour, experience and knowledge. Those are the ones who understand that helping others is just as good as helping themselves.

Although gender interacts with other social factors such as occupation, place of residence, education, income, racial or ethnic origin, cultural background, caste, religion, status, class, role of the speaker in an interaction, and formality of the contexts, there are cases in which gender is the main issue accounting for speech variation. There have been several pragmatic studies examining different speech acts including apology, request, and refusal. However, very little research has been conducted on the speech act of advice (Nydell, 1987; El-Sayed, 1990; Kuo, 1996; Hinkel, 1997; Al-Shboul, Maros, & Subakir, 2012; Al-Shboul & Zarei, 2013). As a result, a limited number of definitions were provided of what advice giving is. For instance, Searle (1969) indicates that the speaker believes that he/she will do a good deed to the hearer because both the speaker and the hearer are not sure that the act will be done by the hearer without advice being given. In addition, Brown and Levinson (1987) notice that the differences among cultures and the social factors like social status and distance between both speaker and hearer, gender, and politeness as being suitable in a certain culture result in different degrees to which advice is a face-threatening act.

To the researchers' best knowledge, there has been no study demonstrating gender differences in advice giving among Jordanian undergraduate students. Previous research on Jordanian advice giving (Al-Shboul et al., 2012) is investigated from a cross-cultural perspective where all of the learners are males since gender is not examined in this research as a variable. Thus, it seems to be valuable to investigate how Jordanian undergraduate students recognise the speech act of advice giving that would have a useful contribution to cross cultural and gender contrastive studies. To put it another way, the study presents gender as a basic variable to investigate the dissimilarities of the understanding of the advice speech act by Jordanian male and female students at BAU. The researchers aim to show how the speakers’ perception of advice giving can be influenced by gender.

Literature Review

The speech act of advice giving has not been explored thoroughly but in a limited number of studies (Nydell, 1987; El-Sayed, 1990; Kuo, 1996; Hinkel, 1997; Al-Shboul, Maros, & Subakir, 2012; Al-Shboul & Zarei, 2013). The following paragraphs highlight a brief overview of studies carried out on the speech act of advice in different linguistic and cultural speech communities.

Kuo (1996) examines gender and differences in advice giving and how gender can be an influential variable in terms of the happening of advice giving and its form and style. Results show differences between male and female speakers. For example, female speakers tend to offer advice
to listeners of the same sex by means of different linguistic forms such as sentences with model auxiliaries or hedge, and justifications with advice form to express advice. By contrast, only four imperative forms of advice either seriously or jokingly are expressed by male speakers in their conversations.

In another cross-cultural study, Hinkel (1997) investigates the differences in the production and perception of advice giving. A discourse completion test (DCT) designed by the researcher is used to collect the production data. In addition, a Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) is used to collect perception data from the participants. Forty Taiwanese Chinese and forty American native speakers of English participate in the study. The results of the study reveal that native speakers favour direct and hedged advice notably more than do non-native speakers when responding to DCT situations. However, the researcher argues that the DCTs may not necessary be an appropriate instrument for first language (L1) and second language (L2) data. In response to MCQ, however, NSs select significantly less option of direct or hedge advice than do NNSs, which is in accordance with the theoretical assumptions. Hence, the significance of this study appears of being the first of its kind to compare two data collection instruments (DCT and MCQ) in the framework of advice giving research.

In Iranian context, Al-Shboul and Zarei (2013) investigate the differences in capturing the suitability of giving advice in English among Iranian Persian English as a foreign language (EFL) male and female students. The researchers use Hinkel's (1997) Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) to collect data from the participants. The questionnaire includes number of questions where participants are required to give advice or to opt out to situations with a peer acquaintance (equal status) and an instructor (higher status). The findings of the study show that the two participating groups’ perceptions of social distance in the situations with peer acquaintance and instructor are different. In addition, the learners differ in the types of advice they use as the proper option. For example, male group tends to use indirect advice in both situations more than the other three options. On the other hand, female group prefers hedge advice more frequently than the other three options in both peer acquaintance and instructor situations.

In Arabic context, El-Sayed (1990) indicates that in Arabic culture the speech act of advice giving is seen as a matter of friendliness and also to a great extent carries kindness and care. Moreover, Nydell (1987) notes that what is accepted in one culture may not be in another, and subjects about one’s family members, job, academic qualification, salary, health, and other personal matters are freely discussed. Hence, Arabs would be confused of refusing advice because it is regarded as private matters in American culture. These two studies are significant because the lack of discussion about advice giving in Arabic context. Yet, the researchers do not provide information about the data collection method or how the data are transcribed.

In Jordanian context, Al-Shboul et al. (2012) compare how native speakers of American English and Jordanian EFL students perceive the speech act of advice giving in English. The participants of the study involve twenty native speakers of American English and twenty Jordanian EFL learners. An adopted version of Hinkel’s (1997) Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) is used to collect participants' data. The questionnaire consists of eight situations where participants are required to provide advice or to opt out to situations with a peer acquaintance (equal status) and
an instructor (higher status). The results of the study reveal that both groups capture in the same way the social distance of a peer acquaintance and an instructor situations. By contrast, they are not the same regarding the types of advice they provide as the suitable option. This study is important because it is one of a rarely Arabic speech act of advice as perceived by Jordanian EFL students. However, the study has focused on advice giving from a cross-cultural viewpoint only where all of the learners are males since gender is not studied in this research as a variable.

As the previous paragraphs have shown, the speech act of advice giving may differ according to several social factors including the gender and the cultural background of the participants. Moreover, it can be seen that the major number of studies that have been conducted on the speech act of advice giving do not emphasize gender as a main variable. Therefore, it seems to be helpful to examine the differences in the perception of the speech act of advice giving among Jordanian male and female students at BAU. This will be the gap where the present study will handle.

The Study
This study aims to examine the different perceptions of advice giving among Jordanian male and female students at BAU. Moreover, it aims to provide explanations of these prominent differences between the two participating groups. The study basically focuses on the gender variable and its effect on how the speaker captures advice giving. The concept of gender is employed to make clear categories with social construction with regard to sex. It has been a controversial issue whether gender has an influence on the communication style of the speaker. For example, Brend (1975) finds that men tend to use some patterns related to surprise and politeness less frequently than women do. Besides, Sukyadi and Ayu (2011) state that gender and language emphasise on the features utilized by men and women. In other words, how the stereotype towards gender works in their preference of language styles. The findings of these studies reveal that men and women usually resort to dissimilar linguistic styles in which men’s speech differ from that of women. The main concern of the present study is to shed light on how Jordanian male and female students at BAU recognise the speech act of advice giving. Consequently, the related research question appeared from the literature is whether there are dissimilarities between the two groups taking part in the study.

Methodology
Participants
The participants to the present study include 100 undergraduate students at BAU. The participants involve 50 females and 50 males whose age ranged from 18-22 years old. All the participants are Jordanian Arabic. They also are from the central region of Jordan and pursuing different academic majors in the college of business (e.g. Accounting, finance).

Instrument and Procedure
The researchers of the current study use Hinkel’s (1997) Multiple Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) as the data collection instrument. To guarantee that participants truly grasped the situations, the questionnaire is translated into Arabic by the researchers who are native speakers of Jordanian Arabic. Then, three professors of linguistics in the department of English language and literature at BAU check the accuracy of translation. The researchers also briefly describe the characters involved in the questionnaire situations as the following: a higher social status represented by an
instructor at college who is professionally well-known by the participants, and a peer acquaintance. The questionnaire contains eight situations that need giving advice or opting out. More specifically, four of these situations are intended to the higher social status and four to the peer acquaintance. Three randomly ordered MC options are followed by each situation: (1) direct advice including the model “should,” (2) indirect comments with no advice giving or providing suggestions, and (3) hedged advice with the expressions of “need to” or other softeners or hedging advices, lexical hedging (“may be, I think”), or questions. Opting out is the fourth obvious option that remains the same for all choices. Examples of direct advice, indirect comments, and hedge advice are illustrated in (A) to (C), respectively:

A. You should buy the book at the other store. This store has high prices
B. This store has high prices
C. May be, it’s not a good idea to buy the book here. This store has high prices

The researchers run the questionnaire at BAU’s main campus located in Al-Salt, Jordan. Al-Balqa’ Electronic Academy building is the location where the researchers meet the participants. The following are the procedures of how the questionnaire is administrated: (1) the researchers clarify the tasks to the participants briefly; and (2) the participants are required to read each situation carefully and react to it by placing themselves in the given situations. Then, they are required to select the most appropriate option of these statements or questions. In conclusion, the researchers analyse the data in terms of percentage and frequency for each MC option in each situation. To put it another way, the choices of the participants of the MC responses are computed and then converted into percentages (see Table 1).

**Results and Discussion**

The question that emerged from the present study aims to discover whether there are different perceptions of advice giving between Jordanian male and female students at BAU. Consequently, the results reveal the presence of gender differences between both groups of participants. Generally speaking, the participants’ perception of the social distance is different in a peer acquaintance and an instructor situations. In addition, the two participating groups are not the same in the form of advice they select as the proper option. In both situations, indirect advice is the most frequently used option by male students as compared to the other three options (direct advice, hedge advice, and opting out). With respect to female students, the participants tend to select hedge advice more frequently than the other three options in both peer acquaintance and instructor situations.

The findings are in agreement with those reported in other advice studies such as Kuo (1996). For instance, Kuo (1996) finds that female speakers tend to offer advice to listeners of the same sex by means of different linguistic forms such as sentences with model auxiliaries or hedge, and explanations with advice form to express advice. By contrast, only four imperative forms of advice either seriously or jokingly are expressed by male speakers in their conversations. In addition, Al-Shboul and Zarei (2013) conclude that Iranian Persian EFL male learners select indirect advice rather than the other three options in both peer acquaintance and instructor situations. On the other hand, hedge advice is the most frequently selected option in both peer acquaintance and instructor situations by female learners as compared to direct advice, indirect advice and opting out options.
Table 1. MCQ Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Situation</th>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Hedge</th>
<th>Indirect</th>
<th>Nothing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Peer acquaintance</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Unreliable car</td>
<td>M 29 (58)</td>
<td>M 11 (22)</td>
<td>M 8 (16)</td>
<td>M 2 (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F 27 (54)</td>
<td>F 16 (32)</td>
<td>F 7 (14)</td>
<td>F 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F 4 (8)</td>
<td>F 22 (44)</td>
<td>F 21 (42)</td>
<td>F 3 (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Repair shop</td>
<td>M 8 (16)</td>
<td>M 14 (28)</td>
<td>M 28 (56)</td>
<td>M 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F 11 (22)</td>
<td>F 22 (44)</td>
<td>F 17 (34)</td>
<td>F 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F 1 (2)</td>
<td>F 41 (82)</td>
<td>F 3 (6)</td>
<td>F 5 (10)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Instructor</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Library</td>
<td>M 8 (16)</td>
<td>M 7 (14)</td>
<td>M 22 (44)</td>
<td>M 13 (26)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F 2 (4)</td>
<td>F 33 (66)</td>
<td>F 8 (16)</td>
<td>F 7 (14)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Illness</td>
<td>M 12 (24)</td>
<td>M 23 (46)</td>
<td>M 15 (30)</td>
<td>M 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F 19 (38)</td>
<td>F 25 (50)</td>
<td>F 6 (12)</td>
<td>F 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F 10 (20)</td>
<td>F 24 (48)</td>
<td>F 12 (24)</td>
<td>F 4 (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Restaurant</td>
<td>M 11 (22)</td>
<td>M 8 (16)</td>
<td>M 31 (62)</td>
<td>M 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F 27 (54)</td>
<td>F 14 (28)</td>
<td>F 9 (18)</td>
<td>F 0 (0)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: percentages given in brackets, with frequency amount is recorded in each cell

Regarding peer acquaintance situations, table 1 shows that direct advice option is used more frequently by male students than their female counterparts in three out of four situations. More specifically, males tend to be more direct in Unreliable Car, Academic Course, and Library situations. Yet, they tend to choose direct advice option less frequently than female students do in the situation of Repair Shop. Even though both participating groups’ perceptions of direct advice are different, these differences are not significant. For example, both participating groups’ selection of direct advice in the Unreliable Car situation is almost the same: male students 58% and female students 54%. By contrast, the differences between the two participating groups appear to be prominent in the Library situation as 16% of males use the option of direct advice while only 2% of the females select that option.

On the other hand, female students tend to choose hedge advice in all situations with peer acquaintance more than their male counterparts. For instance, the differences between male and female students appear significantly in the Library situation as only 38% of males select hedge advice options while 82% of females choose the same option. However, the female students select the indirect advice options in all situations with peer acquaintance less frequently than their male counterparts. For example, only 6% of females tend to use indirect advice options in the Library situation compared to 40% of males who select the same option. The researchers would attribute the choices made by the participants to the concept of face. Hence, male students would understand the speech act of advice giving in their conversations as a face threatening act. So, they either try not to give advice or do it in a bad way. On the other hand, female students would understand the same speech act in their conversation positively and use it to reflect different stylistic and linguistic devices to keep equality and rapport.
According to Baca (2011), the people engaged in the conversation commented on his partiality for the advice of females, which he ascribes to the care and concern of the people taking part in the conversation. Thus, these comments would be made because both the speaker and the hearer expect different interpersonal communication style between males and females when giving advice.

Regarding the instructor’s situations, the female students choose the direct advice option more than their male counterparts in three out of four situations. More specifically, the option of direct advice is used less frequently by female students (4%) than males (16%) in only one situation (Library situation). However, the situations of Illness, Book Store, and Restaurant are used more directly by female students than males. These results are in accordance with those reported by Al-Shboul and Zarei (2013) where Iranian male students’ frequency selection of direct advice is only less than their female counterparts in the Library situation. Hence, female students tend to use more direct advice in the other three options (Illness, Book Store, and Restaurant). Fishman (1978) indicates that men’s speech is characterised by traits like statement aiming to make less emphasis on any further talk. On the other hand, ensuring reaction is the main purpose in the formal style of women’s speech such as asking question. It would be revealed from the present study that Jordanian females capture direct advice as a sign of kindness, care, sincere, and building a stronger relationship with their instructor.

As is the case with peer acquaintance situations, the option of hedge advice is used more frequently in the all instructor’s situations by female students than their male counterparts do. Even though both groups of participants varied in their selections of hedge advice option, these differences appear to be negligible in 2 out of 4 situations (Illness and Book Store). In other words, both male and female students’ perceptions have mainly the same percentages at 44% of males and 48% of females select hedge advice in the Illness situation and 22% of males and 24% of females select the same option in the Book Store situation. Though, both groups of participants show significant differences in the Library situation as only 14% of males select the option of hedge advice while 66% of females use that option. The findings are similar to those reported by Al-Shboul and Zarei (2013) who find that 12 out of 20 female students tend to use the hedge advice option compared to only 3 out of 20 male students who select the same option. The researchers attribute the reasons for similarities with the findings from the present study to religious similarity and collectivist cultural orientation. The cultural dimension of individualism-collectivism is one of the four cultural dimensions proposed by Hofstede (1991). Jordan and Iran are typically classified as collectivistic cultures, and the U.S. and the Europe countries typically are classified as individualistic cultures (Hofstede, 1991).

Finally, the male students’ selection of indirect advice is more than females do in the all instructor’s situations. For instance, 62% of male students select the option of indirect advice as compared to only 18% of female students who select the same option in the Restaurant situation. The researchers believe that the differences in the selection of indirect advice options between the two participating groups would be explained in terms of their perception of the status. In other words, while status matters are recognised as significant by males, they appear to be comparatively less significant for females who tend to select more direct advice.
The researchers would like to emphasize on a number of pedagogical implications in the light of the results of the current study. For example, school curricula should take in consideration the different perception of speech act by male and female students. More specifically, it could be valuable to teach learners how speech act strategies are not perceived in the same way by Jordanian male and female students. For instance, giving examples of how advice giving differs among male and female learners. Finally, the researchers would like to highlight that school curricula should pay attention to the sociolinguistic aspects of the language rather than the structures and lexical knowledge.

Conclusion and Future Research

In the current study, the results shed light on the different perceptions of advice giving by Jordanian undergraduate students at BAU. In addition, the present study has shown that Jordanian male and female students differ in the forms of advice they select as the proper choice. Even though the present study has mostly answered the research question, more research on advice giving in Jordan context are required to be investigated (examining the pragmatic transfer and the production of advice giving). While the results of the present study can be generalised, they are constrained with a number of considerations including the following:

Only participants from the central region of Jordan are randomly chosen to participate in the present study. As a result, this does not guarantee that the participants have been representative of all Jordanian native speakers of Arabic. Moreover, the number of participants includes only 50 females and 50 males whose age ranged from 18-22 years old. The present study could reveal different findings with population with different age groups, economic, and educational backgrounds. Therefore, these results should not be deemed final and probably not generalizable to other social contexts or participants with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds. Furthermore, the researchers believe that using only one instrument to collect the data is not sufficient to give deep understanding of every phase of the Jordanian advice strategies. Therefore, using real discourse data such as observing a long turn-taking conversation could contribute to a better understanding of the discourse patterns of giving advice. As we cannot predict the occurrence of some speech acts including the speech act of advice giving, relying on a long turn-taking conversation data would not result in adequate examples of a specific speech act. Also, MCQ are primarily used to elicit participants’ perception data, which is the scope of the current study. In conclusion, researchers who are interested to conduct speech act studies in the future are highly recommended to begin where this study ended. Hence, those researchers could investigate the limitations of the present study by including situations representing a larger number of social settings (e.g., shopping malls, marketplaces, meetings and conference).

About the Authors:

**Yasser Al-Shboul** is an Assistant Professor in the English Language and Literature Department at Al-Balqa’ Applied University, Salt, Jordan, and holds a Ph.D. of English Language Studies, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, National University of Malaysia. He is interested in topics related to Sociolinguistics, Sociopragmatics, and Language Acquisition.

ORCiD: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1085-040X
Adnan Abumahfouz is a full time lecturer of English in the department of English language and literature at Al-Balqa’ Applied University, Jordan, Salt. He studied English language and literature at the University of Jordan and translation at Yarmouk University. He proceeded to work as an instructor of English and a freelance translator. He is interested in translation and linguistic studies.

References
Identification of Language Learning Beliefs among Saudi EFL Learners

Eidah Abdullah Al-malki
Foreign Languages Department, Taif University
Taif, Saudi Arabia

Choudhary Zahid Javid
Foreign Languages Department, Taif University
Taif, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
It is argued that positive yet realistic beliefs are source of success as language learners whereas negative or unrealistic beliefs can be an impediment to successful language learning. This empirical survey identifies Saudi English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ beliefs through Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) developed by Horwitz’s (1987). The Arabic version of the questionnaire has been administered and 118 Saudi EFL learners from a Saudi university returned the questionnaire. The research questions set for this survey include what beliefs Saudi EFL learners have towards the difficulty of foreign language learning, foreign language aptitude, the nature of language learning, learning and communication strategies and motivation and expectations for English language learning. The results reveal that the participants bear high English language learning aptitude and believe that it is easier to learn it in childhood. No strong relationship in learning subjects like science and math and English language was reported. The participants also believe that for quick and successful language learning, it is imperative to practice the target language extensively. A positive trend is that Saudi EFL learners have been extremely positive and encouraging towards their chances of achieving communicative competence and do not have any unnecessary inhibition in speaking English.

Key Words: beliefs, effective ELT, language learning, EFL learners, perceptions, Saudi EFL learners

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Introduction and Contextual Background

It has been claimed that beliefs are ‘guiding principles’ of people attitudes (Puchta, 1999). He has further explained that people conceive the target information through their pre-existed beliefs about any target task. Research has suggested that “people possess some preconceived ideas about various issues and that these beliefs can influence their understanding of and reactions towards new information” (Stevick, 1980, p. 4). Similarly, language learners are not empty vessels when they come to language classes; rather, they possess certain beliefs about the process of language learning. It has been reported that they bear certain beliefs about language learning process and the way it is taught and learned (Horwitz, 1987). Research reports that leaners’ individual differences in their beliefs bear significant effect on the process of language learning and determine their success (Dornyei, 2005). It is argued that positive yet realistic beliefs are instrumental in their success as language learners because they help them control frustration and ensure long term motivation (Rifkin, 2000). On the other hand, “unrealistic beliefs or misconceptions can result in decreased motivation and increased frustration, which becomes an impediment to successful language learning” (Cui, 2014, p. 2). It is proposed that certain beliefs facilitate language learners whereas certain other sets of beliefs may have negative effect on the process of language learning. Mantle-Bromley (1995) states that if language learners have positive attitudes towards the target language and bear realistic beliefs, they have better chances to succeed as language learners as compared to the ones with negative attitudes and beliefs towards the target language.

Literature Review

Talking about the significance of beliefs in our lives, Puchta (1999) elaborates that beliefs “are generalizations about cause and effect, and [that] they influence our inner representation of the world around us. They help us to make sense of that world, and they determine how we think and how we act” (pp. 68-69). The term belief seems an encompassing concept in academic world as there have been numerous definitions forwarded by researchers and psychologists. They are identified as “notions about language learning that students have acquired” (Kuntz 1996, p. 4), learners’ opinion about language learning (Banya & Cheng, 1997), as learners’ attitudes, representations, opinions or ideologies (Fraser & Gaskell, 1990), “general assumptions that students hold about themselves as learners, about factors influencing language learning and about the nature of language learning and teaching” (Victori & Lockhart 1995, p. 224) or “central constructs in every discipline which deals with human behavior and learning (Sakui & Gaies 1999, p. 474). Cabaroglu and Roberts (2000) have defined beliefs as “a set of conceptual representations which signify to its holder a reality or given state of affairs of sufficient validity, truth or trustworthiness to warrant reliance upon it as a guide to personal thought and action” (p. 388). The role of beliefs in our lives is evident from the fact that this construct is not just seen as a component of metacognitive knowledge but depending on the academicians’ theoretical basis, beliefs have also been identified as ‘mini-theories’ (Hosenfeld, 1978), ‘insights’ (Omaggio, 1978), ‘learner assumptions’ (Riley, 1980), ‘implicit theories’ (Clark, 1988), ‘self-constructed representational systems’ (Rust, 1994), ‘culture of learning’ (Contazzi & Jin, 1996) and ‘conceptions of learning’ (Benson & Lor, 1999). Though beliefs have been defined in a diversifiable manner by different psychologists and linguistics, a review of relevant literature offers valuable insights into the fact that beliefs about foreign language learning are closely associated to the nature of language and the process of language learning. Thus, beliefs about language learning have been defined as
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“opinions and ideas that learners (and teachers) have about the task of learning a second/foreign language” (Kalajia & Barcelos, 2003, p. 1).

Research in language teaching and learning reveals that language learners carry a complex web of learning experiences, attitudes, beliefs, and learning strategies to class (Bernat, 2005; Benson, 2001; Nyikos & Oxford, 1993). Consequently, it is reported that learners’ attitudes, shaped by their perceptions and beliefs about language learning, carry strong effect on their overall learning behavior (Cotterall, 1995; Como, 1986). Research also reports that these beliefs and attitudes play a significant role determining learners’ academic experiences and achievements (Sakui & Gaies, 1999). It is further suggested that successful learners analyze their language learning beliefs and their learning capabilities and effectively exploit learning strategies to enhance their learning possibilities (Ehrman & Oxford, 1990; Oxford, 1990); therefore, it seems imperative to investigate learners’ beliefs and attitudes towards language learning process to help them develop and implement effective learning strategies. It has been stated that “learners develop their own opinions or theories about language learning and these opinions likely influence learners’ effectiveness in the classroom” (Cui, 2014, p. 10).

Investigation of beliefs in the context of EFL have been done through several approaches. Kajala (1995) has revealed that human beliefs can be investigated through ‘the mainstream approach’ and ‘the discursive approach’. The mainstream approach focuses on identifying beliefs as cognitive entities in the minds of the learners and beliefs are considered as stable, stateable, and fallible. The discursive approach, on the other hand, concentrates on the function of beliefs and tend to investigate them in oral and written communication. This approach treats beliefs as socially constructed factor that varies from one person to another as well as from one situation to another. Barcelos (2000) has reported that belief studies can be divided into three approaches. According to him, the first one is the normative approach that treats beliefs as a pre-determined set of statements. The second approach is the metacognitive approach which explains beliefs from students’ self-reports and interviews and the third one is the contextual approach that exploits ethnography, narratives, and metaphors to explore language learning beliefs. It is found that the normative approach is mainly related to Horwitz who developed Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) in 1985 which provided the basis for beliefs investigations. The researchers have exploited the original version of BALLI (such as Horwitz, 1987, 1988; Su, 1995), or the researchers have modified the original version of BALLI (Mantle-Bromley, 1995) and several other researchers (such as Kuntz, 1996; Victori; 1992) have developed their own instruments to investigate language learning beliefs. The researchers, who followed metacognitive approach, have rather used interviews and self-reports instead of questionnaires to investigate the learners’ beliefs. Beliefs are considered metacognitive knowledge in this approach. It is revealed that this approach has been exploited by Wenden (1986, 1987). Talking about the scope of this approach, Barcelos (2000) states that metacognitive approach enables the learners to use their own words and to critically explain their language learning experiences but this approach does not explain the role of beliefs in students’ academic life. Several studies have exploited the contextual approach to investigate language learning beliefs of learners (Bernat, & Gvozdenko, 2005; Allen, 1996). According to this approach, language learning beliefs are believed to be embedded in academic contexts of the learners. The studies which follow this approach use qualitative and interpretive paradigms. It is reported that ethnography, narratives,
and metaphors have been used in this approach (Kramsch, 2003). A salient characteristic of this approach is that it is quite versatile in the use of theoretical frameworks (see for example phenomeno-graphical approach used by Benson & Lor, 1999 & White, 1999, neo-Vygotskian socio-cultural paradigm exploited by Alanen, 2003, Bakhtinian approach by Dufva, 2003 and Deweyan approach by Barcelos, 2000. Furthermore, this contextual approach makes use of multiple methods of data collection including case studies, ethnographic classroom observations, informal discussions and stimulated recalls (Allen, 1996; Barcelos, 2000), diaries (Hosenfeld, 2003), discourse analysis (Kalaja, 2003), naturalistic interviews and scenarios (White, 1999).

Research Questions
The study is meant to answer the following research questions:
1. What are the beliefs of Saudi EFL learners towards the difficulty of foreign language learning?
2. What are the beliefs of Saudi EFL learners towards foreign language aptitude?
3. What are the beliefs of Saudi EFL learners towards the nature of language learning?
4. What are the beliefs of Saudi EFL learners towards learning and communication strategies?
5. What are the beliefs of Saudi EFL learners towards motivation and expectations?

Methodology
This quantitative study is a survey research which has been employed to identify Saudi EFL learners’ beliefs about language learning in an EFL context. Descriptive analyses have been run to generate the data based on the perceptions of the participants of this survey. Percentages, minimum values, maximum values, range and standard deviations have been calculated to present the final conclusions and recommendations.

Participants
EFL learners from a Saudi university were invited to participate in this survey research. The learners who have volunteered for this study were briefed about the overview of the nature and purpose of this survey. The questionnaire was distributed during a language session and they were requested to fill in the Arabic version of BALLI. A total of 118 EFL learners participated in this survey.

Data Collection Instrument
A leading researcher of language learning beliefs Dr Elaine Horwitz developed the Beliefs About Language Learning Inventory (BALLI) to investigate learners’ and teachers’ beliefs related to various language learning issues (Horwitz, 1987, 1988, 1999). The researchers have used BALLI which is considered the most favorite instrument in this regard and has been frequently exploited in small and large-scale studies in English as second/foreign language contexts.

Results
Descriptive analysis was done by version 17 of Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) and range, minimum values, maximum values, mean and standard deviation (SD) were calculated to finalize the result. The data of the descriptive analyses are presented in the following tables to indicate the beliefs of Saudi EFL learners towards various components of BALLI.
Table 1: Foreign Language Aptitude

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>It is easier for children than adults to learn a foreign language.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2203</td>
<td>1.03061</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Some people are born with special ability which helps them learn a foreign language.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.1441</td>
<td>1.09603</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>It is easier for someone who speaks a foreign language to learn another one.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.6610</td>
<td>.85954</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I have foreign language aptitude.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.3136</td>
<td>.82378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Women are better than men at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.0508</td>
<td>1.17559</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>People who are good at math and science are not good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.5847</td>
<td>1.04862</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>People who speak more than one language well are very intelligent.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.9407</td>
<td>.90858</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>Saudis are good at learning foreign languages.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.4237</td>
<td>1.01617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>Everyone can learn to speak a foreign language.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.6610</td>
<td>1.18553</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 presents the descriptive statistics of nine questionnaire items related to foreign language aptitude of the participants of this empirical study. There are only two items which are allocated high mean of more than four, only one item is given less than three mean whereas the remaining 6 items are assigned medium mean range of three to four. The highest mean is assigned to item 15 which indicates that Saudi EFL learners have high aptitude to learn foreign languages. The results also reveal that the participants of this study believe that it is easier for children to learn a foreign language as compared to adults. The third most-favored item in this category remains the belief that the people who speak more than one language are very intelligent. The participants do not agree to the statement that the people who are good at math and science are not good at learning another language. The second least preference is recorded for the item that seeks their perception about women as better at learning a foreign language as compared to men. The participants also do not favor the belief that some people are born with special ability to learn a foreign language.

Table 2: Difficulty of language learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Some languages are easier to learn than others.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2034</td>
<td>.92966</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>The language I am trying to learn is: 1) a very difficult language, 2) a difficult language, 3) a language of medium difficulty, 4) an easy language, 5) a very easy language.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.3729</td>
<td>.68932</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I believe that I will ultimately learn to speak this language very well.

If someone spends an hour a day learning a language, how long would it take him/her to become fluent? 1) less than one year, 2) 1-2 years, 3) 3-5 years, 4) 5-10 years, 5) you cannot learn a language in 1 hour a day.

It is easier to speak than understand a foreign language.

It is easier to read and write this language than to speak and understand it.

Table 2 contains six items related to beliefs about difficulty of language learning. Two items are assigned higher mean of more than four, two items are allocated very low mean of less than 3 and the remaining two items receive medium mean between three to four. The highest mean of 4.56 is reported for their belief that they will learn to speak the target language very well followed by their belief that some languages are easier to learn as compared to some others. Item 14 elicits the participants’ belief about the duration they need to learn English language if they spend one hour each day and the results report that they believe that two to three years are sufficient to learn the target language. The results reveal that Saudi EFL learners represented by the participants of this survey do not consider reading and writing skills easier than speaking and its overall comprehension. The result also suggest that the cohort of this study consider English language as a difficult language to learn for foreign speakers.

Table 3: The nature of language learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>The structure of English is different from that of Arabic.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2712</td>
<td>.83370</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>It is necessary to know the foreign culture in order to speak the foreign language.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.4322</td>
<td>1.05797</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>It is better to learn a foreign language in the foreign country.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2542</td>
<td>.92622</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of new vocabulary words.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.7034</td>
<td>.99837</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of learning a lot of grammatical rules.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.3644</td>
<td>.93063</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Learning a foreign language is different from learning other school subjects.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.8983</td>
<td>.99047</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.2458</td>
<td>.90522</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The perceptive data related to the nature of language learning is detailed in table 3 which reveals that only two items of this category are allocated higher mean of more than 4 whereas all
other items of this section are assigned medium high values ranging from 3.24 to 3.89. Majority of the participants agree that the structure of English is different from that of Arabic and that it is convenient and better to learn a foreign language in the respective foreign countries. Both these items are allocated reasonably high means of 4.27 and 4.25 respectively. The lowest mean to item 26 indicates that the participants do not agree to the belief that learning a foreign language is mostly a matter of translating from English language.

Table 4: Learning and communication strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>It is important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation and accent.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.9153</td>
<td>1.04248</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>You should not say anything in a foreign language until you can say it correctly.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.3305</td>
<td>1.14021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>If I heard some people speaking the language I am trying to learn, I would go up to them so that I could practice speaking the language.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.0169</td>
<td>.93354</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>It is o.k. to guess if you do not know a word in the foreign language.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.0678</td>
<td>.73646</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>It is important to repeat and practice a lot.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.6441</td>
<td>.71043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I feel self-conscious speaking the foreign language in front of other people.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.8475</td>
<td>1.24466</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>If you are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning it will be hard to get rid of them later on.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.6864</td>
<td>1.50042</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>It is important to practice in the language laboratory.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.7458</td>
<td>1.12612</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 contains the results of descriptive analyses of eight items related to the participants’ beliefs towards learning and communication strategies. There are only three items which are given higher mean of more than four and these are the items which have SD of less than one indicating inter-rater unanimity of responses. Three items are assigned low mean of less than three and two are allocated medium mean and all these five items show SD of higher than one which suggest that there exist higher inter-rater differences in the perception of the participants. An extremely high mean of 4.64 suggests that the participants believe that it is important to repeat and practice intensively to learn the target language effectively. The second highest mean is allocated to language leaning belief that it is ok to guess if one does not know the target vocabulary of the foreign language. The results also reveal that Saudi EFL learners do not hesitate to go up to some people who are engaged in speaking the target language so that they also avail the chance to practice the foreign language. The participants do not support the belief that you should not say anything in a foreign language until they have the capacity to say it correctly. Likewise, the next least preferred item remains the one that elicits their perception related to the supposition that if foreign language learners are allowed to make mistakes in the beginning, these mistakes becomes permanent and it
will become hard to get rid of these mistakes later on. The participants do not favor item 18 as indicated by low mean value indicating that they do not feel self-conscious or embarrassed if they need to speak the target language in front of other people. Speaking the foreign language with an excellent pronunciation and practicing it in the laboratory have been assigned medium high values.

Table 5: Motivations and expectations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Questionnaire Items</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>If I get to speak this language very well, I will have many opportunities to use it.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.4237</td>
<td>.74429</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>If I learn to speak this language very well, it will help me get a good job.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2542</td>
<td>.78649</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>Saudis think that it is important to speak a foreign language.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>3.6441</td>
<td>1.05834</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>I would like to learn this language so that I can get to know its speakers better.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.2288</td>
<td>.93745</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 exhibits the results generated by the descriptive analyses of four items related to foreign language learners’ motivations and expectations and nearly all items are favored by the participants as indicated by high mean values. Furthermore, low SD of less than 1 for the majority of these items also reveal that they see eye to eye to each other for these items. The results show that the learners have sufficient opportunities to practice the target language if they are motivated and want to learn it effectively. The participants also allot extremely high mean to the item which states that they will have better chances to get a good job if they have high English language proficiency. The third highest mean is reported for the belief that Saudi EFL learners prefer to learn English language to get to know its speakers better. Medium high preference is shown for the belief that Saudi students think that it is important to speak a foreign language.

Discussion

The data generated through the descriptive analyses of the various questionnaire items related to five categories of beliefs as classified in BALLI as perceived by EFL learners has significant implications. The first category is related to ‘Foreign Language Aptitude’ and the participants of this study state that they have high aptitude for learning a foreign language confirming the findings of Roomy (2015) who also report that Saudi medical undergraduates have also ranked this item the highest in this category. This seems quite a positive indicator that Saudi EFL learners bear high foreign language aptitude which should be exploited by English language teachers to inculcate and sustain high motivation to learn English language. The second important finding is that the participants of this survey believe that it is easier for children to learn a foreign language as indicated by high mean value supporting the results of Roomy (2015) and Fujiwara (2011). The findings of these studies show that this seems an international belief that it is better to expose learners to the target language in the childhood to maximize their learning possibilities. A unanimity of responses has been witnessed with quite low mean among Saudi EFL learners as well as EFL learners from other regions towards the beliefs about women and people who are good at math and science as better foreign language learners. Differences are found in their perceptions towards the belief that some people are born with special ability for foreign language learning:
Saudi and Thai EFL learners do not support this belief but Iranian EFL learners assigned higher mean to it (Javid & Al-Malki, 2018; Roomy, 2015; Fujiwara, 2011).

The second section of BALLI is related to ‘difficulty of language learning’ and it has six items to elicit the respondents’ perceptions. The highest preference of the cohort of this survey partially confirm the results of Roomy (2015) who reports that Saudi university medical students have ranked it medium high mean value. The lower preference by medical students might be due to the fact that medical students concentrate mainly on their major subjects and English is not their first priority. The results of the studies conducted in the non-Arab EFL context also partially support the findings of this survey as medium preference has been exhibited by Thai and Iranian EFL learners (Fujiwara, 2011). This high motivation and expectation shown by Saudi EFL learners is quite an encouraging factor. The findings also present a factor of great pedagogical significance that the participants of this study have assigned extremely low mean to the item that seeks their response to the supposition that it is easier to read and write English language than to speak and understand it. The same has been reported by Roomy (2015). This trend seems to the result of presence of strong oral tradition among Arab societies in general and Saudi society in particular. The findings go with the result of Shannon (2003) who reports that Gulf societies give more importance to oral tradition. Watson (2004) is rather more direct and specific in his claim that reading culture is weak and neglected in the Arab education system. He further contends that this weak reading culture has negative overbearing in teaching and learning English language in the Arab world.

‘The nature of language learning’ is the next factor that encompasses seven questionnaire items to elicit the participants’ responses. The cohort of this survey have highest support for the argument that the structure of English is different from that of Arabic and which logically pose serious challenge for Arab speakers to gain proficiency in this language. Similar results are reported by the responses of Saudi medical students (Roomy, 2015). Much research has revealed that languages and their cultures are inter-related and this is a pedagogical concern that attempts to learn a foreign language without incorporating its culture may result in achieving mere ‘linguistic competence’ but the learner will not be able to have ‘communicative competence’. Genc & Bada (2005) posit that teaching a foreign language devoid of its culture will remain incomplete because learner will not be able to effectively communicate with English native speakers. Another important finding of this empirical study is the allocation of medium high mean values by Saudi EFL learners to the items which elicit their responses towards the presumption that learning English language is mostly a matter of learning its lexemes, grammatical rules and translating from the target language. The results align the findings of the beliefs studies in the non-Arab contexts of Thailand (Fujiwara, 2011). This seems that Saudi EFL learners do not consider English language learning as mere gaining isolated linguistic competence in different areas but believe that learning a language is actually a comprehensive skill of achieving overall competence.

The next component is related to ‘learning and communication strategies’ which should be exploited to achieve the desired competence in the target language. The highest-ranking item in this category remains the belief that it is important to repeat and practice a lot both by Arab EFL learners (Javid & Al-Malki, 2018; Roomy, 2015) as well EFL learners from other contexts as reported by other studies (Fujiwara, 2011; Bernat & Lloyd, 2007). This belief has significant pedagogical
implications and provides English language teachers with an advantage to motivate and encourage EFL learners to practice the target language extensively to achieve the desired proficiency level. The second highest ranking item in this category remains the use of context-clue method to guess the meaning of unknown target vocabulary. High mean of more than 4 has been reported by the participants of this study as well as the cohort of Roomy (2015) whereas EFL learners from non-Arab context have assigned medium mean to this item (Fujiwara, 2011; Bernat & Lloyd, 2007). The unanimously least favored item by Arab and non-Arab EFL learners has been the belief that learners should not say anything in a foreign language until they can say it correctly. This seems quite a positive attitude of EFL learners that they do not suffer from unnecessary inhibition to communicate in the target language which sometimes hinders language learning process because without proper practice in various language skills, learners cannot achieve proficiency in the target language. If learners are conscious about making mistakes, it will activate ‘affective filter’ which will negatively affect their learning ability as posited by Krashen. The same is reinforced by the responses of the participants of this survey towards item 18 and 19 which indicate that they do not feel hesitant to speak in front of other people and that the mistakes do not get permanent. The results are in line with the findings of Roomy (2015) and partially in contrast with the results of Bagherzadeh (2012) and Fujiwara (2011). Another significant finding is medium liking by Saudi EFL learners towards practicing the target language in the language laboratory whereas the results of Fujiwara (2011) have shown that Thai EFL learners have shown extremely high preference for using language laboratories to practice the target language supporting Liton (2012) who has suggested that use of new technologies is instrumental in inculcating supportive and motivating learning atmosphere. Saudi EFL learners do not consider it very important to speak a foreign language with an excellent pronunciation and accent as indicated by medium mean assigned to it partially contradicting the findings of Bagherzadeh (2012) and Fujiwara (2011).

The last section of this questionnaire comprises of four items related to motivations and expectations of EFL learners and the participants have allocated extremely high mean to almost all items indicating high motivation level they bear to learn the target language. This is an extremely positive indicator of Saudi learners’ success as foreign language learners because a growing mass of research has offered valuable insights that motivation and language learning are directly proportionate to each other (Al-asmari & Javid, 2012; Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011; Harmer, 2007). Highest ranking item of this category has been the notion that if they want to speak the target language well, they have plenty of opportunities to use it. This is a very positive sign that Saudi EFL learners have this confidence and intention to exploit the wide range of online resources available to them to learn and practice the target language and help them become self-sufficient life-long learners. The results also show a strong instrumental motivation in Saudi as well as non-Saudi EFL learners that they will be able to get lucrative jobs if they achieve the desired proficiency level in English language as indicated by extremely high mean values assigned by several studies conducted in the Arab world as well in non-Arab EFL contexts (Javid & Al-Malki, 2018; Roomy, 2015; Al-Asmari & Javid, 2012; Daif-Ulla, 2012; Fujiwara, 2011; Bernat & Lloyd, 2007).

Conclusions and pedagogical implications

The results of this empirical study report that Saudi EFL learners bear high English language learning aptitude and believe that it is easier to learn it in childhood. It is also revealed
that there is not much difference between male and female in term of successful language learners. Likewise, the participants have not shown any strong relationship between subjects like science and math and English language. Generally speaking Saudi EFL learners consider English a medium difficult language to learn. They have suggested that some languages are comparatively easier to learn as compared to some others but their responses have been extremely positive and encouraging towards their chances of achieving communicative competence in the target language. It is also disclosed that it is easier to achieve speaking proficiency in English language than mastering reading and writing skills. As far the nature of learning the target language is considered, it is proclaimed that it is better to learn a foreign language in its respective country as the vast exposure enhances the chances of achieving the required proficiency quickly and easily. The syntactic differences of the target language with those of the learners’ mother tongue make it rather challenging for Saudi EFL learners to learn it. Another important conclusion is that Saudi EFL learners understand that learning a language is not merely memorizing new vocabulary, grammatical rules or simple translation but it requires a deeper understanding of the culture as well. The cohort of this study also believe that for quick and successful language learning, it is imperative to repeat and practice a lot in the target language. Another positive trend is that Saudi EFL learners do not have any unnecessary inhibition and have the confidence to go and talk to the people who are using the target language to provide them with the opportunity to practice it. The participants believe that it is not mandatory to speak the target language without any mistakes and with excellent pronunciation and accent. Furthermore, Saudi EFL learners have expressed this positive learning attitude that if one wants to practice the target language, there are numerous opportunities to use it because of the availability of modern technology nowadays. The participants also bear this thing is their mind that proficiency in the target language will help them acquire attractive jobs as well as to know the native speakers well.

Based on the results of this study, it is recommended that English language teachers should identify learners’ past learning experiences and their beliefs towards language learning process to ensure relevant and appropriate academic decisions to enhance learning possibilities. The understanding of learners’ beliefs will provide EFL teachers with the opportunity to exploit their positive beliefs for sustained motivations and if the learners are reported to bear some negative beliefs, the teachers can address them affectively with the passage of time. The identification of EFL learners’ interests, concerns and learning objectives will be a useful resource for making appropriate pedagogical decisions. Dörnyei (2001) states that in order to rectify learners’ negative beliefs, adult EFL learners should be made informed of the nature of foreign language learning process. Therefore, it is significant to convey to the learners that the proficiency in the target language is not a unidirectional process but it can be achieved in a variety of ways by using varied and appropriate teaching strategies. This kind of positive and comprehensive approach towards English language learning process will be helpful in successfully tackling EFL learners’ negative beliefs.

About the Authors:
**Dr. Eidah Abdullah Al-malki** is a linguist, a researcher in second Language Acquisition, founder, an ex-Dean of University Development Deanship and ex-director of the scholarship department at Taif University. Currently he is serving as an assistant professor of Linguistics.
His research interests include SLA, syntax and linguistics skills.

**Dr. Choudhary Zahid Javid** is serving Foreign Languages Department as an associate professor. He has authored more than forty articles, three ESP textbooks and presented and participated in many international conferences, symposia and workshops. He has teaching experience of more than 24 years in reputed organizations. [https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4631-581X](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4631-581X)

### References


Integration processes in Successful University and Corporate Professional Training in Foreign Languages

Natalya V. Dyorina
Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Education in the Humanities Institute
Magnitogorsk, Russia

Lyudmila I. Antropova
Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Education in the Humanities Institute
Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University
Magnitogorsk, Russia

Tatyana Yu. Zalavina
Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Education in the Humanities Institute
Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University
Magnitogorsk, Russia

Abstract
This article considers the methods of teaching in the field of the language for general purposes and the language for special purposes. The purpose of the article is to give a comparative analysis of teaching general English and English for special purposes, to present arguments with respect to approaches designed to organize and ensure the high efficiency of mastering English for special purposes. The study focuses on comparative methods of studying different training programs in order to set out the results of a success study of different students groups. The authors substantiated the necessity of using the basic methodology of teaching a foreign language for special purposes with a higher efficiency of the personality-oriented approach as a basis for teaching ESP. The results of the research proved that the development of the program depends on the analysis of the needs of the learning group and the actual situations of using the language for special purposes. For teaching the EGP course, students have a common standard goal of learning English, which does not always correspond to the language needs of the students. The line of demarcation between the courses of EGP and ESP has become very important, but requires the further discussion. The approaches described in our study combine the study of subject discipline and a foreign language as a tool for mastering subject knowledge is the essence of European Union (EU) policy. The ESP methodology differs from the EGP, as the training on the ESP course is more specific and person-oriented.

Keywords: English for special purposes, everyday communication, professional activities, professional standard, student personal needs

Introduction

The English language has widely penetrated all spheres of human activity and is considered as a common language of communication in engineering and technical disciplines, air navigation, maritime navigation, commerce, sport, information technology. Modern technologies promote the active exchange of scientific and professional achievements in all fields of science, technology and production throughout the world. The value of English for the world community is great and depends not only on the number of people using it in general speaking communications, but also on the different purposes of its application in the professional field. (Khomutova, 2007) The need for English for international use in science, technology, education and business has influenced the growing demand for learning English for specific purposes. This direction in training has received its characteristics of the language for special purposes related to the performance of specific professional tasks, it is called ESP (English for Special Purposes), it is rapidly developing recently and occupies a special position in the teaching of English (Nazarenko, 2000). Many professions become international, and the requirements for proficiency are also standardized at the international level and become common in certain fields: medicine, business, science, aviation, maritime navigation, IT technologies. The language of the various professional communities reflects the academic and professional practice of various English language models for specific purposes, which is based on professional skills, as well as on the experience of teaching English that combines disciplinary knowledge in the integrated areas of many disciplines. Therefore, there is a need to develop common approaches to teaching English for Special Purposes (ESP), which will provide opportunities for students to acquire skills of English professional language (ESP) (Shaimova, 2013).

For communication at any stage of professional activity, a specific set of verbal language skills must be developed, therefore training of specialists in the English language program for special purposes is of great interest to the professional community (Linjova & Zalavina, 2013). Training on special language models is associated with a broad scientific exchange and the preparation of active competitive specialists. The development of approaches to teaching the course "English for Specific Purposes" (ESP) is based on comparing it with the course "General English" (EGP-English General Purpose). If in the course of EGP, the teacher uses English for instrumental purposes with prepared specific curricula, programs and teaching standards, then when teaching the ESP course the teacher acts as a co-author, designer, designer of training programs, researcher, ally and knowledge evaluator. Training of students and specialists in special professional programs was conducted both in the Soviet Union and in Russia as necessary. And the term "English for special purposes" appeared in the 1960s and often did not meet the needs of students in the relevant professional field, as it reflected the goals and objectives of the preparation of line ministries and departments of the time in accordance with relevant standards.

At present, English language for special purposes teaching technologies involve mastering the skills of full communication within the framework of professional and international cooperation in all key areas of economics and production. (Belcher, 2006) But the teachers and course managers faced the problem of creating a multitude of different programs and came to the conclusion that it was impossible to create a single ideal program related to the training of specialists for professional English for special purposes. Any course reflects the specific goals and objectives of the course and a basic professional glossary with the most suitable vocabulary and a
set of language tools and exercises. The key objective of any ESP course can be presented in two ways: knowledge of the basics of grammar and the necessary professional lexical minimum, while it should be born in mind that any professional knowledge is undergoing changes for several years, and therefore a systematic change in the necessary teaching materials representing the current state of science and techniques in this field (Moskalenko, 2017). For a successful learning process, special attention should be paid to the selection of authentic teaching materials, preferably from reliable sources of English and the adaptation of these sources to the specific needs of the trainees associated with this target situation.

Methodologists D. Coyle, D. Marsh, F. Hood singled out the following principles:
- authenticity of the necessary set of materials and training situations, close to reality;
- multitasking, focused on several areas: understanding the subject content, obtaining cognitive skills through the analysis of subject content, the development of speech and language skills, creating an atmosphere of cooperation in the group work mode;
- the activity of training through the participation of students in the preparation of the project, in the process and at the presentation stage; student participation in the development of assessments and self-assessments; - one of the key factors of interaction between the teacher and student;
- safety of the learning environment by creating an enabling environment for all participants in the educational process;
- training support in the form of necessary educational language and speech support, which are acquired during the educational joint actions and serve as a basis for the instructor's methodical actions (Carver, 2003).

Thus, language is not a goal, but a means of forming a professional foreign-language competence of students.

Research Questions
1. To give a comparative analysis of teaching general English and English for special purposes, to present arguments with respect to approaches designed to organize and ensure the high efficiency of mastering English for special purposes in accordance with the needs of trainees (Tulupova et al., 2018);
2. To set out the results of a study of the success of different groups of students: students studying General English (EGP), students studying English by ESP programs, specialists receiving additional education in foreign language (ESP), specialists studying English as part of corporate training (ESP).

Purpose of the Study
The purpose of the study is to consider and compare the characteristics of ESP and EGP, the effectiveness of their implementation methods, as well as the role of procedural parameters and the advantages of individual methods. In our work it is very important to demarcate the courses of EGP and ESP, but this issue requires discussion.
Research Methods

The methodology of LSP in its most common version of the ESP was first presented in 1987 by T. Hutchinson and A. Waters in the book "English for Specific Purposes / A Learning Centred Approach" / Approach centred on learning (Dudley-Evans, 1998). Linguodidactical concepts of the approach centred on the training of ESP have been developed in the work of T. Dudley-Evans and M.D. St. John "New in English for special purposes." "Interdisciplinary approach" (1998, 2011) (Jones, 1990), where the following main provisions of this direction are presented:

- ESP is considered by scientists as an approach in the learning process, and not a product, which implies that the focus of the study is not linguistic, but linguodidactical aspects;
- the analysis of the needs of students is the basis for compiling programs, courses for teaching professionally-oriented language (a foreign language in professional activity);
- ESP aims to generate grammatical skills for specific situational contexts;
- ESP - a sub-type of language, limited to professional field situations;
- The ESP course can be developed for corporate purposes in a narrow specialized field for specific disciplines;
- ESP programs are developed for students of elementary level of education, intermediate and advanced level of training, and for ready specialists in accordance with the requirements of the corporate customer;
- ESP is based on the general methodology of teaching a foreign language and is a reflection of the methodology that is characteristic for the teaching of specialized disciplines (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987);
- in the process of teaching ESP, all methods and principles correspond to the education of cooperation, where the teacher and the student interact with each other.

It is important to divide the approaches in the learning process for two categories of listeners: a) students of universities and colleges studying in technical specialties and b) ready-made specialists who are trained in English language courses for special purposes. (Astashova et al., 2018) The training of ESP students, as experience has shown, is best to begin in parallel with the study of specialized technical disciplines related to the future direction of special vocational training, with the joint coordination of programs for teaching technical disciplines and close interaction of teachers of these disciplines. In most universities, general English courses are included in the curriculum of general subjects from the first year, and in the second year it is often offered to study under the program "Foreign Language in Professional Activity", when the student has no idea of the nature of his future professional specialization and studies his "blindly".

Programs offered by universities to teach this course do not always correspond to the level of professional training, so it is necessary to carry out special training of teachers to conduct such courses. These teachers should master special training in the field of professional terms and technologies for each specific specialty at the university.

The objectives of the ESP courses can be described as: cultural-educational, personal, academic / professional. The first two ones focus on student self-esteem, predicting success in life, optimism or professional pessimism in terms of mastering ESP. (Hirano, 2009) We can refer them to the field of ESP, for analysing the needs of students who are studying English for professional
work. English for academic purposes and for professional purposes is taught as a separate
discipline in more advanced stages of education and training and is used for listening and lecturing
in a foreign language, writing scientific articles and reports and communication at scientific
conferences for undergraduates, graduate students, teachers and trained specialists. (Petrasheva,
2008).

The specific features of the ESP course are the specific features of the description of the
professional language, its goals and objectives, the level of its further application, the theme and
content, the definition of language skills in a given professional field. (Khomutova, 2008) The
planning and development of the learning strategy differs depending on the age of the students,
their level of preparation and motivation for instruction, and most importantly the satisfaction of
the student's needs at this stage of training, a specific goal and situation. (Ukhanova, 2014)

The selection of materials for ESP courses is determined by the study time, the volume of
the content program and the tasks of the customer. Since these courses can be practically called
special for each specific goal, the success of training depends on the teacher's personality and the
effectiveness of the methods that he uses in the teaching process.

**Findings**

In our case, we present a program for teaching students in parallel learning a foreign language
for special purposes and teaching special disciplines. The program includes the study of
professional vocabulary based on the professional lexical minimum, the necessary language and
lexical units, communication styles, familiarity with the design of technical documentation,
reading and translating technical and scientific literature, preparing reports and speeches at
scientific conferences and preparing and writing scientific articles. (Astashova et al., 2018)
Successful mastery of the program depends on the analysis of the needs of the learning group, the
actual situations of using the language for special purposes, the actual proportion of many
components of the professional course such as: the theoretical foundations of the language in the
field of professional knowledge, adaptation of prepared materials, including the main phases of
technology and production processes, character of the specialists, including thematic and didactic
support in the lessons in the form of video and audio materials, a number of ESP software
applications needed for effective learning (Jones, 1990).

We present the experience of teaching ESP at the Department of Foreign Languages in the
technical areas of Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University. The department of foreign
languages in engineering is one of those where the training of English in the framework of ESP is
represented by the program "Foreign Language in Professional Activity".

For technical students, the curriculum has changed significantly in the bachelor's program:
the amount of hours for this discipline has decreased. Students of the second year at the 4th
semester begin to learn professional foreign language communication, not yet mastering the
features of subject discipline in this direction. The discipline "Introduction to the specialty" begins
to be taught in parallel with the FL in PD (a foreign language in professional activity) from the 4th
semester. Therefore, often a teacher of a foreign language explains questions related to special
technical disciplines, or independently develops an integrated course of ESP and special disciplines.

The tasks of the 5th semester of studies are significantly changed, and the language material is usually more complicated. Students learn skills in translating technical authentic non-adapted texts, popular science articles, preparing reports for conferences, learning to extract educational and professional materials from mass media sources and apply the knowledge gained in preparing presentations on the activities of leading industry enterprises, innovative technologies in production processes. Students perform assignments on the analysis of the content of original texts and articles, prepare reports based on reviews of this production area, make technical literature translations, mostly based on theoretical knowledge, on guesswork, but all this is not of high quality, since they do not have sufficient professional experience and knowledge.

The target groups use the principles of ESP in learning English, which are used in specialized programs. They are most fully implemented within the framework of the Presidential Program in the Ministry of Foreign Affairs (Magnitogorsk Institute of Supplementary Education). Ready-made specialists are offered a program of studying a foreign language at the rate of ESP.

The presidential program includes the following stages:
- Competitive selection of specialists.
- Training in a Russian educational institution.
- Internship in leading Russian or foreign organizations.

Foreign language. The program in volume of 180 acad. hours, gives listeners the opportunity to move from the basics of language knowledge to a level that allows them to successfully complete a foreign internship after graduation. The program includes the study of the main course of the foreign language program, for example, "English for busy people" (in accordance with the entry level of knowledge of the student's language) and an additional business course "Language for Business Communication".

The principle of the integration of academic knowledge and practical experience works at the basis of the ESP course at the Magnitogorsk Institute of Additional Education. Students of these courses, being professionals in their field, are fundamentally different from university students. During the training, students try to learn the basics of their profession through a foreign language, focusing mainly on the application of various language phenomena in hypothetical situations. Students of supplementary education programs, in contrast to students trained in university programs, implement real practical situations in a foreign language and focus on improving practical communication skills in this professional field, based on personal ambitions and own experience. (Astashova et al., 2018)

These programs are divided into short-term programs: to perform tasks related to communication of specialists in a narrowly focused field for a short period of time in relation to the tasks set by the management, which provides study at these courses.
Therefore, distinctive strategies for different learning groups and at different stages of training can successfully be applied to the courses if the following factors exist:
- when the time, objectives and objectives set for training are correctly set
- creating a positive atmosphere in class
- Identification of specific skills and abilities that students must master.
- singling out the speech and language aspects that will be most in demand.
- selection of materials for reorganization and functioning in the application of various teaching methods.
- including authentic modern texts with the necessary terms, the names of instrumentation equipment, knowledge of technological processes, etc. (Widodo & Pusporini, 2010)
- continuity in submitting previous information on other disciplines of this specialization and their integration.
- a combination of all aspects of the language for deeper improvement of speech skills, based on: reading, discussion, speaking, audio and video listening.
- involving students in practical research, analytical and scientific work based on the knowledge gained.
- availability of feedback (interactive teaching methods).
- creating an atmosphere of motivation.

The main aspect of this strategy: pedagogy of cooperation and interaction of teachers, the customer, students and teachers of special disciplines.

The interest of students cannot be limited only to practical goals in their professional field, it also expands due to the knowledge of EGP (English for General Purposes), since in the compulsory course of EGP there is always information about the peoples of English-speaking countries, their traditions, customs, laws, history, etiquette and customs.

Therefore, students who have ESP can easily master common program subjects and use ESP and EGP more effectively, and also easier to integrate into the future production environment. Linguistic scholars tend to believe that ESP is more of an approach to the learning process than an independent language subspecies, and is regarded as a specific product in which the methodology is subordinated to specific learning objectives. (Yegorova, 2012)

As it turned out, ESP- is more effective in increasing the students' motivation, because it directly relates to their specific professional career and satisfies their needs, and therefore it is easier for students to adapt in their professional environment. (Novozhilova, 2005) For the teaching of the EGP course, students have a common standard goal of learning English, which does not always correspond to the language needs of students and reduces the effectiveness of teaching. There is a problem in which sequence to teach EGP and ESP. The line of demarcation between the course of EGP and ESP has become very important, but requires discussion.

**Peculiarities of ESP course:**
- the organization of the course consists in creating a separate course on the basis of a special curriculum that includes various types of language and speech exercises, the preparation of modern textual arrays and information materials in a certain professional field, the processing and
adaptation of these materials, as well as the analysis of the effectiveness of the methods of instruction applied set goals and objectives.

Specificity of training is characterized in the formulation of specific short-term and long-term specific goals and objectives of training in accordance with a given program and educational situation.

During the development of programs, we should receive an answer to the question "what study, to what extent, as far as is necessary for the future profession, what language skills and speech skills will be in demand, etc."

The role of an ESP teacher is much wider and deeper than that of an EGP teacher. He is most likely considered a practitioner who trains, finds and processes materials, develops curricula, programs, collaborates with teachers of departments in the main area of training, i.e. integrates knowledge of all interdisciplinary subjects of the course and is engaged in analytical and research work. An analysis of the quality of instruction and a proper evaluation of the methods of instruction applied, their effectiveness and effectiveness of training deserves special attention (Yogman & Kaylani, 1996).

The teacher acts as a conductor of knowledge about the language, genre and terminology, not being a specialist in the field of subject discipline.

The key functions of the ESP practitioner are consistent with the functions of the practice teacher, the designer, the researcher and the analyst. In ESP methodology, the teacher's function is defined as "manager", "facilitator" (methodologist, curator), "consultant", "advisor" (counsellor, expert). The teacher needs the ability to conduct consumer needs analysis, to have an idea of the basic concepts of education and the content of the profile discipline. The function of the designer of the three-dimensional design of training materials is to select and prepare targeted specific information text and media arrays. The teacher is working on their adaptation with respect to this group of students and the target situation.

Over the past years, there has been a wide discussion: is it true that an English teacher conducts essentially professional courses, even with a certificate of retraining? The option of teaching a teacher of special subjects to the English language ESP is offered. The contradiction lies in the fact that the scientific, educational and professional communities did not come to a common opinion on this issue: this means that the teacher of the English language EGP must pass specialization in the methodology of vocational training, professional psychology, external and internal factors of the professional environment, and also to study course Prospects for socio-economic development of the industry, a course on finance, professional law and scientific and methodological support (Kuznetsov, 2015).

The second option: the teacher of vocational training passes the English language courses ESP and independently teaches this discipline. In this case, it should be certified in a number of disciplines: English phonetics, theoretical and practical English grammar, English teaching methods, psychology, pedagogy, androgyny.
We are inclined to the first version, since the university gives the basic knowledge bases for all disciplines and the methods of their independent obtaining in the presence of a modern media base. And, since knowledge requires constant updating, a modern competitive specialist can independently supplement and improve both skills in English and professional skills in further work.

**Conclusion**

These approaches, combining the study of subject discipline and a foreign language as a tool for mastering subject knowledge, is the essence of EU policy on the basis of bilingual education to convert students to European countries. (Bloor, 1998) The ESP methodology differs from the EGP methodology, as the training on the ESP course is more specific and specific, and the teacher is no longer the primary information carrier and the source of professional knowledge (Chilingaryan, 2014). He acts in accordance with the basic principles of pedagogy cooperation: he interacts with students, relying on their professional knowledge and small experience, selects materials to create a real authentic integration of special professional disciplines. (Astashova et al., 2018)

In this article, we analysed the most effective methods in teaching English for special purposes both for students and specialists in the framework of corporate training. We touched upon the problem of preparing students and specialists for English in the professional sphere. The study revealed significant contradictions in the different approaches to ESP learning. The roles and functions of the instructor at the present stage of training were examined, the need for the correspondence of the goals and content of the learning process to the needs of the trainees, oriented to the development of the student's personality and his competitiveness with the purpose of his further prestigious employment was proved. The motivation of job descriptions and prospects of high quality of knowledge at corporate courses in the professional field in English with the purpose of further career growth is determined.

**About the Authors:**

**Dyorina Natalya V.**, Ph. D. of Philological Sciences, Associate Professor, Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Education in the Humanities Institute, Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia. Research interests include the English language, English and Russian literature, cognitive linguistics, semantics, discourse, etc. Author of about 70 publications, including 5 monographs, textbooks. [https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0613-0864](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0613-0864)

**Antropova Lyudmila I.**, D. Sc. of Philology Sciences, Full Professor, Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Education in the Humanities Institute, Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia. Research interests include the English language, the German language, cognitive linguistics, semantics, discourse, etc. Author of about 50 publications, including 3 monographs, textbooks. [https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0496-139X](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0496-139X)

**Zalavina Tatyana Yu.**, Ph. D. of Philological Sciences, Associate Professor, Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Education in the Humanities Institute, Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia. Research interests include the French language, the
German language, cognitive linguistics, semantics, discourse, etc. Author of about 50 publications, including 3 monographs, textbooks. https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0210-7963

References


The Influence of Lecturers’ Language Style toward Higher Students’ Psychological Condition in Indonesia

Batmang Batmang
Arabic Education Department, Teacher Training and Education Faculty
Institut Agama Islam Negeri Kendari, Kendari, Indonesia

Fahmi Gunawan
English Education Department, Teacher Training and Education Faculty
Institut Agama Islam Negeri Kendari, Kendari, Indonesia

Iskandar Abdul Samad
English Education Department, Teacher Training and Education Faculty
Syiah Kuala University, Banda Aceh, Indonesia

Mohd Shamsuri Md Saad
Center of Languages and Human Development, Universiti Teknikal Malaysia
Melaka, Malaysia

Abstract
Human beings need to interact and communicate with each other in their lives. This interaction and communication may appear in different language styles. This is much more influenced by a situation or place where communication takes place. In class, for example, the language utilized by lecturers in the classroom is different from others. This research aims at exploring lecturers’ language style and its implication to student’s psychological condition in Indonesia. The main question in this research is what kind of language style used by the lecturer in the learning process? does the using of lecturers’ language style influence students’ psychological condition? What are the factors that affect the presence of lecturers’ language style? This research used the grounded theory method by Keraf language style theory (2006), perlocutionary act theory of Austin (1962), and Leech’s politeness theory (1983). This research was conducted at Institut Agama Islam Negeri Kendari, Indonesia. Observation, in-depth interviews, and documentation were used as data collection. The results indicated that (1) there were two kinds of lecturers’ language styles which are always delivered to students, namely language style based on sentence structures and language style based on directness and indirectness of meaning (2) the using of that language style has a great influence on students’ psychological condition. There are three psychological conditions of the students, they are motivation, self-efficacy, and interpersonal relation. Each of them creates a positive and negative condition, (3) The using of language styles were influenced by some factors, namely culture and ethnicity.

Keywords: Higher education, Language Style, Psychological Condition, University lecturer

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1. Introduction

A lecturer in an institute is one of the important factors that can realize the education quality. Qualified educator determines the successfulness of education goal achievement (Akiba et all, 2007). Without the presence of competent and professional lecturers, educational purposes are not expected to be achieved. Lecturer, in addition, served to transform, develop, and disseminate science, technology, and the arts through education, research, and community service (Surya, 2011) as well as to create an atmosphere of learning process that can attract attention and motivate students (Crosby & Harden, 2000; Zrekat, Abu Bakar & Latif, 2016).

To create a conducive learning environment, lecturers use a variety of language style. Each of them has a typical style in presenting ideas and concepts, develop research, do the devotion, and spread knowledge (Saleema, Ali, & Ab Rashid, 2018). In this case, the language style is delivered as a way for them to express themselves (Bell, 1984; Afifi, 1995; Liliweri, 2011). In a speech event, the style of the language as a medium of communication has a huge influence (Puripunyavanich & Soontornwipast, 2018). It should be easily accepted and understood that the purpose of the speech act is successfully done. The utterances produced can reflect the personal character of the speaker. The better a person's style, the better the people vote against him—conversely, the worse of a person's language style, the worse ratings given to him anyway.

In a speech event, language styles have some particular effects on the audience (Davison, 1983; Djajasudarma, 2012). In this regards, Austin (1968) and Searle (1992) call this with the perlocutionary act. It is an utterance that contains or has the power of influence to those who listen (Wijana et all., 2009). The power of these influences can intentionally or unintentionally be created by the speakers. It is clear that the lecturer's language intentionally or unintentionally gives a psychological impact on students as learners. The psychological impact can take the form of self-motivation, self-efficacy, and the creation of good interpersonal relationships in vice versa. Increasingly, some experts agree that culture, language, and social factors are being recognized as having an impact on learning (Hainer et all., 1990). Moreover, the use of various language style from lecturers is influenced by culture and ethnicity factors. Based on the above background, this research is important to know and discuss (1) the form of the language style of lecturers to students when teaching and examining students' final project processing, (2) the psychological impact of students due to the style of the language, and (3) the external factors which caused the language style used.

Research on language style has been widely discussed, but limited to the question of the style of the language itself, such as the style of language in twitter (Yunita, 2014), the language style speech by president Suharto (Agustin, 2008), the style of the language in the novel Dreamer (Amalia, 2010) and style language in newspaper caricatures (Firman, 2010), and the style of language lecturers in subjects sociolinguistic (Sabila, 2015). Language style that is associated with pragmatic or pragmastylistic also widely discussed, such speech acts of perlocution in preaching of Ustazd Maulana (Nafianti, 2012), the perlocutionary power on cigarette advertisement discourse (Cahyani, 2013), and perlocutionary act on language style of Mario Teguh (Qaniah, 2016). However, the discussion of pragmastylistic related to the student's psychological condition is still rare. There is only an article that discusses the lecturer’s language style, but it only discuss academic emotions of the students (Gunawan & Kadir, 2017). Based on
those phenomena, this research was aimed at examining the influence of lecturers’ language style toward higher students’ psychological condition in Indonesia.

2. Method
This research is a qualitative descriptive study using a grounded theory method. It was conducted by observing the language style of lecturers to students both in teaching and examining the final project in Indonesia, particularly at Institut Agama Islam Negeri Kendari (IAIN Kendari), Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia. The sample was taken by purposive sampling (Moleong, 2001; Gunarwan, 2002) where the researchers built up the sample that is satisfactory to the researchers need (Cohen et all., 2007). Then, 15 lecturers whose age are in around 30-60 years old were chosen and observed. Data collection was carried by depth interviews and recording (Sudaryanto, 1993; Mahsun, 2005; Sugiyono, 2014) with lecturers in four faculties (as amount numbers of faculties in IAIN Kendari) and 30 students (as the students of each lecturer). Interviews with lecturers in each faculty conducted to determine the cause of language styles chosen, meanwhile the interview and questionnaires also given to the students in order to identify the psychological effects they received from the lecturers. To analyze this results study, researchers used the theory of language style by Keraf (2006), perlocutionary act theory of Austin (1962), and the theory of politeness by Leech (1983).

3. Result and Discussion
This research reveals that the lecturers’ language styles to students in teaching and examining test of students’ thesis classified into two issues, namely, (1) language style based on sentence structures, and (2) language style based on directness and indirectness of meaning. On the other hand, those language styles affected students in their high or low on motivation, self-efficacy and their interpersonal relationships. The factors that affect the appearance of the style of language lecturers were cultural factors and ethnicity.

3.1 Lecturers’ Language Style toward their Students
The use of language styles by lecturers at IAIN Kendari when teaching and examining students’ final project were very varied. But overall, the lecturers use two kinds of style, namely the style based on sentence structures and the style based on directness and indirectness of meaning as formulated by Keraf (2006). Language style based on sentence structures focuses on the importance of its word order, as climax style of language. Meanwhile, language style based on directness and indirectness of meaning focus on explicit and implicit meaning. The former is called by rhetorical style and the latter is called by figurative style. Here is an example of the use of force language in an academic context.

Table 1.
Climax language style

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>Lecturer</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(Study more in reciting Qur’an! Don’t be too much! At least you can read it. Eventually, you will know and be fluent in reading Qur’an).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2.  
**Oxymoron language style**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>A lecturer utterance who suddenly barged long line of friends who wanted to pay tuition at the counter of the Faculty</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer’s utterances</td>
<td>Kau tidak lihat antrean panjang teman-temanmu ini. Kalau saya sih, tidak ada masalah. Tapi teman-temanmu ini. Kau ini pakai saja jilbab besar sebagai identitas Islam yang baik, Jangan hanya sekadar JILBAB BESAR, tetapi perbaiki juga perilakumu. Orang sholat saja antri. (Didn’t you see long lines of your friends have? (queue). To me, it’s ok. No problem. But what about your friends?. You're just wearing the big hijab as a good Muslim identity, but do not just wear a big headscarf, correct your behavior!. Even in praying, people also in the queue).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3.  
**Sarcasm language style**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>A lecturer utterance to correct his student’s mistakes in writing Arabic research proposals.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>Jangan anda berharap, pembimbingmu itu mengkutu-kutui dari kata per kata. Karena waktu yang diberikan itu sangat <em>qasir</em>. <em>Ya Mustahil</em>. (Don’t hope your advisor look at every single word in your writing proposal! Due to the time given that was very short and limited. It is impossible, Indeed).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.  
**Simile language style**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Context</th>
<th>A lecturer utterance to a student who wanted to sign his study planning legalization (KRS) in the educational staff room.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Saya yang mau bapak tandatangani KRS saya. (I want you to sign my KRS).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>Bahasamu kaya direktur saja. Perbaiki bahasamu. Bicaralah yang baik. Duduk dahulu. Tanyakan kepada para staff yang bertugas. Tidak semacam itulah. (Your language pretends as if you are directur. Revise your language, speak politely!. You should sit down first and then ask the staff on duty. Don’t be like that!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 discusses climax language style as one of the language styles based on sentence structures. Climax style is a style which its quality, quantity, and intensity of the sentence are progressively increasing (Keraf, 2006). The style appears in conversation a lecturer to students to facilitate the reading of the Koran. He says that the "Study more in reciting Qur’an! Don’t be too much! At least you can read it. Eventually, you will know and be fluent in reading Qur’an." These utterances appeared because of the behavior of a student who wanted to test the proposal had not been capable in reading Qur’an. In fact, one of the requirements to be able to progress and pass the examination is by the fluency of reading Qur’an. The lecturer’s advice were done gradually as a
series of events. He said that even though we do not know how to read the Quran, we must take the time even only 2 or 3 paragraphs to read everyday. If it was done consistently, we would be getting smarter and more fluent.

Table 2 discusses oxymoron as one of the language styles of rhetoric. Oxymoron is a style which has a contradiction between its parts (Keraf, 2006). This style of language appears on the utterance "but do not just wear a big headscarf, correct your behavior!" The contradiction between veiling its part lies in the phrase big and correct behavior. Great hijab or big headscarf is a woman's identity who is devoting in Islam religion, law-abiding, and obeying its rules. Obedience is demonstrated not only a religious symbol, but also the behavior of students religious attitudes in the campus. A female Muslim by big headscarf should not perform acts that are considered poor by many people. Not in the line up in a queue when re-registration of students took place is one of the bad behaviors. Therefore, a female Muslim who wear hijab should improve her behavior to follow the rules in a way to queue to show her obedience.

Language style in the table (3) is classified into sarcasm style as one of the figurative styles. Sarcasm is a style that expressing upset and angry by using rude words (Keraf, 2006). The style is evident in the language of the verb phrase “mengkutui-kutui” or looks at every single word. Mengkutui derived from the ticks, which means that such small animal lice that were in the children's heads. Mengkutui means an action for fleas or in this case look at every single word. The act of grooming is hard to do and requires a lot of time. It is certainly impossible to do by people who are very solid daily activities, especially before graduation. Editing student thesis classified the act for fleas. This is because of what it takes a long time, requires precision, and impossible for a lecturer who had a solid agenda.

Table (4) describes simile as one of the figurative styles as well. Simile language style is a style that comparing one object with another object and always uses comparison (Keraf, 2006). The language style was classified to be stylistic comparison since the utterance about to compare the speech of students who signed KRS's speech to his staff a director who is a command. In fact, this speech was delivered by a student to one of the lecturers who earn additional duties. Inappropriately, such a speech act delivered by a student to one of the lecturers who had a solid agenda.

3.2. The Impact of Language Style on Students’ Psychological Condition
Austin (1962) made the emphasis on the purpose of speakers (lecturer), that it brings about of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentences, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance. He never neglected the effect of the hearer on the action being performed by the speakers. On the contrary, he even distinguished two relevant effects that the perlocutionary effect may cause the achievement of a perlocutionary object or the production of a perlocutionary sequel (Qiang, 2013).

In essence, each individual has a different style with other individuals, especially in communication. The difference would seem from the language style component containing locutions acts, illocutionary acts and perlocution acts. As a perlocution act, lecturers’ language style had an impact on the psychological state of their students. The psychological impact of this
form of high or low motivation, self-efficacy, and interpersonal relationships among lecturers and students. It can be seen on the table described previously.

Table (1) discusses climax style as one style of languages based on sentence structures. This style of language which addressing lecturer advice to improve the reading Qur'an have a great effect on the student's motivation. Interviews showed that He felt more motivated to improve his reading al-Quran because it was considered by his lecturer.

Table (2) which discusses oxymoron style investigates the major discrepancy between the use of headscarves and Islamic behavior which provided two psychological effects on a student's self. According to interviews with the student explained that the criticisms from the lecturer have a positive motivation to be able to improve her behavior to be better. She became motivated to be patient in doing something, including to be in a long line. On the other hand, to make the pattern of interpersonal relationships better. She previously who was not too familiar with the lecturer then became more familiar. She formerly was rare religious and her academic consultation with the lecturer was becoming more intense and better communicable.

In contrast to the psychological effect on the table (1-2), the table (3), which discusses the sarcasm language style as one stylistic figurative providing psychological effects such as disruption of a student's self-efficacy. Interviews showed that the language style of sarcasm on the table (3) make these students felt incapable by itself as the formulation of the theory of Banduras’ work (1995) and completing a research proposal according to expectations. Since the self-efficacy had been disrupted, the motivation to complete a research proposal became low so that it made the student drop and take a long time to recover from himself perception. As a result, he was also rare either lecture or consult with the supervisor and examiner to pursue in the research seminar. However, the table (4) which discusses stylistics simile as one stylistic figurative tells about a lecturer who uttered criticism directly made the student to use a more polite speech when committing communication. It affected the positive impact. Based on the interview, the student was aware to be more careful in choosing the right diction when committing communication with anyone on any issue.

3.3 Factors Affecting The Emergence of Lecturers' Language Style
Among the factors behind the emergence of language style of lecturers to students, the factor which tended to appear was ethnicity as social factors. Ethnicity refers to the meaning of a group that has certain cultural traits that distinguish it from others. One characteristic of the culture that is the aspect of language. The lecturers at IAIN Kendari mostly from Ethnic Muna, Makassar, Bugis, Buton, and minority ethnic Tolaki, Java, Aceh and Padang who have different language styles. Lecturers who are ethnic Muna (Dila, 2008), as well as lecturers ethnic Makassar (Bahfiarti, 2012), Madura (Muhaimin, 2010) and Batak (Simatupang et all., 2015) were more likely to use speech directly and styles that were straightforward, firm, tone of voice loud and tended to be high. Whereas, the lecturer's language styles from some ethnics like; Bugis, Buton, Java, Padang were more likely to use indirect speech, softly, and low tone (Martin et all., 2008; Revita, 2013; Halim et all., 2015). The use of direct speech impressed expressive and more likely to use a style assertion and opposition, while the speech was not immediately impressed impressive and more likely to use the language style of satire and comparison. In addition to the factors of ethnicity, cultural
factors are also behind the rise of style. Culture is the mind, intellect, and customs. Thus, culture is the product of the mind or thought. Certainly, culture lecturer Muna-Makassar different ethnic with ethnic Bugis and Buton lecturers. If in the Muna-Makassar culture often used direct utterance, the culture of Bugis, Buton, Java and Padang preferred to use the indirect meaning of the utterance.

The issue of language lecturers style that influenced on the psychological state of the student still rarely performed. This is because of discussion only partially discuss one without connecting with others. The researchers can find many articles that discuss the style of the language from a variety of perspectives (Kameda, 2001) and perlocutionary act from various perspectives as well. However, the researchers did not find any particular articles that discuss interdiscipline style that relates to a person's psychology. In some psychology researches, the discussion was only on the issue of motivation (Zimmerman et all., 1992), interpersonal relationships (Frymier et all., 2000) and self-efficacy (Lent et all., 1984; Bandura et all., 1996) without connecting with other disciplines of science. Therefore, it can be said that the style of language discussed in the concept of pragmatic and connected with the problem of psychological conditions is a new thing and requires a further longer discussion.

Hence, to provide a comparison of language style with its’ influence on the psychological state of students in Indonesia with other countries requires a long process. However, the thing to do is to compare the style of language lecturers in Indonesia and the style of language lecturers in other countries do. In America, people tend to use direct speech act (Wenli, 2011) because they have faith in the principles of freedom and rights in the opinion. While in Japan and China which has a principle of peace and order contained in Confucianism is more likely to use indirect speech act (Wenli, 2011). They listen more and do more than talk. On the other hand, Finns tend to use indirect speech act (Ting-Toomei, 1999) and the Indian people prefer to use direct speech act (Cohen, 2004; Nishimura et all., 2008). To find out more about the impact of direct and indirect speech to the psychological state of students in these countries requires further research.

4. Conclusion
This study found that the language style is important in establishing communication between lecturers and students. With the style of language, students can be motivated to study harder, diligently go to college and in vice versa, students can be lazy in studying, doing assignments, and lazy to go to college. The study also concluded that the language style of lecturers to students are classified into two, namely, language style based on sentence structures and language style based on directness and indirectness of meaning. Because in the style of language there is a perlocution act, then the lecturers’ language style had an impact on the psychological condition of students that were (1) motivation, (2) self-efficacy, and (3) the pattern of interpersonal relationships. Additionally, the advent of the use of force against students of language faculty is influenced by cultural aspects and ethnicity. Finally, this study shows that lecturers should use proper diction when communicating with students, not perfunctory. Lecturers should use language that has many charges of advice, encouragement, motivation to the students, not in vice versa, because it can be fatal to the students themselves.
About the Authors:

Batmang is a senior lecturer at Institut Agama Islam Negeri Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia. He has been teaching at the university since 2000. He completed his PhD in applied Linguistics from Universitas Negeri Jakarta, Indonesia in 2013. ID Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3901-9983

Fahmi Gunawan is a senior lecturer at Institut Agama Islam Negeri Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia. He has been teaching at the university since 2008. He has published articles in some reputable journals. His research interest is Linguistics, Language and Education, Language and Islamic Studies. ID Orcid: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5274-0279

Iskandar Abdul Samad is a senior lecturer at Syiah Kuala University. He has been teaching at this university since 2003. He completed his PhD in Applied Linguistics from University of New England (UNE), Australia in 2015. Before that he completed his Master degree in Applied Linguistics from Macquarie University (MQ), Australia in 2007. ID Orcid. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2089-9418

Mohd Shamsuri Md Saad is a Head of Department at the Department of Human Development, Centre for Languages and Human Development, Universiti Teknikal Malaysia Melaka (UTeM). Internationally, he is a Visiting Fellow at the Universitas Muhammadiyah Yogyakarta (UMY) Indonesia. ID Orcid. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2269-5494

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Silence of Thai Students as a Face-Saving Politeness Strategy in a Multicultural University Context

Eric A. Ambele (Corresponding author)
Department of Western Languages, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Prince of Songkla University, Pattani, Thailand

Yusop Boonsuk
Department of Western Languages, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences
Prince of Songkla University, Pattani, Thailand

Abstract
Silence as a communicative act in face-to-face spontaneous interaction has been under-investigated in linguistic politeness research in Thailand. With the recent increase in the influx of foreign students gaining admission into Thai universities yearly, the result is that such universities will be a coexistence of cultures. This study therefore aims to investigate the situational face-threat contexts where Thai students use silence as a politeness strategy. This aim is guided by the main research question of what different situational face-threat contexts could lead to the use of silence by Thai students in their foreign-peer interactions in a Thai multicultural university context. Twenty students’ interactions were sampled using micro-socio-ethnographic technique, with data from observation, interview, and questionnaire. The main findings revealed that: uncertainty of language proficiency, expected hurting words from interlocutor, and unexpected negative change in hearer’s mood, amongst others, were the main circumstances where Thai students use silence as a face-saving politeness strategy. The findings imply better intercultural awareness in multicultural university contexts.

Keywords: Foreign-peer interaction, multicultural context, silence, Thai university students

Introduction
Silence has been the focal point of pragmatic research interest in the Western Societies within the last two decades (Tannen & Saville-Troike, 1985; Jaworski, 1997). As one of the most essential communication signal, silence represents a non-verbal human behaviour. For Hall (1959), silence represents the cultural beliefs and activities of a given group. To this notion, Hall (1959) and Lehtonen and Sajavaara (1985) demonstrate that culture and communication are inextricably the same; culture determines behaviour. If someone wishes to interact with a person from a foreign culture, he/she should recognise the significance of linguistic and non-linguistic patterns. Silence can therefore be interpreted as culture-specific (Kurzon, 1998), a multifaceted, complex and complicated linguistic issue (Basso, 1988; Braithwaite, 1990; Saville-Troike, 1985) because its interpretation is ambiguous and relies to a greater extent on the socio-cultural norms of the society in which it is used, and the situational context (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Sifianou, 1997). Regarding the research context, Thailand, few studies have been found to investigate the use of silence. To the best of our knowledge, more specifically, research studies investigating the use of silence as a face-saving politeness strategy among Thai students interacting with their international friends in a southern Thai university have been scarce.

Lehtonen & Sajavaara (1985) explain that silence as a communication tool can be used to change the verbal intention to non-verbal channel of communication. To support this, Poyatos (2002) asserted that “Linguistics has wasted many research opportunities offered by silence . . . rarely have linguists referred to silence as a component of interaction’’ (p. 99). It is from this background that in characterizing the notion of silence, researchers perceive it as part of communication, as the speaker chooses to express him or herself by silence when it is his or her turn to talk (Goffman, 1981; Crown & Feldstein, 1985).

Within this study, silence as a face-saving politeness strategy is operationalised within the situational context of the students, deliberately avoiding or terminating conversation (the absence of talk or where talk might relevantly occur) with their international peers on campus, in situations that might threaten the face of the interlocutor if the conversation continues. This study, therefore, seeks to explore how Thai students (in a multicultural Thai university setting) use silence as a face-saving politeness strategy during peer social interactions on campus.

The relationship between silence and politeness strategy employed by these students, as well as the different situational contexts (situations which can lead to face threats) wherein these students use silence as a face-saving politeness strategy in interactions, is also part of the aim of this study. In other words, considering the fact that silence is a complex and complicated phenomenon, this paper attempts to discuss in a preliminary way when and why Thai students (engaging in English communicative interactions) use silence as a face-saving politeness strategy in order to draw some implications for Thai students’ social interactions in a multicultural university setting. This research aims will be achieved using the following research questions:

1. How do Thai students use silence as a face-saving politeness strategy in their foreign-peer interactions?
2. How do different situational contexts influence Thai students’ use of silence when interacting with their foreign peers?
Silence and Politeness

It is crucial to investigate the pragmatic function of silence to study the use of silence as a face-saving politeness strategy (Ariel, 2010 and Ambele, 2014). As a politeness strategy, silence can be used in social interaction to avoid confrontation and disagreement (Jaworski, 1993, 1997; Sifianou, 1997; Jaworski & Stephens, 1998; Nankane, 2006), whereas the idea of politeness is based on the concept of face which is a technical concept related to an individual’s public/private self-image (Yule, 1996). Therefore, politeness can be defined as linguistic expressions that show awareness of a person’s reputation and create a friendly atmosphere for better communication (Lynch, 1985; Tannen, 1990; Jaworski, 1993). From this stand point, it is not exaggerated to conclude that there is a significant relationship between keeping silence and showing politeness when interaction happens. For clarification, studies have shown how different forms of avoidance can be adopted as an advantage in problematic discourse. For example, Nankane (2006) argues that ‘opting out’ from conversation is used strategically by interactants in face-threatening situations, for example, in using complaints. Likewise, Tannen (1990), Jaworski (1993) and Buddharat et al. (2017) demonstrate how silence is employed to keep the channel of communication open, manage conflict and emotional tension, and to lead to or signal an end in communication between groups of people. For example, intense (verbal) arguments between friends may jeopardize their relationship, and the avoidance of confrontation through silence may minimise the potentially damaging effects of an ensuing fight. Similarly, being silent for a while is common in situations preceding the exchange of leave-taking formulae, which are the verbal markers signalling the end of an interaction. In Thailand, specifically, a study conducted by Hongladarom & Hongladarom (2005) illustrate that Thais are more likely to utilize silence to withdraw from disagreement and to prevent their further argument. The finding also showed that silence among Thais is perceived as a polite nonverbal behaviour which they can minimize face threat with the hearer.

Sifianou (1997) further explains how silence is used as a face-saving politeness strategy in multicultural interactions in Greek and English societies based on Brown & Levinson's (1987) politeness theory. Brown & Levinson (1987) do not focus on silence in their theory. They only referred to it as "Don’t do the FTAs" without including it in their theory. Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) model of politeness theory is principally based on the notion of face as adapted from Goffman, 1967, as cited in Ambele, 2014. Goffman (1967) defines face as “the positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact. Face is an image of self-delineated regarding approved social attributes” (p. 5). In other words, it refers to a speaker’s reputation, good name, and sense of social identity (Ambele, 2014, p. 17). It is the emotional and social feelings of self that can be lost, damage, maintained, or enhanced which an individual has and expects others to recognize (Yule, 1996; Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987; Odebunmi, 2003). Regarding the definitions of face stated, it can be concluded that the face is socially or interactively based which exists in response to the presence of or interactions with others. It is a specific image we present to others; they prefer to be seen in a certain way by certain groups of people. Therefore, one should be aware of any possible actions that can pose a threat to a person’s face. In Thailand where this study was conducted, the concept of “face” also plays a significant role on showing politeness and giving respect in social interaction (Ukosakul, 2005). Simply put, there is a relationship between face and politeness in Thai culture. Thais always perceive that maintaining other people’s face is one of the main politeness strategies
because they often associate the face’s concept to their dignity, self-esteem, prestige, reputation and pride. Consequently, face is measured as a root value underlying Thai social interactions. Examples of some politeness strategies that are used to maintain one’s face include indirectness, avoidance of confrontation or strong criticism, and suppression of negative emotions (Ukosakul, 2005).

According to Brown & Levinson (1978, 1987), face has two specific types of desires: negative face (the need and the desire not to be imposed upon) and positive face (the need and desire to be liked, appreciated, affirmed or approved of). They suggest that all verbal activities or speech in general imply a positive or a negative face threat to either the speaker or the hearer. They call this strategy "Face Threatening Acts" or (FTAs). To illustrate, FTAs mean that a person may say something against the expectation of another speaker who is concern with saving his/her public face. This can be considered as a threat to his/her face (Yule, 1996). In order to redress the potential threat, the speaker can say something which is called "face saving act" (Yule, 1996). According to Brown & Levinson (1987, p. 14), FTAs are controlled by three social variables or factors: 'social distance' between the interlocutors, the ‘relative power’ and the status of imposition that are involved in FTAs. They propose five strategies in dealing with FTAs which can be illustrated in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Possible strategies for doing FTAs (adapted from Brown & Levinson, 1987)](image)

To explain the above strategies for the purpose of clarity, bald on record strategy is a direct way, unambiguous, and concise way of an utterance. The speakers say whatever they prefer to say. Face is ignored or irrelevant here. Bald on record strategy could be expressed by both positive and negative politeness. The former means the speaker thinks that the listener wishes to be respected: "Could you please close the window?" The latter, on the other hand, means that the listener wishes to be respected and the speaker may impose on him/her by asking him/her to do something: "Close the window". Off-record strategy, on the other hand, is an indirect way of an utterance. The communicative intention of the act is ambiguous or vague. The speakers say something which is more general or different from what they mean, for example, “It’s hot in here” to mean: ‘open the window’ or ‘turn on the fan/AC’.
Brown & Levinson (1987) ignored the fifth strategy "Don’t do the FTAs", since it provides "no interesting reflexes". Sifianou (1997) criticises Brown & Levinson for neglecting "Don’t do the FTAs" strategy. According to Sifianou (1997), Brown & Levinson (1987) discovered the relationship between silence and politeness, but they considered silence as lacking in politeness. Tannen (1985, p. 97) indicates that 'silence is the extreme manifestation of indirectness’, because the speaker says nothing but means something. Thus, silence is correlated with off-record politeness, "because both positive politeness and negative politeness are usually enacted through the elaboration of redress action" (Sifianou, 1997, p. 73). Sifianou (1997) claims that it is wrong to ascribe silence to the highest degree of “Don’t do the FTAs", as silence has many functions in interaction. Silence also manifests positive, negative or off-record politeness (Sifianou, 1997).

Yule (1996, p. 62) refers indirectly to the relationship between silence and politeness through "self and other: say nothing" strategy. That is, when a person asks for something without uttering a word he/she depends on others to recognize his/her want (for instance, when someone searches his or her pockets or bag for a pen and the other person who sits next to him/her offers him/her a pen. In this event, this person employs silence to avoid a face threatening act).

**Methodology**

This study adopted a qualitative approach in investigating the research phenomenon.

**Participants**

The participants in this study were Thai university students studying in an international programme in a Thai multicultural university in Southern Thailand. The programme is a true representation of a cross-cultural setting with students from different countries around the world. The Thai students’ social (out-of-class) interaction with their foreign peers is the focus of this investigation. English is the medium of instruction in this programme and all students admitted, including Thais are supposed to be fluent in English. The students are between their second and fourth year of study, thus, assumed to have had enough social interaction in English with each other on campus. The twenty Thai students whose interactions were considered for analysis in this study were of different age and gender.

**Instruments and procedure**

This study adopted a qualitative design. An ethnographic approach was used to answer the research questions. The study adopted the micro-socio-ethnographic technique which involved an analysis of small-scale events and processes, such as dyadic communication in social settings (Al-Harahsheh, 2012, p. 254). Data for this study was collected through observing Thai students’ social interactions with their foreign peers in a multicultural university setting, interviews with the students, and questionnaire to elicit the circumstances in which they use silence as a face-saving politeness strategy. Before we started collecting the data, the students were given a lecture of about 15 minutes on the topic of investigation to ensure that they understood the research purpose.

The Thai students were informally observed (for one semester) as they interacted with their foreign peers out of class - during school activities and at lunch times in order to reduce their uneasiness during interactions. Meanwhile, ethical procedures in data collection were strictly observed. Within this time, the researchers made field notes of the different observed face threat
situations where the Thai students chose to be silent (as a face-saving politeness strategy) during interactions with their foreign peers, and why.

The information from the field notes were used to design the interview questions. The interview questions focussed only on those observed situations where the Thai students used silence as a face-saving politeness strategy. The interviews were done within the same day or week of the observed interaction so that the students can still remember the situation and respond to the questions appropriately. The students were asked about why they chose silence in these situations, whether it was just because they didn’t know what to say or because they were trying to save face or avoid face threat. This was done to validate the field note data. Only responses where the students said they used silence as a face-saving strategy were considered, and the rest discarded, in the final analysis.

The responses from the interviews were later grouped into different face threat situations and used to design the open-ended questionnaire. The questionnaire required the Thai students to list other circumstances (when) in which they use silence as a strategy to avoid face threat, and why. This instrument was used here in order to elicit more data from the participants to enrich the findings. Regarding the questionnaire administration procedure, the researchers met with the 20 Thai students in a study room where the questionnaire was administered, after which they were submitted to the researchers and their responses used as data for analysis in this study.

Theoretical framework
Politeness as a strategic conflict avoidance (in this case, through silence) has a strong bearing within Brown & Levinson (1987) face-saving politeness approach. The basic role of politeness is in “its ability to function as a way of controlling potential aggression between interacting parties, or in the view of Ide (1989), that connect politeness with smooth communication or that of Leech (1983, p. 82) which entails avoiding disruption and maintaining social equilibrium and friendly relations” (Al-Harahsheh, 2012, p. 251). As reported by Al-khatib (2001), Al-Harahsheh (2012) and Ambele (2014), Brown & Levinson (1978, 1987) politeness approach gets its strength over other approaches in that its explanation is based on the basic notion of face; which is all about the self-image that everyone wants to protect and preserve in public. This framework is adopted as the main theoretical foundation against which the findings from this study will be interpreted. It shows when and how Thai university students use silence as a face-saving politeness strategy when interacting with their foreign peers.

Findings and Discussion
The relevance of politeness in conversation cannot be overemphasised because it represents the strength, or the depth of social interaction between speakers. In generally, conversation should be based on respect between/amongst participants. Ideally, the degree of politeness between people who are strangers is higher than that of friends. Strangers tend to produce more assessment or acknowledgment backchannels than friends do, to show more respect and interest in and for each other. However, in conversations between friends, the participants have more intimacy or familiarity and stronger relationships, so they do not feel the need to produce additional assessment backchannels. Silence is therefore tolerated and acceptable between friends. It is more awkward between strangers because they are distant and they do not have a strong social interaction.
Apparently, in conversations between friends, there are longer periods of silence than in conversations between strangers (the focus of this study).

This section sheds light on the different circumstances in which Thai university students in southern Thailand use silence as a face-saving politeness strategy when interacting with their foreign peers (be it departmental mates or friends) with the aim to maintain the relationship they share and keep the conversation flowing. The study found out that the circumstances under which these students’ recurrently use silence as face-saving politeness strategy are grouped according to their frequency, into different categories, as will be discussed in the following sub-sections.

Uncertainty of language proficiency
This happens to be the most commonly realised silence strategies among Thai students in general, especially when they are in situations where they have to communicate with foreigners. To be able to communicate effectively with other English speakers in the sense that they understand you when you speak and you understand them implies using the language in accordance with the norms of grammar and pronunciation, and other conventions of English language usage (Ambele, 2014). As a result, for fear of making mistakes in English or be judged wrongly as a ‘bad English speaker’ when a discussion is going on, the Thai student preferred to stay quiet. It should be noted here that the silence is not as a result of no knowledge on the topic under discussion but simply for fear of poor proficiency, as well as lack of confidence.

Expected hurting words from interlocutor
Silence (the deliberate avoidance of talk) is also considered a speech act because it entails not saying something with words but doing something at the same time with action. The Thai students in this study indicated this as one of the most common circumstances in which they employ silence in their interactions with their foreign peers. To them, if a conversation has been going on smoothly, and suddenly the speaker switched into something personal, such as, physical appearance (e.g. ‘how do I look?’) that will demand their personal opinion, then, they will be silent since he/she knows that what he/she will say (like ‘you have a weird hair style’) will hurt (threaten) the face of the foreign peer.

Unexpected change in the hearer`s mood/tone/gestures with negative implication
Depending on the discourse topic (example in 4.1), the discourse participants most at times change their mood especially when the discussion that used to please them, no longer interest them. For instance, during one of the interviews with the Thai students, most of them said once they were happily engaged in a seemingly interesting discussion with their foreign peers, say, about their brilliant performances in one of their courses, then, a foreign friend asked them about their grade in another course, they suddenly change their smile into a gloomy face; however pretending not to have understood the question. This calls for a further repeat of the question as a reluctant-to-respond technique. With this unexpected change in their (Thai students) mood/tone/gestures, they stay quiet and never respond to the question for fear of saying something else which might cause the friends (foreign students) to lose face in public.
Expected quarrel/fight during interaction
From the data, the students here say that some of their conversations with their foreign peers (especially among competitors) sometimes end in a quarrel/fight. In order to avoid this impending situation of a quarrel that may even end up leading to a fight, the Thai students stay silent, giving a deaf ear to whatever the other person is saying. This, they adopt from a popular saying “that the best answer to a fool is silence.” In another light, this can also be interpreted as a situation where different cultural practices come into play.

Defenceless situations
This refers to a situation in which the Thai student is vulnerable to utter words that is face-threatening to their foreign peers in a discussion where the speaker enjoys and wishes it continues. In such situations, the Thai students vehemently stay silent and just smile. Example of such defenseless situation is when a European foreign peers wants to talk about sex (openly) with a Muslim Thai student.

Unintelligent discussion where speaker’s presence is imperative
During a conversation of general interest, for instance, tourist sites in Thailand or food that is loved to be talked about by all, some Thai students take the issue too personal (especially when their foreign peer misrepresent Thailand or her culture in the discussion) that they no longer make sense in whatever is said. In this case, the Thai students stay quiet. Their silence here is not because they could not engage in the conversation, but is strategically use to avoid a situation where they could, in the process of correcting and clarifying the misrepresented information publicly to their foreign peers, get them angry. In this face threat situation, they simply stay silent to give the foreign peers the impression that his/her opinion is okay.

Fear of correcting a senior student in public
This strategy was observed in a small discussion group where a senior international student was explaining a concept to junior Thai students without knowing that one of these junior Thai students has a good mastery of the said concept. After his explanation, he asked if he did a good job as a way of assessing himself. All the junior students hailed his good oratory skill with words of praises (like, ‘it was a forensic explanation’), excluding one who just stayed quiet, as we observed and recorded in the field note. When we met him during the interview session and requested to know why he stayed quiet and did not hailed the senior student like the others, he said ‘because the senior student completely went off topic in his explanation and since I could not publicly correct him for fear of being rude, I stayed quiet’.

Speaker’s desire not to be interrupted
This strategy was commonly realised among these Thai students especially when engaged in a group discussion or public discussion with their foreign peers. Contributions to the discussion is done through conversation, turn after turn by each discourse participants. When it is an individual’s turn to speak, no matter what the speaker is saying, according to the principle of conversation, until he/she ends (conversation closing), then, can no one interrupt, except otherwise permitted by the speaker. Any attempt at interrupting when someone is speaking is considered impolite and rude, which is usually face-threatening as it is not only imposing on the speaker to stop but showing
dislike for what the speaker is saying. As a way of avoiding this situation, the Thai students say they use silence.

**Conclusion**

Silence is practiced in conjunction with embarrassment to indicate hesitation and interruption. Interruption, as a cultural practice, is unwelcomed by Thais, more so students, in conversations, whether the interlocutors are friends or strangers as the general Thai society is one that views politeness positively. The interrupted speaker may ask the interrupter to give him/her a chance to complete his or her turn. For example, he/she may say, ‘I am still speaking’, ‘please listen,’ ‘do not interrupt me’. Silence is therefore an indication of politeness to the current speaker while he/she is talking. Also, silence as a face-saving politeness strategy was principally realised by these students in order to show respect and strengthen social rapport, as well to guarantee the continuation of the conversation. Moreover, the speaker may not have the desire to repeat him or herself for fear of expected and unexpected face threats. This enables the speaker to think of what to say next. Interestingly, the interlocutor tolerates this silence and hesitation, which are better than dealing with infelicities. Again, in another light, silence can be used in conjunction with hesitation in order to avoid infelicities that may disrupt the conversation or threatened the interlocutor’s self-image. The speaker therefore keeps silent for a while for fear of not expressing ideas about which he/she may not be sure of, because he/she aims to produce a planned and processed discourse, which is faultless. Therefore, silence can also be used as a strategy in social interaction to avoid confrontation and disagreement. The findings in this study corroborated with previous investigations on the different circumstances in which people exhibit positive politeness during interactions. Overall, besides being shy, exhibited by most Thais usually through overt silence, as a part of the Thai culture, in this study, however, Thai university students use silence as a positive politeness face-saving strategy when they interact in English with their foreign peers in a multicultural university setting. The findings from this study have potential implication for sociocultural awareness, thus, avoidance of such face-threat circumstances for better social interactions.

**About the Authors**

Eric A. Ambele is an English lecturer in the Department of Western Languages, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Prince of Songkla University. He is also a PhD candidate at King Mongkut’s University of Technology Thonburi. His research interest focuses on Language Variation in Discourse, World Englishes, and Innovative Research Methodology.

ORCiD ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2206-8746

Dr. Yusop Boonsuk is now working as an English lecturer in the Department of Western Languages, Faculty of Humanities and Social Sciences, Prince of Songkla University. His research interest focuses on World Englishes, English as a Lingua Franca, English as an International Language, Sociolinguistics, English Language Teaching, Language Beliefs, Attitudes, and Identity. ORCiD ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3923-6163
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Silence of Thai Students as a Face-Saving Politeness Strategy

Ambele & Boonsuk


Investigating Teacher Written Corrective Feedback as a Formative Assessment Tool

Khalid SAID
Ben M’Sik faculty of Arts and Humanities
Hassan II University, Morocco

Abdelouahid El MOUZRATI
ELT supervisor in Al Hoceima Directorate
Morocco

Abstract
The present study seeks to lay the foundations for a firmly-grounded understanding of Written Corrective Feedback (WCF) as a Formative Assessment (FA) tool through student writing. More specifically yet, it is concerned with examining the intricate correlation between Moroccan English Language Teachers’ (ELT) attitudes and practices with respect to the way they understand and apply FA by means of WCF on students’ written productions. To that end, the study seeks to investigate this issue in the light of the following guiding questions: What beliefs do Moroccan ELT teachers hold about FA and WCF? How do these teachers provide WCF to their students during the writing lesson? To address these questions, we have opted for a mixed method approach that includes questionnaires for 110 teachers, document analysis of 30 writing productions and a follow-up semi-structured interviews with teachers. Date has been interpreted through an Explanatory Sequential Design. Inspired by Lee’s (2009) analytical model and Perumanathan (2014) study, major findings have been presented regarding mismatches. These findings have revealed strong mismatches between teachers espoused beliefs concerning WCF, as a formative assessment tool, and their actual classroom practices. Finally, the study sets some implications for teachers, supervisors underlining the implementation of WCF in classroom practices.

Key words: Beliefs, formative assessment, feedback, mismatch, writing

Introduction

Research (Ellis, 2009; Borg, 2001; Burns, 1992; Lee, 2009) into the interplay between teachers’ beliefs and their influence on classroom practices have revealed that—students writing skills develop in proportion to their teachers’ perceptions of the role of WCF in fostering those skills. In the context of writing pedagogy and given the intricate interplay between formative assessment and written feedback, recent studies (Al Shahrani, 2013; Chen, 2012; Lee, 2009; Ho, 2014; Johansson & Nilsson, 2017; Perumanathan, 2014; Tuck, 2012, among others) have tried to uncover the beliefs that underlie teachers’ practices in order to identify the factors that contribute to effective feedback. This last argument provides the rationale for the present study.

In Morocco, the field of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), and especially the teaching of writing, has undergone many shifts and trends. These shifts and trends have found their way into an extensive body of research into writing pedagogy (Abouabdellkader, 1999; Bouziane, 1999, 2002; Chaibi, 1996; Idihiya, 1990; Habbaz & Lmqadem, 2017; Oulbouch & Zyad, 2015; Zyad, 2015).

Recent innovative approaches adopted by the Moroccan TEFL Guidelines (2007) like the Standards-based Approach (SBA) and the Competency-based Education (CBE) set relatively high expectations with regard to the teaching of the skill of writing as a process. The process approach to the teaching of writing calls for a change in teachers’ perception as well as practices concerning learners’ compositions. That is, writing needs to be viewed as a sustained process of drafting and revising where sources of feedback are student writers themselves, their peers and teachers. The current study aims to examine one of these sources of feedback, namely, teacher WCF as a formative tool to help learners become effective and independent writers.

Although the Moroccan Pedagogical Guidelines, ministerial notes, teachers’ guides continue to assert the importance of teacher WCF as a formative tool, very few studies have been made in the EFL domain to examine written teacher feedback from both students’ perspective and teachers’ perspective. Oulbouch and Zerhari (1994) find that “the general tendency was to ‘focus on surface-level features…such as grammar and mechanics [local issues] but little interest is attached to content and organizations [global issues]’” (p.33). In the same respect, Mabchour (1997) investigates the issue of WCF from a purely textual and an accuracy-driven perspective. These studies, it seems, have not attempted to question teachers’ and students’ perceptions of written feedback and its underlined potential in ensuring students’ language development, hence its formative role and value, which is the focus of the current study as mentioned earlier.

The following questions guide this research paper:

1. What beliefs do ELT teachers hold about Formative Assessment and WCF?
2. How do ELT teachers provide WCF to their students during the writing lesson?

Theoretical Framework

Formative Assessment

Formative Assessment (FA), as assessment for learning, constitutes an empirically well-grounded pedagogical perspective (Black & Wiliam, 1998a, b; Bloom, 1969; Bloom et al, 1971; Carless, 2012; Cowie & Bell, 1999; Crooks, 1988; Stiggens & Chappuis, 2005; Sadler, 1989, 2013;
Scriver, 1967; Tomlinson, 2006; Trochim, 1998; Wiliam, 2006, 2010; William & Thompson, 2008). According to Scriver (1967), the first to use the concept of ‘Formative Evaluation’, the term ‘formative’ is used to refer to the role that assessment could continually play to help refine and ameliorate the field and craft of syllabus design and curriculum development. However, Scriver’s premises is not elaborated ‘out of the box’ in that he perceives of evaluation as the end product of learning rather than an on-going process that takes place during teaching and learning.

Black and Wiliam (1998a) contend that the improvement of classroom assessment could result in the improvement of classroom learning on account that formative assessment can lead to significant learning gains and can help narrow the achievement gap while benefitting all learners. Sadler (1989), laying more emphasis on ‘learning outcomes’, argues that a theory of evaluation would have “less relevance for outcomes in which student responses may be assessed simply as correct or incorrect” (p.119).

**Written Corrective Feedback**

In the writing classroom, the merits of written feedback cannot be overlooked (Fisher & Frey, 2013; Harmer, 1983; Keh, 1990; Lam, 2017; Ur, 1996). When feedback on an essay or research paper is summative-oriented, there is less likelihood that it will change the quality of learners’ performance, as there is less room for them to redo, or rethink, their work (Fisher & Frey, 2013). Ellis (2009) outlines a typology of written feedback, which incorporated a variety of strategies that most researchers have adopted in their studies. Although Ellis’s typology continues to have a strong influence on both researchers and teachers, its academic appeal has been met with deep scrutiny (Van Beuningen et al,2008, 2012; Bitchener & Knoch,2010; Sheen,2007; sheen et al, 2009; Bitchener, 2008; Truscott & Hsu,2008).

**The Research Design**

First, recognizing the strengths and weaknesses of the quantitative and the qualitative methods, if used alone, the present study has relied on a mixed-method approach. Second, in view to having reliable data through different tools, our concern has been to check the validity of the results obtained from the three tools: document analysis, a questionnaire and a semi-structured interview.

As far as the interpretation of the study results is concerned, the “Explanatory Sequential Design”, which is typically a two-phase design to collecting quantitative and qualitative data at different times, has been opted for. The sampling design is the non-probability sampling. That fits this small-scale research study. The sample includes both males and females with varying teaching experience and taking into consideration the rural an urban difference (table 2). Subsequently, the study is conducted on a segment of the target population that is representative of the entire population concerning the most salient characteristics, namely gender, age, socio-cultural background, pre-service training, and teaching experience. The teaching experience is also so varied as far as seniority is concerned.

The teacher questionnaire is made up of four interrelated sections (table 1), in addition to the introduction and the respondents’ background. Each section corresponds to a specific research question. We opted for a 1-7 scale with the end values only anchored (e.g. to strongly disagree and
strongly agree). Pearson's correlation coefficient was calculated on the scores of the participants (teachers and students who completed the questionnaire twice. The correlation coefficients varies from 0.69 to 0.87 with an overall reliability that reaches \( r=0.90, p<0.001 \).

Table 1 Components of the Teachers’ Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Area of investigation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Section one</td>
<td>Teachers’ perceptions vis-à-vis FA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section Two</td>
<td>Teachers’ perceptions vis-à-vis WCF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section Three</td>
<td>Teachers’ implementation of WCF techniques</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Section Four</td>
<td>Challenges in implementing WCF</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Demographics of the Informants

One hundred and six EFL teachers from the directorates of El Kelaa Des Sraghana and Chefchaouen are the respondents of the teachers’ online questionnaire. To outline the features of our questionnaire respondents, we will describe the following features: the areas our informants work in, gender, age, work experience, and academic and professional qualifications (table 2 and 3).

Table 2: Distribution of teachers according to gender, area, school type and training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Teaching areas</th>
<th>School type</th>
<th>Previous training on WCF</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>Rural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ENS</td>
<td>CPR</td>
<td>FSE</td>
<td>CRMEF</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>51%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mismatches Concerning FA

First, the majority of the surveyed teachers (87%) show a strong agreement towards FA as an assessment for learning and not an assessment of learning. They have positively responded to statements about the purpose of FA to promote learning and enhance teaching. However, within the same section, more than 69% state that they award grades for students’ writing productions. This goes against the rationale of FA which aims at improving and polishing learners’ skills rather than making judgments and grading their productions. Another piece of evidence in support of this ‘graded’ oriented tendency comes from students’ questionnaire. The majority of the respondents claim that teachers award them grades from their writing productions. This explains why considerations of evaluation rather than assessment guide students’ reactions towards teachers’ feedback.
Second, 59% of the respondents believe that they feel confident in carrying out FA practices in the classroom. However, when interviewed, ALL the teachers admit they have no prior training on how to implement FA strategies in the classroom. Another source of contradiction comes from the analysis of teachers’ feedback on students writing productions which comes in a product-oriented ‘flavour’. Finally, 60.7% of the respondent teachers assume that students understand the purpose of formative assessment. Yet, this belief is not supported by students who do not see any value behind assessing their writing productions.

Mismatches Concerning Assumptions of WCF

First, the majority of the participants show strong agreement that there is a real need for teachers to provide WCF on students’ writing. However, only 18% strongly agree that WCF helps students learn to locate their own errors and analyse them. This means that teachers fail to figure out the formative role of WCF. Second, concerning WCF techniques, 68% claim that teachers should vary their error feedback techniques. This claim can be contrasted with teachers’ actual practice in correcting students’ writing productions, as well as from students’ surveys. In this respect, students ‘responses reveal that they felt uncomfortable about their teachers’ use of the same mode of feedback irrespective of the type and the peculiarity of the error.

Third, a considerable number of teachers (43.41% Strongly Agree, 49.46% Agree) believe that students need positive written feedback in order to motivate them. Yet, upon analysing the way teachers respond to students’ errors in writing, it seems that teachers address mainly the mechanical deficiencies in students’ writing. Another support for this mismatch comes from students’ questionnaire who strongly believe that teachers’ concern is to locate ‘weaknesses’ and negative areas in their feedback. Teachers’ writing comments tend to focus more on irregularities than merits of students’ products. This again runs against one of the basic principles in WCF which encourages teachers to make their feedback as motivational and as positive as possible.

Mismatches Concerning WCF Techniques

Teachers (through the survey as well as the interview) claim that they provide feedback on student errors selectively. They also argue, during the interview, that selective feedback is worth-providing on account that teachers save time and students get more focused feedback than holistic or comprehensive feedback. Such practice, however, is not consistent with their belief. When analysing their real feedback of students writing productions it appears that teachers opt for the comprehensive mode of feedback provision. Another support for this mismatch comes from students who also remark that teachers tend to correct all their mistakes.

The second mismatch is concerned with prioritising either form or meaning. During the interview, the majority of the teachers claim that they pay most attention to meaning and content. These teachers claim that quality of writing product depends not only on accuracy but also on the development of ideas and organization. Similarly, in the analysis of the results of the teachers’ questions it appears that 32% of the respondents claim to address the meaning or organization of the work. However, analysis of the students’ questionnaire shows that teachers focus on language form in their comments on student writing. This prioritisation of accuracy is also supported by evidence from feedback document analysis of students’ written productions which also reveals that teacher seem to attend to form over meaning.
Thirdly, during the interview as well through the questionnaires, teachers continue to assert themselves as the prime source of feedback. However, by analysing students’ questionnaire, it seems that students rarely turn to teachers to discuss the content of the feedback with their teachers and prefer, instead, to discuss it with their peers. The majority of the respondents continue to complain that teachers’ feedback is too vague and too general (58.3%).

As graph 1 clearly shows, the strategies that are mostly used by teachers when they correct their students’ writing assignments are: IWCF (17%), CWCF (16%) and Local issues WCF (16%). Such a fact can be accounted for by the teachers’ major concern of drawing students’ attention to almost all kinds of errors they commit with respect to their mastery of the target language form (local issues)

Teachers tend to tackle all kinds of mistakes throughout the students’ productions, hence the overuse of IWCF and CWCF, instead of targeting certain linguistic features at a time by being selective, thus using SWCF, which might be more helpful for students to develop their mastery of the target language gradually and confidently. Besides, by adopting the comprehensive, local and indirect approach, teachers might frustrate their students and demotivate them when the latter receives a paper tainted in red pen from top to bottom. According to research, selective error feedback on several patterns of error is more beneficial than comprehensive error treatment, on account that the latter is exhausting and overwhelming to both students and teachers.

What might increase students’ frustration is the absence or scarcity of positive comments as shown by the graphs. Teachers tend to focus on students’ errors and weaknesses and neglect positive points in students’ papers. Teachers should praise students’ achievements as well. By creating such a balance between positive and negative comments, students would be motivated to work on their areas of improvements to add them up to the few achievements they have realized so far. What we have noticed across the sample of students’ writings that we examined is that not only are teachers’ comments rare and harmful most of the time but also inappropriately placed.
That is, teachers tend to provide comments, be it on local issues or global ones, either at the end of the writing paper or on the front page under the grade. In both cases, the comments are disassociated from the points they refer to, which might confuse students and give them no insight about the errors the observation indicate.

**Implications and Recommendations**

Upon gathering data, analysing and interpreting the results, several implications can be inferred at various levels from the current study relating to teachers, curriculum designers as well as supervisors and training planners. Teachers have to render of revising an integral part of their feedback sessions and increase its frequency. They should encourage students on how to use feedback effectively, in the sense that the amount of feedback does not necessarily determine its quality. Teachers should provide feedback that is explicit and clear. Concrete, motivating and positive feedback should be prioritised. Alternatively, teachers might ask students to identify feedback comments that they found useful or decide what type of feedback they consider most useful and explain why.

Teachers should be trained pedagogically on how to teach writing effectively and engagingly so as to make of their WCF a formative tool to help students attain long-term gains. As the document analysis revealed, for example, most teachers lack the subject matter knowledge required to identify and teach students to work with global errors; i.e. errors related to organization and content. We believe supervisors must hold intensive training to inform teachers of the FA pedagogy with respect to the writing instruction.

It is also the syllabus designers and curriculum developers as well as policymakers’ duty to dissociate the writing component from the textbook and design special writing course books for students and teachers on teaching writing. Policymakers should introduce and initiate new assessment regulations that would put much emphasis on FA and include self-assessment. Such procedures are likely to offer in-service courses and developmental projects for teachers on FA/AFL (Assessment for learning).

**Conclusion**

The present study set out to investigate how EFL Moroccan teachers perceive of and implement WCF as a FA tool. We tried to shed light on how FA is being understood and what perceptions teachers hold about it in relation to WCF. The study also tried to unearth the sort of classroom practices teachers make to comment on students’ writings. To achieve that objective, the study adhered to the mixed-method approach. This study’s findings have important implications for the ELT in general and the teaching of EFL writing in specific. Some recommendations for different ELT community and school stakeholders have also been put forward.

**About the Authors:**

**Khalid SAID** is an ELT Supervisor in Midelt Directorate, Morocco; he is also a Doctorate student at Hassan II University, School of Humanities, Ben M’Sik, Morocco. His main research areas are EFL textbook evaluation and Critical Discourse Analysis. He worked as an ELL teacher in several high schools in Morocco.  

https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5679-6624
Abdelouahid El MOUZRATI is an ELT supervisor in Al Hoceima directorate, Morocco. He took part in planning and implementing several school projects in partnership with civil society associations. His interests include assessment, mentoring and curriculum development.  https://orcid.org/0000-0002-5339-5865

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University Students Academic Usage of Facebook. Case Study: Licence 2 English Students, Mostaganem University

Amel Ghermaoui
Department of English
Faculty of Foreign Languages
University of Abdelhamid Ibn Badis, Mostaganem, Algeria

Abstract
Last decade has witnessed the rapid popularity of social networking sites like Facebook and College students constitute a large population of Facebook users. Advancement in telecommunication and information technology has resulted in a tremendous impact on teaching and learning. Accordingly, university education has started to benefit from online learning platforms. The revolutionary progress that the internet has known is giving a modern dimension to the teaching process, thus, facilitating university students' learning. The purpose of this study is to evaluate the extent to which Facebook can be an effective means to distribute academic content to university students. Department of English of Mostaganem University is involved in this study. The Study combines quantitative with qualitative types of research. Quantitative research involves distributing a survey in the form of a questionnaire among License 2 students department of English as well as teachers to examine to what extent Facebook can be used for academic purposes. Qualitative research is dedicated to the analysis and observation of students' Facebook group page. The results showed that Students confirm that Facebook is a useful tool to distribute and share academic knowledge yet there are still many obstacles that hinder its use at the university context. On another hand, the present research suggests some helping solutions to enhance Facebook educational use among university students and their teachers. Future research may include a larger population from every Department of Mostaganem University to ensure generalizability of the study’s findings.

Key Words: Facebook academic usage, Licence 2 English students, Students’ Facebook group, teachers’ Facebook academic usage

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Introduction

The recent years have witnessed the emergence of a high number of networks used to share information universally providing more information, content and social connections than ever before. The most interesting and outstanding evolution in the history of the internet has been social media, “a web-based made of dialogue that uses a wide array of tools, websites and other applications to encourage communication between individuals, corporations, non-profits and other organizations” (Boswell, 2014, P.01).

Social media has become very closely related to our lives because it allows us to stay connected to the world. Every platform that enables people to share information, photos, and news with other individuals is considered as one of the various social media platforms that exist now. Different definitions of social media have been provided by many scholars and dictionaries. Meriam-Webster dictionary online defines social media as a “form of electronic communication (as websites for social networking and microblogging) through which users create online communities to share information, ideas, personal messages, and other content (as videos)” (Taprial & Kanwar, 2013, P. 08).

Boyd and Ellison, (2007) discuss social media in their article social media network sites. Definition history and scholarship and defined social networks as:

web-based services that allow to (1) construct a public or semi-public profiles within a bounded system, (2) articulate a list of other users with whom they share a connection, and (3) view and traverse their list of connections and those made by others within the system. The nature and nomenclature of these connections may vary from site to site (p. 213).

A great variety of social media networking sites has been launched in the last 12 years. Facebook belongs to the long list of these sites, but it has remained up-to-date the most popular website and platform worldwide. Without any doubt, the revolutionary networking site Facebook is inspiring researchers to introduce new avenues in social media studies. Facebook is not only a simple site or a wealthy company that is making money, but it is also a computerized human-based virtual universe that is deeply anchored into our lives. The main reason behind the creation of such a networking site was the quest for globalization, making people better understand each other, and eliminating any distance barriers that hinder any continuous, long-lasting, and instantaneous communication. Facebook is indeed a “distance killer”. The whole world is transformed into a global village thanks to Facebook and many other social media networking sites. This view is confirmed by Horváth, (2014) when she states that Facebook:

Strengthened the world’s global village character. Geographical distances play none ever-increasing role in our lives given the possibility of being in the same cyberspace, whatever our geographical location might be. Maintaining contact does not depend on geographical proximity anymore, what does count, though, is internet availability (P. 86).

Facebook is used for social, journalistic, economic and artistic ends. Facebook is a means of socializing that is used by all the categories of any society. Facebook is an excellent tool to maintain strong ties and create new connections. Facebook is an excellent digital space where the
young generation can make a difference in their communities by participating in various activities online and creating Facebook interest groups to organize unlimited events. Facebook indeed bolsters the youth’s civic engagement and local activism. In the same vein, Facebook promotes free speech and enables journalists to work collaboratively with users to create up-to-date stories. Facebook never replaces the traditional news outlets, but it adds new information that is as well valuable to many journalistic contents. Facebook can be also used to enhance an open discussion between companies and their customers. Moreover, Facebook can be efficiently used as an instrument for digital marketing, preserving brands’ reputation and providing engaged users with information about newly launched products. And one cannot leave this discussion of Facebook’s use without a mention that it can also be a space where artists can exhibit their works. One can plausibly state that Facebook can wonderfully serve as a “global museum” and access to it is free for every user. It is true that Facebook has been criticized by many scholars; however, the obsessive use of Facebook is everyone’s responsibility.

After being introduced in 2004, Facebook has been until the present time the most used social networking platform worldwide. Although Facebook promotes primarily online socialization, it also started to become an important e-learning platform (Irwin, Desbow & Leveritt, 2012, p. 1222). In fact, some studies confirm that students welcome integrating Facebook into their academic learning process, because it increases communication among students, gives them access to course materials and improves logistical management of courses. Incorporating such a platform would consolidate academic instruction as well as student learning experiences. As a way of example, Facebook can support the management of course activities, provide information and resources to students as it can make them interact with each other and collaborate.

Many studies have examined Facebook from another angle that it is a source of distraction and impacts negatively university students’ academic performance. Other studies focus on the psychological consequences of Facebook use among College students (Park & Lee, 2014, pp. 601-620) or Teenagers’ Facebook use as a tool for identity construction (Zhao, Grasmuck & Martin, 2008, P. 1816-1836). Other pieces of research focus on the influence of University student’s use of Facebook applications on study time. However, there have been two contradicting views regarding this issue. Some authors suggest that Facebook users spend less time studying and achieve lower grades if compared to their non-users counterparts (Kirschner & Karpenski, 2010 as cited in Irwish, Ball & Laveritt, 2012, P. 1223), while other researchers do not find any relationship between Facebook use and university academic achievement (Kabre & Brown, 2011, as cited in Irwish, Ball & Laveritt, 2012, P. 1223). The weakness of these studies is that they focus on the impact of Facebook on students’ academic performance and neglect Facebook’s capacity to provide other academic benefits to students. Students have the ability to integrate academic content with a social networking site with which they are highly engaged. As a result, incorporating Facebook into university learning courses and resources may impact students’ learning motivation positively.

Few international studies have dealt with the academic uses of Facebook at University. Cristopher Irwin et.al (2012) conducted a study at Griffith’s Gold Coast Campus in 2011. It included 253 students and 04 teachers. The researchers reach the conclusion that the majority of students recommend using Facebook as a learning aid. Another study was conducted by Muge Akyiliz and Metin Argan (n.d) which included 1300 undergraduate students from Anadolu
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Ghermaoui

University in Turkey. The results show that students spend more time socializing than sharing academic content on Facebook. Lam, (2012) Conducted in-depth interviews with students of the School of Continuing and Professional Studies (SCS) in Hong Kong and surveyed 312 students of the Chinese University of Hong Kong. His results show that Facebook can be a very efficient tool to increase students’ learning motivation.

In the Algerian context, Facebook is considered byZaghliami, (n.d) as the most popular social networking site. According to him, 44% of Algerians use Facebook, 7.9 use MySpace, 7.5% use Viadeo, 2.8% use Twitter, 2.1% use LinkedIn and 0.7% use Xing. Moreover, 95% of Algerians use Facebook for chatting, relationship, games, and companies as news sources and interaction with clients. 66.4% spend more than thirty minutes a day .33.6% spend less than thirty minutes a day. 27.7% Spend between thirty minutes and one hour a day. 21.5% spend between one hour and 3 hours a day. And 17.3% spend more than three hours a day. All these statistics confirm that Facebook is widely used by Algerians and studies concerning the use of Facebook in different domains like the academic one should be undertaken in a rigorous and scientific way.

Despite of Facebook’s popularity in the last few years, it is not clear for what purposes Algerian students use Facebook: Do they use it for social interaction, daily activities or academic purposes? Comprehending how much, why and how Algerian students use social networking platforms for educational purposes provides a new venue for contemporary research. As a way of example, An Algerian researcher named Samia Ouaj undertook a survey at the University of Settif, Department of Foreign Languages which included 197 students and 35 teachers. The results of her research indicate that using social media platforms like Facebook facilitate the teaching process as it creates a social collaborative learning environment. She also concluded that by using social media academic features, traditional learning becomes more efficient. A Master Student from Tlemcen University undertook another survey which included 50 Master2 Literature and Civilization students and three teachers. Her results show that Facebook provides both faculty and students with a myriad of opportunities to communicate, and share academic content, consequently, creating a more collaborative learning sphere.

Because there is relatively little research on Facebook's use in Algerian Universities general, and in Mostaganem University, in particular, the researcher believes that the findings of this piece of the investigation will be very helpful for both teachers and students. Teachers will be encouraged to give importance to many variables considered in my research to better use Facebook to share academic content with their students on the one hand. On the other hand, students will spend more time on Facebook to receive academic content because their teachers are relying heavily on it.

The theory that is closely related to the findings of this work is connectivism. It is created by Siemens and Downes, (2009). This approach reflects perfectly our rapidly changing society. Our society is more complex due to the revolutionary developments in technology. Connectivism focuses on the individual. According to this theory, personal knowledge comprises a system of networks which provides an organization. This group relates back to the system. The individual maintains his experience growth using his or her interaction with the system. The learners can, therefore, be up-to-date concerning any topic thanks to the connections they have put into
existence. A group of people with a common goal is, therefore, created to promote and sustain a well-organized flow of information (Duke, Harper & Johnston, 2013).

University education interests students; thus, it is of high import to focus on students’ perceptions of technology that is part of their learning environment. The aim of this study is to evaluate the extent to which Facebook can be an effective means to distribute academic content to Licence two English Mostaganem students. As a teacher, I tried to use Facebook to distribute academic content to my L2 students, but the process did not work. This fact resulted in asking many questions like: Why did students not receive the academic content sent by me or other teachers who are my colleagues via Facebook? What are the obstacles that prevent students from receiving academic content submitted by their teachers? Can Facebook be a suitable platform to share academic content with one's students? How can Facebook be used effectively to distribute academic content at university? It has been hypothesized that there are many reasons behind students' non-reception of academic content sent by their teacher via Facebook like: 1- Not all students have internet access during school days. 2- Not all teachers have a Facebook profile and they use it rarely to share academic content with their students. 3- Students lack a sense of community so sharing any academic contents with each other becomes involved. The second hypothesis is that Web2.0 technologies like Facebook replace the old ways of distributing academic content in the form of handouts. Facebook is an easy and a rapid way to share academic content with one's students as it leads to greater communication between students. Additionally, Facebook saves time because it helps teachers share academic content beforehand which is going to be tackled in later classes. Facebook pages with university academic content will enhance, on another hand, students’ interaction with their courses instructors online as well as offline; the learning process using such platforms becomes, thus, interactive and time-saving. The last contention is that Facebook academic use can be reinforced by enabling students and teachers to interact via a university official Facebook page, making internet access at university, department of English, providing English students with internet access at the library until 09:00 P.M, and motivating teachers to have a Facebook account to access the university official Facebook page for the sake of communicating with their students and distributing academic content to them.

**Methodology**

The researcher used both qualitative and quantitative research methods. The data obtained are analyzed quantitatively as when the frequency of each answer from the multiple –questions was considered. Other data are analyzed qualitatively and that concerns the open-ended questions suggested to both students and teachers. The mixture of both methods enabled me to reach reasonable conclusions about the academic use of Facebook at University. The author used as well observation as another tool for this study. He created a second Facebook account and became a member of L2 English students Facebook group page. That was done on purpose to observe my students’ usage of Facebook to share academic resources.

The study was conducted at Mostaganem University, Department of English During the first Semester of the academic year 2016/2017. The targeted population of this study has been primarily L2 English students of Mostaganem University as well the teachers of the same university. The total number of the sample included 106 L2Students and 20 teachers. To examine students' academic usage of Facebook, data were gathered by a paper-based questionnaire. A copy of each
questionnaire was provided to all students attending my methodology lecture, which they were asked to complete anonymously and return to me at the end of the session. The questionnaire consisted of 12 multiple-choice questions and two open-ended questions. Questions included internet access during school days, whether having or not a Facebook account, the different purposes behind their Facebook use, the frequency of logging to Facebook account, being or not a member of L2 Facebook page, the frequency of students’ interaction via Facebook, sharing and receiving academic content via Facebook and their frequency. Students were solicited to state the modules in which they received academic content from their teachers and classmates. Students were as well asked to evaluate Facebook use to share and receive academic resources and whether they recommend it or not. The last question concerned student’s agreement with some suggested solutions to improve academic Facebook usage.

English department teachers of Mostagnemen University took as well part of my study since they play a major role in the learning process. A paper-based questionnaire was provided for all the 55 teachers as it was sent via email. Only 20 teachers answered. The survey contained the same questions as the students' because views from both sides were mandatory to my study. One question was excluded from the teachers’ questionnaire because it concerned students only.

Data analysis
Analysis of both questionnaires was done manually, and the results are in the form of percentages. Some questions were selected to create graphs of both students' and teachers' answers. Open-ended responses were as well considered to support the study's findings.

Findings

A-Student’s questionnaire
The results were gathered during the first semester of the academic year 2016-2017. The results of the first question are presented in the form of a figure. The result of the first issue confirms our first hypothesis about the obstacles that prevent students from using Facebook for academic purposes that not all students have internet access during school days. As a result, providing students with internet access during school days would certainly bolster Facebook academic usage.

Figure 1 Students’ internet access
About the second question that was intended to know whether students have Facebook accounts or not, 94% of students responded that they have Facebook accounts while only 6% reported that they have not any Facebook account. This confirms that university students do use Facebook. Concerning the reasons behind students’ Facebook use, 07% reported that they use it to
socialize, 4% said they use it for academic purposes and 81% indicated that they use it for both socialization as well as academic goals. This indicates that the first function of Facebook which is socialization is not the only reason behind students Facebook use; Students’ Facebook use is extended to fulfill academic tasks.

When asked about students’ Facebook frequency, 82% use it daily, 15% use it weekly, and 2% use it monthly. Students consult their Facebook frequently, so the academic content that is shared online can be accessed as well daily. Concerning their membership in L2 Facebook group, 86% said they are members and only 15% stated that they are not. This shows that the majority of students are members of L2 Facebook group, so any academic content that is distributed in this group can be accessed by the majority of L2 students. About how often they consult their Facebook group, 50% said they do it daily, 28% weekly, 3% monthly, 4% never and 13% of students' sample did not answer this question. Students were asked as well whether they frequently interact with their classmates via Facebook or not. 62% answered with yes and 33% said no. 3% of the sample did not respond.

The next figure shows that 81% of the surveyed students receive academic content via Facebook. This confirms the utility of such a platform to distribute information that is academic-based and such a use should be, therefore, sustained by measures that are going to be discussed in the recommendations section.

![Figure 2: Percentage of students who receive academic content via Facebook](image)

They were asked as well who send them academic content via Facebook. 2% said that such a content is sent by teachers, 60% said it is sent by their classmates, 21% said both send it and 17% did not answer this question. This indicates that the academic content that is shared on Facebook is done mainly by their classmates; teachers are rarely involved in such a sharing. When asked how often academic content is sent via Facebook, 42% said it is frequently done, 38% said rarely and 19% did not answer. Question number 11 which was an open-ended one asked them to state the modules in which they receive academic content. 75% said they receive academic content via Facebook in modules like: Linguistics, Grammar, Written expression, Civilization modules, translation, Methodology, and phonetics. Some students stress that sharing academic content via Facebook happens especially during exams time.
There are students who recommend using Facebook for academic purposes; however, others do not. The ones who do support it argue that Facebook is an easy way to receive academic content. It is time-saving, helpful, accessible everywhere, as it is a fast way to receive from teachers information about recommended books and lessons. This confirms my second hypothesis. They add that Facebook is used to share lectures and homework with their classmates. Furthermore, there exist some pages on Facebook that help students improve their English. For them, Facebook can be excellent space to exchange ideas and suggestions about academic matters. Some students even do follow scientists and scholars on Facebook. They consider Facebook a trustworthy source because the person who sends the academic content is known.

Other students do not recommend using Facebook for academic purposes because not all students have internet access during school days. They add that Facebook lacks scientific credibility. One of the surveyed students shed light on an important issue that the significant number of notifications prevents students from noticing all the academic content shared via Facebook. Because of that, they miss significant shared academic content shared on Facebook. Another student consider that it is unfair to post academic content on Facebook because sharing
such a content on Facebook will encourage absenteeism in lectures and students who do not attend will rely heavily and only on the academic content that is posted on Facebook.

**Figure 5 Students’ opinion about ways of improving academic Facebook usage**

Students agreed with the questionnaire’s suggested solutions for sustaining Facebook use for academic use; some students suggested some other interesting suggestions like increasing internet speed at university, and integrating the internet into classes to teach students how to do research on the internet. However, another student stated that the use of Facebook for academic purposes should be with caution because such a site may contain dangerous content. As a result, the students suggested deleting advertisements and any inappropriate Facebook content from students’ Facebook groups and University Facebook pages and replacing them with compelling academic content and activities. Other ideas were suggested like encouraging teachers to be involved in students’ Facebook community, using Facebook to stay in touch with international students, making PCs with internet access available in amphitheatres and each student should be provided with one, and creating a community on Facebook to facilitate exchanging academic content on Facebook.

B- Teachers’ Questionnaire

Teachers were asked whether they have internet access during working days or not. 65% said they have internet access, 30% stated that they do not have. Figure 6 confirms my hypothesis that not all teachers have a Facebook account for a reason or another, so this may make it even harder to use Facebook for academic purposes.

**Figure 6 Percentage of teachers who have Facebook accounts**
The teachers who have Facebook accounts were asked the reasons for using such a platform. 5% said they use it to socialize, 20% said they use it for academic purposes, and 60% said it utilized for both socialization and academic purposes. When asked about the frequency of their Facebook use, 40% stated that they use it daily, 15% weekly, and 15% monthly.

**Figure 7 Percentage of teachers who are members of their students’ Facebook group**

Less than a half of the study’s teacher participants are members of their students’ Facebook group. This implies that sharing any academic content via Facebook can be difficult if not impossible. So the teachers can be encouraged not only to have a Facebook account but also to be members of their students’ Facebook group to facilitate any academic exchange.

The teachers who are members of their students' Facebook group, were asked how often they consult it. 10% said they ask it daily, 25% weekly, 5% monthly and 20% stated that they never do. When they were asked whether they interact frequently with students via their Facebook group, 20% said yes, and 50% said no.

**Figure 8 Percentage of teachers who send academic content to their students via Facebook**

The study's teacher participants rarely share academic content on Facebook, and this confirms my first hypothesis. The academic usage of Facebook cannot be improved if teachers do not frequently share academic-based documents.

The teachers who send academic content to their students were asked about the frequency of such an online activity. 10% said they do it frequently, 20% said rarely and 70% did not answer because they either do not have a Facebook account or they do not use Facebook for academic purposes. In Question number 10 teachers were requested to state the modules in which they send academic content to their students. 06 teachers answered, who represent 30% of the sample, and
they reported that they send academic documents via Facebook in modules like: phonetics, literature, cultural infographics facts, linguistics, oral expression, E-learning, and methodology. They said they send as well homework handouts. When asked whether Facebook is a good means to share academic resources with students, 50% responded with yes and 30% replied with no.

![Figure 09 Percentage of teachers who recommend using Facebook for academic purposes](chart)

The teachers who recommend using Facebook for academic purposes contend that Facebook can be an efficient educational tool among many others. Teachers can post feedback, assignments and even upload handouts. They add that Facebook is the fastest way to share knowledge and answer students' inquiries. It can help them realize the positive benefits of Facebook rather than use social media to kill time. On another hand, Facebook can be used to deliver homework with its correction since not every task can be done during tutorials or lectures. Teachers argue, on another hand, that Facebook is the space where students spend most of their time. Students sometimes feel lazy to check their emails, but they will certainly waste time on Facebook. Thus teachers should cease the chance to send academic content on Facebook. This confirms my hypothesis that Facebook facilitates sharing documents and exchanging ideas.

![Figure 10 Teachers’ opinion about ways of improving Facebook academic usage](chart)

Teachers agreed with the questionnaire’s suggested solutions to improve Facebook academic usage. One of the teachers suggested another alternative which is creating a closed Facebook group administered by a teacher to keep order in the group and facilitate faculty and student's academic exchange.
The findings above confirm the connective theory that Facebook, as an example of a digitalized technology, helps students create networks in the form of groups within the platform in an organized way. Students maintain the cycle of their knowledge growth through their access back to the groups created on Facebook. Their common goal groups can help them promote the flow of information that is well-organised. Connectivism stresses learning through collaboration. Facebook is a suitable platform for students to learn through collaboration.

C- Observation of L2 students’ Facebook page

The name of L2 English students is called “Second Year English Mostaganem Section1/Section2”. It is a close group which requires membership request. The group is described by a student as follows “Hi Boys and girls; I created this group to share sessions, Lessons, and information....thank's for your attention‘I am a member of my L2 Facebook Group, and I have been a participant observer. My observations confirmed what was advanced in both students’ and teacher’ questionnaires; thus, they support findings above. The following remarks of L2 Facebook Group were highlighted:

1- Students share with their classmate's PDF documents that concern modules like grammar, methodology and phonetics.
2- They share classes already tackled or future ones.
3- They share teachers’ posted notes (taken by a camera) at the department.
4- They respond positively to their friends’ requests and they help each other in private as well as in public.
5- The majority of the sharing is done by students.
6- Only a few teachers post documents on L2 Facebook group.
7- Students' transmit their teachers' messages in the form of publications.
8- Students do not have only post-academic content, but they also post the departments marks and exams' timetables.
9- When it was exams time, a student asks each other to share lessons of all modules. This confirms that traffic in students’ Facebook group during exams is higher than any other time.
10- They put each other’s username in comments to inform their friends that there is a new post from their classmates or teachers.
11- When I shared academic content in my students’ Facebook group, my students responded positively as it was shared widely.

Discussion

The aim of this investigation was to evaluate the extent to which Facebook can be an effective means to distribute academic content to L2 English Mostaganem students. The results of this study indicate that Facebook can be an efficient addition to technology-based educational tools. A well accepted online platform like Facebook can be adapted to deliver academic content the same as traditional e-learning systems do.

Facebook is a social networking site that is well accepted by university students, and the majority of the present surveyed students have a Facebook account. Additionally, high rates of Facebook use among school students have been noticed. This significant use indicates that Facebook is well received by students and offers opportunities for university teachers to provide
their students with academic content taking advantage of online platforms they are familiar with it. On another hand, the majority of the present study students accept using Facebook for educational purposes. The surveyed students anticipated learning benefits by creating a community on Facebook to facilitate exchanging academic content of Facebook, as well as encouraging teachers to be involved in students’ Facebook community. The last finding confirms the aforementioned theory “Connectivism” which stresses learning through a system of networks.

The results of this study indicate that students are well receptive of Facebook educational use because it is an easy way to receive academic content. It is time saving, helpful, accessible everywhere. Because Facebook is available in all technology advanced devices like tablets and smartphones, students appear to be interacting with it frequently. Facebook, as a consequence, can be a convenient environment in which academic content can be added to a space that students are often utilizing.

Half of the teachers, taking part of this study, accept the integration of Facebook as one of their educational tools. They posit that Facebook is a useful way to post homework, courses and feedback. According to them, Facebook is the fastest way to deliver academic content to university students. However, the other half of the surveyed teachers do not recommend using Facebook for educational matters, and that can constitute an obstacle to students who want to take advantage of the different educational benefits Facebook may offer.

The findings of this study confirmed that students’ Facebook academic use is hindered because not all of them have internet access. To enhance Facebook educational usage, solutions have been suggested. As a way of example, creating an official university Facebook page would encourage students and teachers to interact academically. However, other alternatives like making internet access at university and making access to the library with internet access until 09 P.M would facilitate students’ access to the academic content already shared on Facebook. Students suggested other solutions like creating a community on Facebook to interact with each other and to contact other international universities, as well as encouraging teachers to be members of this community (group). One of the surveyed teachers recommended creating a closed Facebook group administered by a teacher to facilitate academic exchange. The group must be closed to protect the organization's privacy and it must be managed by a teacher to maintain order in the group.

One of the study's limitations is that not all L2 students attend lectures and tutorials. As a consequence, distributing a questionnaire to every L2 students was not possible. The other limitation is that not all teachers answered my survey. So a wider response among teachers would be more beneficial to the study. So avenues for future research would include larger population, enabling all students and teachers of all the other branches of Mostaganem University to take part of the study to generalize findings. Furthermore, a comparative study between traditional e-learning platforms and similar Facebook functions should be undertaken in order to figure out the most efficient platform for students academic engagement and learning.

Conclusion

Facebook is used by both students and teachers so it can be an interesting tool to enhance the educational resources of university courses. The findings of the present study indicate that students and teachers agree with integrating Facebook into their academic world and are aware of
the educational benefits that Facebook offers an efficient ‘students to student’ and ‘student to instructor’ communication and an enhanced academic exchange. Despite the fact that the use of technology of the kind is well received, students still find difficulties in benefiting from the educational functions of Facebook. Thus, teachers can assist their students by embracing the latest technology like Facebook to promote learning. Another factor that must be considered is internet access. To help students access academic content posted on Facebook, they must be provided with internet access at the university during the twelve hours of the day.

About the author:
Amel Ghermaoui is an Assistant Professor at the Department of English, Abdelhamid Ibn Badis University. Mostaganem, Algeria. She holds a PhD in American Civilization from the University of Oran2. Her main interest focuses on social media studies in the Algerian as well as American contexts. She published a number of articles and participated at conferences related to social media studies. https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5493-3971

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Motivation and Habits of Recreational Reading of University Educated Youth in the United Arab Emirates

Tamimount Ennaji
Department of Statistics, UAE University, Al Ain, UAE

Wala K. Ahmed
Department of Statistics, UAE University, Al Ain, UAE

Maitha S. Al Saedi
Department of Statistics, UAE University, Al Ain, UAE

Soumia Lounis
Department of Curriculum and Instruction, UAE University, Al Ain, UAE

Taoufik Zoubeidi
Department of Statistics, UAE University, Al Ain, UAE

Abstract
A claim made this decade that ‘Arabs don’t read’ raised concerns among civil society and authorities in the Arab countries which resulted in growing research to investigate this claim and major initiatives to promote reading among Arabs. This paper aims to contribute to our knowledge about reading in this region by studying the motivation and habits of recreational reading of university educated youth in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). It specifically aims to answer the questions: what are the recreational reading frequency, and the type and language of the reading material? Which personal characteristics correlate with recreational reading habits? And which factors impact the motivation to read? The findings are based on a survey of 775 undergraduate students at UAE University. The survey questionnaire included an adult reading motivation scale developed by Schutte and Malouff (2007) which was modified after assessing its goodness-of-fit to the UAE context using confirmatory factor analysis. Pearson’s chi-square test, Poisson regression and ANOVA were used to identify the correlates of reading habits and compare motivation scores across demographic groups. Seventy-one percent of the students read at least one book for pleasure in the last six months and they read, on average, for 2.3 hours per week. Reading frequency depends on gender, the student’s secondary education, and the parents’ education. Gender, parents’ education have significant effects on the motivation scores and the preferred language of reading (p-value < 0.01). Students read more during the academic year than in the vacation.

Keywords: Arab region, motivation to read, reading for pleasure, reading habits, the United Arab Emirates

Introduction

Motivation and Habits of Recreational Reading
Zoubeidi, Ennaji, Ahmed, Al Saedi & Lounis

Introduction

Reading is essential for knowledge acquisition and communication. In this era of knowledge economy, the development and dissemination of reading abilities have become an essential objective of authorities and civil society worldwide. National reading campaigns and initiatives to promote reading were launched in many countries such as Canada, USA, UK, and by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) which celebrates annually the World Book and Copyright Day on 23 April (National Reading Campaign, 2018; National Education Association, 2018; National Literacy Trust, 2018; UNESCO, 2018). There is a stronger need for initiatives to develop reading and identify reading habits and what motivates people to read in developing countries because of the challenges they face in literacy and human development. For example, the UAE government declared 2016 as the UAE Reading Year and launched an integrated strategy to produce a reading generation (National Literacy Strategy, 2018). Moreover, led by the UAE Vice President, the Mohamed Bin Rashed Al Maktoum Foundation (MBRF) launched the Arab Reading Challenge which is the largest-ever Arab literacy initiative to encourage students in Arab countries to read (MBRF, 2018). This is a much-needed initiative in a region having among the lowest literacy and human development indices in the world, better only to South Asia and Sub-Saharan Africa.

While illiteracy remains a challenge for Arab societies where about 33% of adults (15 years or older) were illiterate in 2015 (UNDP, 2016), the UAE has achieved a high rate of literacy (90%). However, reading ability is a higher level of literacy which is not reflected by the literacy rate. Thus, there is a need for specific research about reading motivation and reading abilities in the UAE. Although there has been a growing interest among researchers in the last decade to investigate the claim that ‘Arabs don’t Read’ (Martin, Martins, & Naqvi, 2017; MBRF & UNDP, 2016), research about readership and motivation to read in the UAE and the Arab region remains limited. MBRF and the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) developed in 2016 the Arab Reading Index as a measure to assess the status of reading and cultural development in the Arab World (MBRF & UNDP, 2016). Other published studies include the Arab Reading survey about reading habits among visitors of the International Sharjah Book Fair in 2011 (Wischenbart, 2011). The survey aimed to characterize reading habits and related media consumption in the UAE. This survey targeted a specific segment of the UAE population consisting of visitors of the book fair who most likely differ in their motivation to read and reading habits from the general population. A more extensive survey was conducted by the Next Page Foundation which aimed to characterize the reading habits, types of reading material, and attitudes towards reading in nine Arab countries (Algeria, Egypt, Jordan, Lebanon, Morocco, Palestine, Saudi Arabia, Syria, and Tunisia) (NextPage, 2007a & 2007b). Other studies investigated the impact of early reading habits on the reading literacy of Qatari undergraduate students (Bendriss & Golkowska, 2011), the role of Jordanian schools in encouraging students’ outside reading (Banihani & Abu-Ashour, 2015), the reading habits of young Emirati women (Khoury & Duzgun, 2009), the reading habits and interests of Saudi students at a university-level preparatory year program (Rajab & Al-Sadi, 2015), and the benefits and challenges of establishing a reading culture in Oman (Al-Mahmoodi & Denman, 2017). Other published research about reading competence in the UAE concerned reading for academic purposes (O’Sullivan, 2004; Demirci & Gobert, 2015; Alsheikh & Elhoweris, 2011).
In this manuscript, we study the motivation and habits of recreational reading of students at a large public university in the UAE as a proxy for the educated youth in the UAE. Moreover, the study focuses on recreational reading because, as discussed in the next section, research suggests that it contributes more to the development of reading competence than school-related reading.

**Reading Motivation**

There is a consensus among researchers and educators that reading competence is a prerequisite for academic success and literacy (Chapman, Tunmer, & Prochnow, 2000). Given this critical role of reading, extensive research was done to identify the significant factors for the development of reading competence (Conradi, Jang, & McKenna, 2014). In addition to cognitive factors such as memory capacity and reasoning ability (Alloway & Gregory, 2013), research suggests that reading proficiency is primarily a function of interest in and motivation for reading (Malloy, Marinak, & Gambrell, 2010). For example, results of the PISA 2010 survey which assessed reading abilities of students from 64 countries show that interest in reading predicted reading comprehension, and students who enjoyed reading the most performed significantly better than those who enjoyed reading the least. In this context, the International Reading Association has emphasized the vital role of reading motivation in reading development (Gambrell, 2011). These findings imply that motivational factors should form the main components of any reading development program. To achieve reading competency, subjects must be motivated to undertake literacy activities that improve their reading abilities. Irvin, Meltzed, & Dukes (2007) state that “motivation to engage is the first step on the road to improving literacy habits and skills” (p. 32).

Gambrell (2011) defines the motivation to read “as the likelihood of engaging in reading or choosing to read” (p. 172). This motivation is a multi-dimensional construct reflecting intrinsic and extrinsic incentives (Schiefele & Schaffner, 2016). Intrinsic reading motivation refers to the willingness to read because reading is satisfying or rewarding in its own right. Extrinsic reading motivation refers to reasons that are external to the activity of reading and the text content where the reader aims to achieve particular outcomes such as improving school performance or being praised by others (Wigfield & Guthrie, 1997). Another distinction in reading motivation refers to academic (or school-related) versus recreational reading motivation (De Naeghel & Van Keer, 2013).

Academic reading is done at school or for homework whereas recreational reading is done in leisure time. Research suggests that recreational reading contributes more to the development of reading competence than school-related reading (De Naeghel, Van Keer, Vansteenkiste, & Rosseel, 2012) and that the academic reading motivation may be confounded with the more general motives of students to learn or to achieve in school (Elliot, 2005).

**Objectives of the Study**

This study aims to investigate the recreational reading habits, types and language of reading material, and motivation to read of students at public universities in the UAE: the case of UAE University. The study will focus on recreational book reading rather than academic reading because, as stated above, the latter is more reflective of reading competencies. Moreover, investigation of academic reading is confounded with academic performance which is a more
researched subject. In this report, we focus on the recreational reading of books in all formats, and we exclude newspapers, magazines, and social media.

The research questions in this study are:
1. What are the recreational reading habits of students in terms of reading frequency, and the type and language of the reading material?
2. Which students’ background characteristics significantly impact recreational reading habits?
3. Which factors impact students’ motivation to read?

We also test the validity in the UAE context of an adult reading motivation scale (Schutte & Malouff, 2007) developed on a sample of Australians. This scale is, to the best of our knowledge, the first ever validated scale for the UAE context.

Methodology
This study is based on cross-sectional data collected through a survey of a random sample of 775 undergraduate students at UAE University. Sample selection was stratified by gender such that the sample size from each gender is proportional to the corresponding stratum size. Students were sampled by randomly selecting course sections for males and females in the fall 2017 semester.

The target population consisted of undergraduate adult students at UAU (i.e., age ≥ 18 years), excluding medical students. Since undergraduate education at UAEU is gender-segregated, we randomly selected 42 females and 15 males course sections from the Fall 2017 class schedule across all colleges, excluding the College of Medicine and Health Sciences. The total enrollment in the sampled course sections was 1575 students. After excluding the minor students (age < 18 years), and the students who declined to participate in the study, a total of 775 completed questionnaires were collected and analyzed using IBM SPSS (version 23).

The survey questionnaire consisted of four parts: Part 1 includes 10 items about the demographic profile of students. Part 2 contains 10 items about the recreational reading habits of students. Part 3, composed of 8 items, covered the development of the interest for recreational book reading. Part 4 is an adult reading motivation scale consisting of 21 items developed by Schutte and Malouff (2007). This scale is sub-divided into 4 dimensions (sub-scales), namely, Reading as Part of the Self, Reading Efficacy, Reading for Recognition, and Reading to Do Well in Other Realms. To assess the goodness-of-fit of this scale to the data, we performed a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) and reliability (internal consistency) analysis (RA) of the 4 sub-scales. The resulting CFA goodness-of-fit statistics were SRMR = 0.048, RMSEA = 0.067, and CFI = 0.518. These values indicate a good fit, moderate fit, and poor fit, respectively. Moreover, the internal consistency measures of the 4 sub-scales were Cronbach Alpha = 0.836, 0.302, 0.727 and 0.651, respectively. While the three highest values indicate good internal consistency of the relevant questionnaire items, the second measure (0.302) is too low which suggests that the survey items measuring the second subscale (Reading Efficacy) are measuring more than one dimension. Given these mixed results, we run an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with an oblique rotation to determine the reading motivation dimensions in the data. This analysis
suggests the same four dimensions (sub-scales) with some modifications of the items loading on each sub-scale. The sub-scales reported in Schutte & Malouff (2007) consisted of the following questionnaire items (see Schutte & Malouff (2007) for the item statements):

- **Sub-scale - Reading as Part of the Self**: items 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10 and 11
- **Sub-scale – Reading Efficacy**: items 1, 14, 16, 17, 19 and 20.
- **Sub-scale – Reading for Recognition**: items 12, 13, 15.
- **Sub-scale – Reading to Do Well in Other Realms**: items: 7, 8, 18, 21.

The sub-scales extracted from EFA of the collected data were composed of the following items:

- **Sub-scale - Reading as Part of the Self**: items 3, 4, 5, 6, 9, 10, 11, 16
- **Sub-scale – Reading Efficacy**: items 1, 2, 7, and 8.
- **Sub-scale – Reading for Recognition**: items 12, 13, 14, 15, and 17.
- **Sub-scale – Reading to Do Well in Other Realms**: items: 18, 19, 20, and 21.

The corresponding internal consistency measures of the modified sub-scales were Cronbach Alpha = 0.839, 0.597, 0.702, 0.724 which suggests an adequate internal consistency. In the sequel of this report we will use the modified sub-scales.

In analyzing the data, descriptive statistics and graphical displays were used to summarize the data. Pearson’s chi-square test was used to assess the relationship between categorical variables. Poisson regression was used to identify the factors significantly impacting the frequency of book reading. Motivation scores were compared across demographic groups using ANOVA, and using Kruskal-Wallis test when the assumptions of ANOVA were not satisfied.

**Results**

**Demographic characteristics of the respondents**

Eighty-one percent (626) of the respondents were females which corresponds to their percentage in the 2016-17 UAEU student population (81%). The demographic characteristics of the respondents were: 49% live in the University hostels and 51% live off-campus, 93% are single, 97% did their secondary education in the UAE of whom 22% did it in a private school. Most private schools in the UAE follow the American or the British System while the public schools follow the UAE education system.

Twenty six percent of the selected students are from the College of Humanities and Social Sciences (CHSS), 26% are from Engineering and IT (COE & CIT), 20% are from Business and Economics (CBE), 11% are from Science (COS), and 16% are from other colleges. Forty-one percent have a GPA of B or higher, 47% have a GPA between C and B, and 12% have GPA less than C. The percentages of students whose fathers’ and mothers’ have at least a college education are 46% and 36%, respectively.

**Reading habits**

Forty-one percent of the students read at least three books for pleasure in the last six months which corresponds to an average of about three books per student in the last six months. Eighty percent of the students declared reading books for pleasure. Among these claimed readers, 11%
did not read any books in the previous six months which corresponds to an overall percentage of 71% of students have read at least one book for pleasure in the last six months. Given the differences of perceptions of who is a reader and who is not, we consider the latter figure (71%), with an error of ± 3%, to be a more realistic estimate of the percentage of recreational readers in the student population. In the sequel, we will define a reader as someone who classifies oneself as a recreational reader and has read at least one book for a recreational purpose in the last six months.

Table 1  Poisson regression of number of books read versus demographic profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor</th>
<th>Coefficient(B)</th>
<th>Exp(B)</th>
<th>95% CI for Exp(B)(1)</th>
<th>p-value(2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>-0.326</td>
<td>0.722</td>
<td>0.636 - 0.816</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Where did you do most of your high school?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private school in the UAE</td>
<td>-0.420</td>
<td>0.657</td>
<td>0.516 - 0.847</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public school in the UAE</td>
<td>-0.263</td>
<td>0.769</td>
<td>0.616 - 0.974</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside the UAE</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What was the education system in your high school?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>-0.247</td>
<td>0.781</td>
<td>0.589 - 1.056</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>-0.241</td>
<td>0.785</td>
<td>0.570 - 1.105</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>-0.344</td>
<td>0.709</td>
<td>0.519 - 0.990</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Living in the university hostels?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>1.160</td>
<td>1.061 - 1.267</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Number of years of studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside the UAE</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>1.069</td>
<td>1.030 - 1.110</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>GPA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1.75</td>
<td>0.105</td>
<td>1.111</td>
<td>0.892 - 1.378</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.75 – 1.99</td>
<td>-0.169</td>
<td>0.844</td>
<td>0.647 - 1.091</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00 – 2.99</td>
<td>-0.072</td>
<td>0.931</td>
<td>0.802 - 1.084</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00 – 3.59</td>
<td>-0.137</td>
<td>0.872</td>
<td>0.740 - 1.030</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.60 – 4.00</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father’s education Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary of less</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>1.006</td>
<td>0.842 - 1.205</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of high school</td>
<td>0.178</td>
<td>1.195</td>
<td>1.020 - 1.407</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College or university</td>
<td>0.026</td>
<td>1.026</td>
<td>0.873 - 1.213</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mater or higher</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother’s education Level</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.091</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary of less</td>
<td>-0.239</td>
<td>0.241</td>
<td>0.639 - 0.981</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle of high school</td>
<td>-0.236</td>
<td>0.229</td>
<td>0.647 - 0.975</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College or university</td>
<td>-0.281</td>
<td>0.166</td>
<td>0.615 - 0.936</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mater or higher</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) 95% Profile Likelihood Confidence Interval for Exp(B)
(2) Likelihood Ratio Test
Females read on average 39% more books than males (p-value = 0.000), on average 2.7 vs 2.0 books per semester (Table 1). Students who did at least some of their secondary education outside the UAE read more books than those who did it in the UAE (p-value = 0.001). For each additional year of primary or secondary education outside the UAE, students read 7% more books per semester (p-value = 0.000). Students living in the university hostels read 16% more books than those living off-campus (p-value = 0.001). Students whose fathers have only middle or secondary education read more than those whose fathers have a master degree (p-value = 0.007).

Sixty percent of the readers read during weekends and 79% read no more than 3 hours per week which corresponds to an average of 2.3 hours per week. Significantly more females read on weekends (63%) than males (41%) (p-value = 0.000).

During the vacation, 34% of the students read books for pleasure daily or weekly, while 20% read newspapers, and 15% read magazines daily or weekly. During the academic year, 39% read books for pleasure daily or weekly, 24% read newspapers and 17% read magazines daily or weekly. Students read books and newspapers significantly more often during the academic year than during vacation (p-values = 0.002).

Reading in Arabic or both in Arabic and English are equally preferred (44%) by readers. Females significantly differ from males in the preferred language of reading (p-value = 0.005), see Table 2. Females prefer reading in Arabic only (47%) more than males (31%) in contrast to reading in English only which is favored by 10% of females versus 22% of males. Moreover, readers whose father or mother has at most a primary education level tend to read in Arabic only (60%) in contrast to those whose father or mother holds a master or higher degree (17%). More readers with higher educated parents tend to be bilingual (Arabic and English) (p-value = 0.001). Preference for reading language significantly differs according to the type of high school (p-value = 0.001). Students who did most of their high school in the UAE, tend to be more bilingual (45%) than students who studied outside the UAE (17%). Finally, among those who studied in the UAE, reading in Arabic only is preferred more by those who studied in the UAE education system (48%) than those who studied in the British (27%) and American (16%) education systems (p-value = 0.000).

About two-third of the readers prefer print books. Print books are preferred by females more than males (75% vs 52%; p-value = 0.000), and graduates of public high schools in the UAE (75%) more than graduates of other types of high school (58%) (p-value = 0.008). Preference for electronic books tend to increase with the father’s education level (p-value = 0.046).

Moreover, when asked to specify the criteria by which they select books to read, readers mentioned the book title (57%), the recommendation of family/friends (42%), best author (30%), bestseller (28%), and advertisement (12%).
Table 2  *Language of reading versus demographic profile*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Arabic Count (%)</th>
<th>English Count (%)</th>
<th>Both Count (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
<th>p-value (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>20 (31.2)</td>
<td>14 (21.9)</td>
<td>30 (46.9)</td>
<td>64 (100)</td>
<td>0.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>212 (46.7)</td>
<td>44 (9.7)</td>
<td>198 (43.6)</td>
<td>454 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Where did you do most of your high school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Where did you do most of your high school?</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Arabic Count (%)</th>
<th>English Count (%)</th>
<th>Both Count (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
<th>p-value (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Private school in the UAE</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24 (32.0)</td>
<td>15 (20.0)</td>
<td>36 (48.0)</td>
<td>75 (100)</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>169 (45.1)</td>
<td>37 (9.9)</td>
<td>169 (45.1)</td>
<td>375 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public school in the UAE</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>169 (45.1)</td>
<td>37 (9.9)</td>
<td>169 (45.1)</td>
<td>375 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>198 (43.6)</td>
<td>2 (16.7)</td>
<td>198 (43.6)</td>
<td>454 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Outside the UAE</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>5 (41.7)</td>
<td>5 (41.7)</td>
<td>2 (16.7)</td>
<td>12 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>212 (46.7)</td>
<td>44 (9.7)</td>
<td>256 (46.4)</td>
<td>512 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

What was the education system in your high school?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What was the education system in your high school?</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Arabic Count (%)</th>
<th>English Count (%)</th>
<th>Both Count (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
<th>p-value (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>UAE</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>176 (48.2)</td>
<td>34 (9.3)</td>
<td>155 (42.5)</td>
<td>365 (100)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>10 (27.0)</td>
<td>5 (13.5)</td>
<td>15 (41.7)</td>
<td>37 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7 (15.9)</td>
<td>14 (31.8)</td>
<td>21 (41.7)</td>
<td>44 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.76 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>88 (33.3)</td>
<td>116 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.76 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>88 (33.3)</td>
<td>116 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.76 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>88 (33.3)</td>
<td>116 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.76 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>88 (33.3)</td>
<td>116 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.76 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>88 (33.3)</td>
<td>116 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.76 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>88 (33.3)</td>
<td>116 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.76 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>88 (33.3)</td>
<td>116 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1.76 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>88 (33.3)</td>
<td>116 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Living in the university hostels?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Living in the university hostels?</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Arabic Count (%)</th>
<th>English Count (%)</th>
<th>Both Count (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
<th>p-value (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>112 (46.9)</td>
<td>27 (11.3)</td>
<td>100 (41.8)</td>
<td>239 (100)</td>
<td>0.205</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>85 (38.6)</td>
<td>28 (12.7)</td>
<td>107 (48.6)</td>
<td>220 (100)</td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

GPA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GPA</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Arabic Count (%)</th>
<th>English Count (%)</th>
<th>Both Count (%)</th>
<th>Total (%)</th>
<th>p-value (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1.75</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>11 (44.0)</td>
<td>1 (4.0)</td>
<td>13 (52.0)</td>
<td>25 (100)</td>
<td>0.051</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.75 – 1.99</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>6 (33.3)</td>
<td>4 (22.2)</td>
<td>8 (44.4)</td>
<td>18 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.00 – 2.99</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>81 (42.6)</td>
<td>18 (9.5)</td>
<td>99 (49.9)</td>
<td>190 (100)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.00 – 3.59</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>38 (42.2)</td>
<td>10 (11.1)</td>
<td>48 (50.7)</td>
<td>90 (100)</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.60 – 4.00</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>11 (24.4)</td>
<td>12 (26.7)</td>
<td>22 (48.9)</td>
<td>45 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>53 (60.2)</td>
<td>6 (6.8)</td>
<td>29 (33.0)</td>
<td>88 (100)</td>
<td>0.001</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>74 (42.8)</td>
<td>22 (12.7)</td>
<td>77 (44.5)</td>
<td>173 (100)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>61 (39.1)</td>
<td>22 (14.1)</td>
<td>73 (46.8)</td>
<td>156 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>7 (16.7)</td>
<td>7 (16.7)</td>
<td>14 (26.6)</td>
<td>42 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>57 (51.8)</td>
<td>12 (10.9)</td>
<td>69 (37.3)</td>
<td>110 (100)</td>
<td>0.000</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>97 (48.7)</td>
<td>17 (8.5)</td>
<td>114 (53.8)</td>
<td>178 (100)</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>40 (30.8)</td>
<td>19 (14.6)</td>
<td>59 (45.6)</td>
<td>130 (100)</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3 (15.0)</td>
<td>8 (40.0)</td>
<td>11 (55.0)</td>
<td>20 (100)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(1) Pearson’s chi-square test

Development of interest in reading books

Forty-nine percent of the readers started reading books at school while 31% started much later, not due to school or family. Females significantly differ from males with respect to when they started reading (p-value = 0.000). More females started reading at school (51%) than males (35%). The sources of books read by students are purchased books (84%), free online books (66%), borrowed from friends (60%), home library (56%), and public library (45%), see Table 3.
Table 3  *Reading preferences*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>What topics do you read more often?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fiction and literature</td>
<td>292</td>
<td>50.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>History &amp; politics</td>
<td>290</td>
<td>50.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Health and well-being and relationships</td>
<td>284</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Design and arts</td>
<td>275</td>
<td>47.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comics &amp; graphic novels</td>
<td>265</td>
<td>45.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy and social sciences</td>
<td>238</td>
<td>41.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Science and technology</td>
<td>208</td>
<td>35.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business and economics</td>
<td>177</td>
<td>30.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Religion</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>When did you start reading books?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>At school</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>48.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family member</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mosque</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Much later</td>
<td>174</td>
<td>31.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>From where do you get most of the books you read?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Buy books</td>
<td>453</td>
<td>81.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Free online books</td>
<td>373</td>
<td>67.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borrow from friends</td>
<td>332</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Home library</td>
<td>308</td>
<td>55.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Borrow from public library</td>
<td>251</td>
<td>45.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What would make you read more books?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More books on topics I am interested in</td>
<td>517</td>
<td>74.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More free time</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>60.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easier access to books</td>
<td>274</td>
<td>39.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More books in my preferred language of reading</td>
<td>264</td>
<td>37.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less expensive books</td>
<td>227</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More events promoting reading</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>27.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The motivation for reading books**

Both the overall motivation score as well as the scores for each of the four motivation dimensions are above 3 (out of a maximum score of 5). Students read 79% more books for each one-point increase in the overall motivation score (p-value = 0.000). Reading as Part of Self has the highest impact on reading frequency with a 65% increase in the number of books for each one-point increase in the score while holding the other motivation subscales constant. The next highest impact on reading frequency is achieved by Reading Efficacy, Reading for Recognition, and Reading to Do Well in Other Realms, respectively.

Males have a higher overall motivation score (3.46 ± 0.52) than females (3.21 ± 0.53) (p-value = 0.000). Moreover, males have higher scores than females in the dimensions “Reading as
Part of Self,” “Reading for Recognition,” and “Reading to Do Well in Other Realms” (p-values < 0.05).

Graduates of the UAE education system have higher scores of Reading for Recognition than graduates of the British and American systems (p-value = 0.002). They don’t significantly differ in the other dimensions. Students whose fathers or mothers are higher educated have higher scores in “Reading as Part of Self” and “Reading to Do Well in Other Realms” as well as in the overall score (p-value < 0.010).

Discussion

The percentage of recreational readers (71% ± 3%) is similar to the percentages of those who read at least one book per year among the 15 – 24 years old in Jordan (70%) and lower than in Algeria (74%), and Saudi Arabia (79%) (NextPage, 2007a & 2007b). In England, about 80% of the 18 – 29 years old read books (Alasdair, 2013) and over 90% of the 15 – 24 years old visitors of the Sharjah Book Fair declared reading books (Wischenbart, 2011). Readers among UAEU students read books for 2.3 hours per week which is lower than the weekly average reading time of adult readers, in Jordan (3.4 hours), Saudi Arabia (4.9 hours) and Algeria (6.5 hours), as reported in NextPage (2007a & 2007b). On the other hand, the UAEU weekly reading times are higher than the corresponding times for adults in these countries as reported by MBRF & UNDP (2016), Jordan (0.6 hours), Saudi Arabia (0.5 hours) and Algeria (0.4 hours). Though these latter figures are for adult readers, we don’t expect the reading time for the 15 – 24 years in these countries to be much lower because the younger readers tend to read more than the older readers in the Arab region. Moreover, 14% of the UAEU student readers declared reading daily as compared to adult readers in Jordan (18%), Saudi Arabia (21%), Algeria (32%) (MBRF & UNDP, 2016) and about 18% in England (Alasdair, 2013). These results suggest that the percentage of readers and the frequency of reading among the UAE students is somewhat low when compared to the region and developed countries. This highlights the need for sustained programs to develop leadership among the youth in the UAE.

Reading frequency increases with reading motivation and it is most impacted by the intrinsic motivation Reading as Part of Self while it is least impacted by the Reading to Do Well in Other Realms dimension. Thus, initiatives that raise self-interest and pleasure in reading will have a greater impact on reading and reading frequency. The time period at which students started reading books does not seem to significantly impact reading and reading frequency. We found that males have an overall motivation score higher than females, in contrast with NextPage (2007a). Children of educated parents have higher scores in overall motivation and in Reading as Part of Self and Reading to Do Well in Other Realms. This may reflect the role of educated parents in promoting reading to their children.

Females read more than males which is in line with results of studies in other Arab countries and England. Moreover, while reading in Arabic only or both in Arabic and English are equally preferred by readers in the UAE, readers in Egypt and Saudi Arabia prefer to read in Arabic only. Likewise, Lebanese, Moroccan and Tunisian readers prefer to read in Arabic unless it was online in which they read in English or French (NextPage, 2007a & 2007b). About 70% of the
UAEU students prefer print books which is similar to the preference of adult readers in England (76%) (Alasdair, 2013).

The findings of this study done on a sample of UAE students, who represent a segment of the educated youth in the UAE, suggest the need for incentives and sustained initiatives to raise the motivation for reading of individuals in the UAE involving parents, schools, government and other social forums and to provide easy access to literature/recreational books through educational institution libraries or public libraries.

**Conclusion**

In this study we investigated the recreational reading habits, types and language of reading material, and motivation to read of undergraduate students at a large public university in the UAE. We found that seventy-one percent of the students read at least one book for pleasure in the last six months and they read books for 2.3 hours per week, on average. The frequency of reading is significantly dependent on gender, the secondary education of the student, and the parents’ education. About two-third of the readers prefer print books and reading in Arabic or both in Arabic and English are equally preferred. Males have a higher overall motivation score than females, and students whose fathers or mothers are higher educated have higher motivation scores. There is a need to further study the reading habits and motivation of other segments of the society and develop evidence-based initiatives to promote reading.

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**About the Authors**

**Tamimount Ennaji** is an instructor of statistics at UAE University. She holds a Master degree in Business Mathematics and Computer Science, specialization in Statistics, from the Vrije University Amsterdam, The Netherlands. Her research interests focus on Applied Statistics in general, and statistical modeling in particular. [https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1114-0602](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1114-0602)

**Wala Ahmed** holds a Bachelor degree in statistics from UAE University (2018). She is interested in research in statistics. [https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0972-0349](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0972-0349)

**Maitha Saeed Al Saedi** graduated from UAE University in Fall 2017 with a Bachelor degree in Statistics. [https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3812-5410](https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3812-5410)

**Soumia Lounis** is a student majoring in English language Education for elementary schools at UAU. The anticipated date of graduation is Spring 2019. [https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4990-3422](https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4990-3422)

**Taoufik Zoubeidi** is a Professor at UAE University with over 30 years of work experience in academia, statistical consultancy, and academic administration. He holds a PhD in Statistics from the University of Michigan. [https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5520-7664](https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5520-7664)
Motivation and Habits of Recreational Reading

Zoubeidi, Ennaji, Ahmed, Al Saedi & Lounis

References


Engaging Saudi EFL Students in Online Peer Review in a Saudi University Context

Talal Waleed Daweli
Department of Languages and Translation
Taibah University, Madinah, Saudi Arabia

Abstract:
This study focuses on a Saudi English as a foreign language (EFL) context. It employs Google Docs as an educational tool to engage Saudi EFL students in online peer review to address some challenges faced instructors when they implement peer review in class. The main goals of the study are examining what kinds of corrective feedback that Saudi EFL students provide when they edit their peers’ texts in Google Docs, how they can improve their texts based on the collaborative online peer review, and what their attitudes are toward using Google Docs as an online peer review tool. The study utilizes Google Docs, an online questionnaire, and an interview as research tools; after thematic analysis, the results show that Saudi EFL students focus on local and global writing issues and provide different types of corrective feedback that aid them to improve their writing. They have positive attitudes toward using Google Docs in peer review. This tool allows them to engage in an online social environment outside the classroom, feel as critical editors, adjust their writing, and avoid embarrassment. The results also suggest that hierarchical power in the classroom and students’ prior beliefs and experiences can impact their responses to the given feedback from teachers and peers. This study recommends instructors to integrate online peer review as a genre and move beyond low-stakes genre in EFL writing courses at the university level.

Key Words: corrective feedback, EFL writing, Google Docs, online peer review, Saudi EFL students

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Introduction
Peer review has received attention from writing researchers and instructors recently (Chang, 2015; Yu, 2016; Hu, 2005). In the EFL Arab contexts, several studies have revealed some challenges faced by instructors when integrating peer review in the classroom. Ezza (2010) states the teacher’s central role as the main source of corrective feedback on students’ writing influences the effectiveness of classroom peer review on writing. Likewise, Al-Hazmi and Schofield (2007) highlight another challenge to the effectiveness that is learners’ focuses on surface-level errors in their feedback. Time restrictions in writing courses also influence peer review in the EFL writing classroom (Razak & Saeed, 2014). Additionally, the author’s teaching experiences at the Saudi university context suggest that Saudi EFL students’ belief and other cultural norms impact the practice of peer review in writing classes.

Establishing a social environment by using technological applications, such as Google Docs and Facebook, might overcome some of the limitations and challenges in face-to-face peer review. These applications enable EFL instructors to create an interactive online learning environment in which students can promote their critical thinking while they provide comments on their peers’ texts either inside or outside the classroom. In EFL contexts, particularly in the Saudi context, there have been a few face-to-face peer review studies (for example, Alnasser & Alyousef, 2015; Al-Hazmi & Scholfield, 2007). These studies use peer review in EFL writing classes and focus on Saudi’s attitudes toward peer review in the classroom and which kinds of error corrections the students provide to their peers. However, none of the above-mentioned studies have implemented Google Docs as an online peer review tool and targeted Saudi EFL students who study at a Saudi university. In this context, the author’s teaching experiences suggest that some EFL students are reluctant to provide corrective feedback on their peers’ texts when they interact orally in class. Rollinson (2005) describes the reason behind this reluctance and articulates that some EFL student writers “from certain cultures may feel uncomfortable with . . . the social interaction demanded by peer review” (p. 26). For example, in certain cultures, second language (L2) students may feel intimidated by participating in class peer review, concerned that they might threaten their peers’ faces or their comments might bother their peers (Ferris, 2003). Hence, the emergence of technology can alleviate the above-mentioned issues by using online peer review, especially in the Saudi EFL contexts where the majority of students are not accustomed to using technology in a writing course. Therefore, this study focuses on the Saudi EFL context and employs Google Docs as an educational tool to engage Saudi EFL students in online peer review. It aims to answer two questions. First, what kinds of corrective feedback do Saudi EFL students provide when they edit their peers’ texts in Google Docs? And, how do they develop their texts based on the collaborative peer review? Second, what are Saudi EFL students’ attitudes toward using Google Docs as an online peer review tool?

Literature review
Corrective feedback and its types
Corrective feedback in writing usually refers to local issues, such as errors on form, or/and global issues related to content, such as rhetorical aspects of writing. Van Beuningen (2010) mentions that corrective feedback fosters language learning and develops accuracy because it offers opportunities for English students to identify their own writing issues related to linguistic and interlanguage. Nevertheless, another study raises concerns about the use of corrective feedback and suggests this kind of feedback may not be helpful for students’ writing development (Truscott & Hsu, 2008). Ferris (2004, 2010) indicates that the usefulness of written corrective feedback is a topic of considerable debate. As a result, there has been considerable controversy among researchers about the usefulness of corrective feedback in learning and teaching the language (Guénette, 2007). To clarify, the debate is between researchers who argue that students should receive corrective feedback to improve their accuracy in writing and others who do not believe in the effectiveness of corrective feedback.
Regarding the effects of corrective feedback on students' writing, Lyster and Ranta (1997) identify different types of corrective feedback that would improve students' writing. Some of these types are clarification requests, repetitions, recasts, explicit error correction, and metalinguistic feedback. Ellis (2004) and DeKeyser (1998) refer to different kinds of corrective feedback: explicit and implicit. Van Beuningen (2010) illustrates another classification of corrective feedback which is direct or indirect feedback. Direct corrective feedback clarifies the written error and its correction, whereas indirect corrective feedback signifies just an error written in text. However, the corrective feedback types used in this study are those identified by Lyster and Ranta (1997).

Peer Review

Peer review, whether face-to-face or online, is known by distinctive terms; these include “peer feedback,” “peer response/revision”, or “peer editing” (Liu & Hansen, 2002). These terms are used interchangeably to refer to peer review in this study. Nelson (1997) describes that the term peer review “refers to students’ reading and responding to each other’s written work to provide their peers with comments on how they can improve the draft versions of their papers” (p. 77). This reflects how the teacher’s comments are no longer considered as the primary source of written corrective feedback on student writing. In fact, it is a learner-centered approach where learners can interact with each other to negotiate their writing errors, enhance a sense of audience, and clarify the purpose of their writing (Liu & Sadler, 2003). This work of peer review is considered as collaborative and cooperative (Oskoz & Elola, 2011). It is also supported by the notion of Vygotsky's Zone of Proximal Development which assumes that learners can perform at a higher level when they receive support from others (Ortega, 2009). Similarly, in peer review activities, learners move from correcting their written content individually to collaboratively working with each other to share opinions and suggestions that improve their written texts. Thus, each learner can receive support from his peer. This collaborative peer review is different from feedback provided by a teacher because it aids students to be more critical readers and revisers of their own and peer’s writing (Rollinson, 2005).

In the contexts of EFL, classroom peer review has received attention from English researchers and instructors in recent years. Grami (2010) states, “If students are properly trained to use peer feedback, the benefits could be very significant, and therefore it recommends that education policy-makers and ESL writing teachers in Saudi Arabia should do more effort to introduce peer session to all ESL writing classes” (p.1). So, the lack of training is an issue that EFL students encounter when they provide feedback on their peers’ text. Moreover, other researchers have investigated various issues of face-to-face peer review, including more focus on addressing local issues, such as grammar and vocabulary, and less attention to global issues in writing, such as content and organization (Al-Hazmi & Scholfield, 2007). Nevertheless, Alnasser and Alyousef (2015) find that EFL students have a preference for giving and receiving peer feedback on both levels local and global on their writing. Likewise, other studies have shown that EFL students can provide useful peer feedback that addresses global dimensions of writing, such as content, organization, and rhetoric (Min, 2005; Ruegg, 2015; Hu, 2005; Xu & Liu, 2010).

There are other positive effects of peer review. Students can have active roles in their writing, improve their critical skills needed to analyze and revise peers’ writing, receive feedback from multiple sources, and build confidence when they provide and receive written peer feedback (Ferris, 2003). Lastly, peer feedback internalizes a sense of audience in EFL student writers’ minds because it provides them with a realistic and tangible audience than writing only for their teacher (Lundstorm & Baker, 2009).

Based on the above-mentioned studies, there are researchers who agree that several issues constrain the effectiveness of face-to-face peer review while others believe that peer review represents an interactive environment which allows EFL students to respond to macro or/and micro writing issues immediately or
spontaneously (Chang, 2012; Liang, 2010). On the other hand, other researchers argue that online tools are superior to face-to-face peer review because they enable EFL students to comment on their peers’ texts and facilitate their interaction as well as feedback exchanges (Liu & Sadler, 2003).

The results of previous studies (for example, Bradley, 2014; Chang, 2012) support the role of online peer review as it boosts EFL students’ engagement in writing revision outside the classroom. As new technology emerges in education, there are several studies which have employed technological tools, such as Wiki and Facebook, to engage students in electronic feedback. Tuzi (2004) moves from face-to-face peer review to electronic responses. This researcher finds that although L2 student writers prefer oral feedback, the electronic feedback has a greater impact on revision than oral feedback and it helps L2 writers focus on larger writing blocks. Similarly, Ghazali, Sahuri, and Abdulrab (2018) find that EFL students perceive the Facebook group as an interactive learning environment which facilitates their peer feedback on writing beyond the university context.

There are other EFL studies that have emphasized the values of online peer review. Min (2008) finds that online peer feedback can result in better writing because it promotes revision. Figl, Bauer, and Mangler (2006) also suggest the digital peer review can help teams to enrich their discussions. In terms of promoting critical thinking skill, Guiller, Durdell, and Ross (2008) compare the transcripts of online and face-to-face discussion and indicate that the online mode facilitates the development of critical thinking. Likewise, Crank’s (2002) study of asynchronous peer response and face-to-face peer response in a college classroom reveals that the use of e-mail improves the quality of peer review, helps students to express their thoughts, and allows them time to think about their reactions.

**Google Docs for peer review**

Many writing instructors request L2 writers to share their writing in Google Docs with peers for providing feedback. This digital tool can support both synchronous and asynchronous editing and comment by multiple users on different computers. The main author can permit collaborators to view, edit, and comment on any document at any time. Snyder, a presenter in TESOL International Association 2018, suggests that Google Docs facilitates high-quality peer review because it gives more time to students to read their peers’ papers than what it is available in class. Multiple peer reviewers can edit the written texts in Google Docs, making it a desirable online application for a collaborative learning. In terms of checking peer comments, teachers can reply to peer review comments if students are giving misleading feedback. This application makes auto-save every second so that students cannot lose their papers and creates a history of revision of any document that allows teachers and students to track the progress made in a particular essay.

**Methodology**

**Context and participants**

The author is an English lecturer at a Saudi university where he taught Saudi male EFL students several writing courses in two semesters, Fall 2016 and Spring 2017. At that time, students did not practice peer review in any writing classes. So, he trained them in two class periods about 90 minutes for each to practice peer review in class and show them how they could read their peers’ texts and provide different kinds of corrective feedback that focus on form and content. This training was helpful and enhanced the students’ knowledge about peer review. However, several factors constrained students from giving effective feedback to their peers, such as students’ cultural norms and time constraint. For example, they were worried about the loss of face and embracement when engaging in classroom peer review. After a year, the author piloted online peer review as a tool to address some of the cultural concerns. Similarly, Yu and Hu (2017) reveal, “Five major factors emerging from the multiple sources appeared to have played an important role in influencing the students’ peer feedback practices. They are: (a) student beliefs and values…” (p.30).
Thus, using online peer review may be an effective tool that is effective beyond the classroom context.

The author requested permission from the Department of Languages and Translation, where he taught, to recruit Saudi EFL students who were interested in online peer review through Google Docs outside the classroom context. Only five Saudi male EFL students (Ahamed, Ibrahim, Mahmoud, Rayan, and Sami) confirmed via e-mail that they were willing to participate in this study. These five names are pseudonyms. All five students are seniors and their major is English. Arabic is their first language. They have studied English since grade 6 and their English proficiency level is intermediate. The author taught them writing courses about a year ago. In this study, all five participants engaged in an online peer review via Google Docs outside the writing courses to examine what kinds of corrective feedback they give to their peers, how the provided feedback in Google Doc can develop their writing, and what their attitudes are toward using this digital peer review.

**Instruments and procedures**

This study employs three main instruments: Google Docs, online questionnaire administrated via Qualtrics, and oral interview via phone. The author created a Google Docs document and shared it with the participants when the study took place. This document encompasses instructions written in English and Arabic that the participants read and applied outside the classroom. The first instruction was that watch a short video on YouTube that explains how to use Google Docs. Secondly, respond to a writing prompt “write a short essay to your friend who is unfamiliar with Ramadan, the ninth month of the Islamic calendar when Muslims fast during the day, and provide him with basic information about this month and possible religious and cultural activities that you practice” This topic is relevant to the participants’ religion and Saudi culture. A reason for selecting an essay genre is that the participants are more familiar with the five-paragraph genre and they are not taught to write in different advanced genres, such as reports, formal letters or memos. They responded to the prompt under their assigned names in a shared Google Docs that allows asynchronous editing and commenting by multiple users on different computers simultaneously. Therefore, after each participant finished responding to the prompt, the author divided them into pairs so that each one could make the necessary corrections and changes in his peer’s text.

The third instruction was an access to a link that enabled the participants to fill out an online questionnaire via Qualtrics. It contains five questions written in English that elicit information about which writing errors, global or local, and which corrective feedback types that the participants focused on when they provided comments on their peers’ writing in Google Docs. They had been given the right to choose either Arabic or English when they responded to the questionnaire.

The last instruction was an oral interview. The author contacted the participants via phone and asked them eight questions without recording based on their request. They preferred to make the interview in English. The interview took from six to eight minutes outside the classroom setting. Each participant responded to eight questions in English that reflect his prior experience and attitude toward online peer review. During the interview, the author wrote down the participants’ responses to the questions.

**Data analysis**

This study employs thematic analysis that is a common form of analysis in qualitative research that focuses on identifying and analyzing themes within the collected data. This approach also concentrates on people’s experiences and their feeling and attitudes toward doing an activity. To demonstrate, the author looked closely at the participants’ provided feedback in Google Docs and their answers to the questionnaire and interview questions. In order words, he read and re-read the participants’ collected data from the three instruments in order to figure out what the data involved and to pay attention to the frequent themes that occurred. Then, he documented their occurrences where they occurred and turned them into labels in order
to create categories for analysis. The last process was analyzing the data by describing the frequent themes and making references to them.

Findings and discussion

Google Docs

In a Google Docs document, all participants wrote an introduction, two body paragraphs, and a conclusion then they edited their peers’ writing. The two figures below show different kinds of corrective feedback and writing errors that each participant focused on while editing his peer’s text.

![Figure 1: Corrective Feedback Types practiced in Google Docs](image)

![Figure 2: Types of Error Correction practiced in Google Docs](image)

Regarding the provided corrective feedback in Google Docs, all participants practiced three types of corrective feedback: clarification request, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback. Among these kinds, clarification request was the most preferred feedback among four participants (see Figure 1).
In Figure 3, Rayan made two clarification requests when he reviewed his peer’s text. For example, he raised two questions: “What do you mean by Quran?” and “What do you mean by Fifa?” Rayan aimed these questions could help his peer Sami to consider his audience who might not familiar with the two terms “Quran” and “Fifa”. The biggest concern for Rayan when he edited his peer’s text was the comprehensibility of the content for readers who might not know what is Quran, the Holy book, and Fifa that stands for The Fédération Internationale de Football Association. In order words, Rayan’s provided feedback did not value local writing issues. This theme, focus on audience, is also relevant to the findings of other studies, such as (Lundstorm and Baker, 2009; Min, 2005).

In Figure 4, the data shows that the peer reviewer, Ahamed, provided his peer with an explicit correction that is “The first letter should be capital” in “activities” written in the title. This corrective feedback indicates that the writer should have edited his grammatical mistake based on the given explicit comment. In this feedback, Ahamed identified a local error. Moreover, metalinguistic feedback was the second given corrective feedback that contains a question raised by Ahamed “Can you tell where is the mistake?” So, he did not make an explicit correction; in fact, his comment required this peer to consider the cues included in the question. Thus, Ahamed’s peer needed to figure out the error and its correction based on his grammatical competence. This kind of feedback is to “encourage the learners to function at his or her potential level of ability” (Ortega, 2009, p. 226). In order words, metalinguistic feedback begins with implicit prompt, such as Ahamed’s question “Can you tell where is the mistake?” to encourage the writer’s self-regulation instead of increasing reliance on explicit corrections. This is known as the Zone of Proximal Development tuned assistance where the corrective feedback is graduated, implicit prompts, contingent, and relying on the self (Ortega, 2009).
Overall, in Google Docs, the participants’ comments included three corrective feedback types, clarification request, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback, and they commented on global and local errors. Nevertheless, the participants focused more on form when providing comments on the texts of their peers. Unsurprisingly, this focus reflects how some EFL instructors emphasize form over content on students’ writing in the Saudi context. It appears that participants mirror their writing instructors in how they provide corrective feedback; they utilized this feedback on their peers’ texts in Google Docs.

**Questionnaire**

All participants answered five questions via accessing a shared link in Qualtrics. After analyzing the participants’ answers to the first question, they followed a common approach when they corrected their peers’ texts. The approach was close reading then providing corrective feedback that would improve their peer’s texts. In addition, their answers to the other three questions show that they preferred to provide as well as receive comments on local and global issues and give three different kinds of corrective feedback as shown in Figures 1 and 2. In short, their answers in the questionnaire align with the findings of the feedback analysis of Google Docs.

The last question in the questionnaire reveals that the participants preferred receiving comments from peers via Google Docs. Mahmoud’s response to the last question was “Your best friend’s comments because he is closer to you than the teacher.” Receiving comments on writing from peers was preferable by three participants who could negotiate their writing errors due to a friendship that is not affected by hierarchical power in the classroom. Nonetheless, other participants chose to obtain writing comments from both teacher and peer. For instance, Ahamed stated, “I prefer feedback from both but from teacher more because he helps me to improve my writing more than my peer review”. So, Ahamed’s prior experiences with peer review might not be positive as he received comments from his peer that were less constructive compared to the feedback he obtained from his teacher. Trust is another factor that makes Ahamed prioritized his teacher corrective feedback over his peers. Believing teacher is the only qualified and authoritative source to comment on students’ writing plays a vital role in how students view their peers’ provided feedback. Therefore, students’ prior beliefs and experiences of teachers and peers’ feedback can influence their writing development when responding to the feedback.

To summarize this section, all five participants implemented a common approach when they commented on their peers’ texts. They focused on local and global issues and provided different types of corrective feedback. Similarly, these results are consistent with Alnasser and Alyousef (2015) in that participants concentrated on both error kinds. The classroom hierarchical structure and students’ prior beliefs and experiences can impact their responses to the received feedback from teachers and peers. Similarly, this factor of students’ beliefs is also found in the study of Yu and Hu (2017). Thus, writing instructors should not be the only source of feedback on students’ writing; in fact, they need to integrate peer review into course design and use it consistently so that students can value their peers’ comments (Hedgcock & Ferris, 2013).

**Interview**

The five participants chose to speak English when the author interviewed them orally via phone. The interviewees’ answers to the first two questions reveal that they have not engaged in peer review practices in the secondary school and university except in the writing courses that the author taught them at the university. Their previous peer review training in class helped them to succeed in peer review via Google Docs. Generally, the participants have positive attitudes toward giving and receiving feedback in Google Docs as they were able to benefit from their peers’ feedback in Google Docs. Mahmoud and Ibrahim built their own confidence when editing their peers’ texts. They said, “I feel I am a writer who has editing skills” and “it is a positive feeling because I felt I am a critical editor.” Likewise, Ahamed mentioned, “I
really like how it saves my time instead of meeting in class and work wherever I want.” Working outside the classroom was a factor that contributes to the positive feeling that all participants have toward online peer review. Similarly, consistent with Saeed, Ghazali, Sahuri, and Abdulrab’ study (2018), online peer feedback appears to facilitate EFL students’ writing beyond the university context.

Regarding changing the texts due to the comments received from peers in Google Docs, four participants adjusted their writing based on the received comments from their peers. For example, after Ibrahim received comment from his peer, he tackled his punctuation error as he stated, “yes, I changed comma errors.” However, the author was not able to access to long-term impact of using online peer review via Google Docs on participants’ writing development because they responded to the comments only at the time of the study.

Conclusion and limitations
This study focuses on the EFL post-secondary context and employs Google Docs as an educational tool to examine which kinds of corrective feedback Saudi EFL students provide when they edit their peers’ texts, how the collaborative peer review helps them to change their texts, and their attitudes toward using Google Docs as an online peer review tool. The findings reveal that all five participants are able to improve and adjust their writing when they receive online comments from their peers that include local and global writing issues and different corrective feedback types, clarification request, explicit correction, and metalinguistic feedback. Additionally, they find that using Google Docs in peer review can aid them to work in a social environment beyond the classroom and avoid embarrassment. Overall, they have positive attitudes toward Google Docs in peer review. However, there are factors that can influence EFL students’ responses to teachers and peers’ feedback, such as hierarchical power and students’ beliefs and experiences of teachers and peers’ feedback. Considering limitations, the study cannot measure how the participants can improve their writing for long-term when receiving comments from their peers. Lastly, the results of the study cannot be generalized to other Saudi EFL university contexts due to the limited number of participants.

Recommendations and future research
The participants have not practiced peer review at the secondary and university levels and have not engaged in writing advanced genres. Thus, the author recommends EFL instructors to integrate online peer review in the university writing courses and implement it as a tool for revision that values both form and content. Another recommendation, EFL instructors should move students from the five-essay genre to advanced genres, such as research paper, to enhance EFL students’ rhetorical knowledge. For future research, it is beneficial to improve this study and recruit a larger number of participants to address its limitations.

About the author:
Talal Waleed Daweli is a lecturer of TESOL at the Department of Languages and Translation at Taibah University, Madinah, Saudi Arabia. He earned his Master degree in TESOL from Arkansas Tech University and now, he is a Ph.D. student in TESOL at Illinois State University. His research interests are second language writing, language policy, and linguistic and cultural imperialism. https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5765-0248
References


**Appendix**

**Interview Form**

1. Did you do peer review activities in an English course in a secondary school? if so, explain how you did peer review.

2. Did you practice face-to-face or online peer review (Google Docs) in any writing course at a university level? if so, explain how you did peer review.

3. Did online peer review (Google Docs) help you to improve your English writing skills, especially editing and revision? In what ways?

4. What was your attitude toward giving writing comments to peer writers on Google Docs?

5. What was your attitude toward receiving writing comments from peer writers on Google Docs?

6. Did you change your texts due to comments and opinions received from peers on Google Docs? If so, how?

7. In your opinion, what are some pros and cons of the use of digital tools such as google doc with your peers?

8. Would you like to do a similar activity (peer review by using Google docs) with your teacher?
Do you Like My English? Thai Students’ Attitudes towards Five Different Asian Accents

Rusma Kalra
Department of Business English, Theodore Maria School of Arts
Assumption University, Thailand

Chayada Thanavisuth
Department of Business English, Theodore Maria School of Arts
Assumption University, Thailand

Abstract
This research aims to explore how Thai speakers of English perceive their Asian peers’ accented English and evaluate the acceptability of their accents namely Burmese English, Chinese English, Indian English, Japanese English, and Vietnamese English. The participants were eighty undergraduate students at an International University in Thailand where English is used as a medium of instruction. They were asked to listen to five recorded speech extracts taken from five different intermediate-level reading passages. A triangulated study is used to examine the data from different angle including a questionnaire survey in a Likert-type scale and a follow-up semi-structured interview. The Index of Item Objective Congruence (IOC) and Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient were also applied to assure the content validity of the research methodology. The results in this study indicated that Thai student participants were easily able to identify that five speakers were all non-native speakers of English. The majority preferred Indian accented English to other accented Englishes. Most participants showed negative attitudes towards Japanese and Burmese accented English. It is somewhat conclusive that the participants still believe that a native-like accent is overvalued their perceived English accents.

Keywords: Asian accents, Asian Englishes, attitudes, English as a Lingua Franca

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Introduction
In the contemporary world, English has become the international language in which most intercultural communication is conducted (Seidlhofer, 2011). The number of speakers using English as a foreign or second language outnumbers the number of native speakers of the language six times (Crystal, 2003) and, accordingly, English is used more commonly as a Lingua Franca in the international context than to communicate with its native speakers (Jenkins, 2007).

Across Asia, the numbers of people having at least a functional command of the English language have grown exponentially over the last four decades, and current changes in the sociolinguistic realities of the region are often so rapid that it is difficult for academic commentators to keep pace. Because of the global spread of English, there are more people who speak English with a non-native accent. As a result, such accents often bring about the rise of stereotypes the accents of speakers in terms of academic success and employability (Lippi-Green, 1994). From decades of research in social psychology and sociolinguistics, it has been established that accent plays a significant role in how native speakers perceive non-native speakers of English (Garrett, 2010). However, little has been done in exploring how Thai speakers of English view their Asian peers’ accents and judge the acceptability of their accents. In this study, the researchers try to understand from the learners perspective of their perception of five different Asian accents namely Vietnamese, Burmese, Chinese, Indian and Japanese.

Literature Review
In ELT, one of the two Englishes, American or British, however, has been promoted as prime while other forms of English have been ignored. For example, some varieties of Asian English in were either treated as non-standard or often excluded in research or in teaching (Jenkins, 2009). Accordingly, researchers have regarded the notion of standard English as problematic (Smith, 1992). Smith and Nelson (1985) explain that intelligibility refers to lexical-level recognition, comprehensibility is about understanding sentence-level meaning in context, and interpretability is the ability to see the embedded meaning rather than the literal one. Munro and Derwing (1995) define intelligibility as to whether or not the intended message of a speaker is acknowledged by a listener as the base for comprehensibility, which refers to how easy it is to understand a speaker.

According to Anurit, Selvarajah and Meyer (2011), unlike its neighboring countries, Thailand has never been colonized. Hence, as Wiriyachitra (2004, p.1) puts it, “Thailand has always been a country with only one official language which is Thai. He further explains that as Thailand needs to progress in terms of business, education, and tourism industries, Thais need to be able to demonstrate high proficiency for communication and negotiation with those who cannot speak Thai in today’s globalized world.

EFL students in ASEAN social settings have been found to purport preferences for native speakers' articulation and elocution especially to speaking practice or pronunciation centered classroom exercises in the conviction that these instructors are better ready to demonstrate oral familiarity and 'right' articulation (Árva & Medgyes 2000; Callahan 2006; Lasagabaster & Sierra 2002; Medgyes 1992).
A broad assemblage of research dating from early investigations utilizing the matched guise technique (e.g. Cargile et al. (1994); Lambert, Anisfeld, and Yeni-Komshian (1965) has reliably demonstrated that audience's view of accents are affected by extralinguistic data. Factors, for example, the speaker's nationality or L1 foundation may intercede audience members' view of specific phonemes and impact their judgment of the speaker's complement; this has been appeared to be genuine notwithstanding when the speaker and audience share a similar dialect or vernacular (Hay, Nolan, and Drager (2006); Hu and Lindemann (2009); Niedzielski (1999).

In nations, for example, Malaysia, India or Singapore where English has a solid regulated status and might be a native language to a few parts of the population, confidence in and acknowledgment of limited pronunciation standards might be of hard impact (Timmis 2002; Tokumoto and Shibata 2011). Anyway the two students and instructors may consider local English Speakers' intonations to be clearer and more right (Evans and Imai (2011); Jenkins (2005); Li (2009); Sifakis and Sougari (2005); Tang (1997); Tokumoto and Shibata (2011).

**World Englishes Perspective**

World Englishes (WE) notion that tries to go beyond the nativeness in order to be able to better serve the current English profile as an international language (EIL), or to highlight that the language no longer belongs to any particular speech community (McKay, 2012; Jenkins, 2009; Widdowson, 2003). During the last three decades, *World Englishes* notions have emerged and gained more acceptance from the situation that English has been used in multicultural contexts as a lingua franca between people who share different first languages (Jenkins, 2009, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007). The changing profile of speakers, in which non-native speakers of English’ outnumber the native speakers, implies that, especially in terms of the use English as an International Language (EIL), one has a tendency to engage in English communication with non-native speakers than with native speakers of English (Smith, 1992 as cited in Lee, 2012). This also suggests that native speaker models should be put aside (Cook & Singleton, 2014; Jenkins, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007; McKay, 2002; Kachru, 1996;) since the concept that all learners of English need or desire so-called ‘native speaker competence’ would not much contribute to understanding their various language needs nor reflect the type of English the learners would need to use in their current and real-world intercultural lives outside (Renandya, 2012; Jenkins, 2009, 2012; Lee, 2012; Matsuda, 2003, 2012; McKay, 2002, 2012; Kirkpatrick, 2007; Kasper, 1999 as cited in Jenkins, 2009; Kachru, 1996).

**Chinese English**

The first feature of Chinese English is that it is not confined to any specific group of people because there is no clear cut-off point between a learner and a user of English. In terms of how and how much English is used in their lifeworld (Husserl, 1970), the millions of Chinese people who are learning or have completed their learning of English in formal education may be positioned somewhere on a continuum. The second feature is that, being a new variety of English, “it is only natural that China English is characterized with cross-linguistic influences from the Chinese language since the learners’ acquisition of a second language is influenced, either negatively or positively, by their mother tongue, and by the linguistic environment” (He & Li, 2009, p. 83). Some salient features of Chinese in terms of Phonological standard *e.g. dental fricative as in the word theory may be pronounced with f or s or t instead of ‘th’.* which is what makes the Englishes
spoken by Chinese speakers from different backgrounds less intelligible (Jiang, 2003). Moreover, Schneider (2011) also adds that other distinctive sound features can be found in Chinese English such as omitting final consonants, appending an additional vowel, changing voiced consonants to voiceless, and using strongly aspirated voiceless stops.

**Indian English**

English has been with India since the mid-1600's, the point at which the East India Company began exchanging and English preachers initially started their endeavors. A substantial number of Christian schools giving an English instruction were set up by the mid-1800's. Kachru takes note of that English currently has national and universal capacities that are both particular and corresponding. English has subsequently gained another power base (Kachru 1986, p. 12). Only around three percent of India's populace communicate in English, however they are the people who lead India's monetary, modern, proficient, political, and public activity. Despite the fact that English is basically a second dialect for these people, it is the medium in which an incredible number of the collaborations in the above areas are completed. Having such vital data moving in English courses is frequently not increased in value by Indians who don't talk it, yet they are generally feeble to change that. Its inactivity is with the end goal that it can't be effortlessly surrendered. This is especially valid in South India, where English fills in as an all-inclusive dialect in the manner in which that Hindi does in the North. In spite of being a three percent minority, the English talking populace in India is very expansive. With India's huge populace, that three percent puts India among the best four nations on the planet with the most noteworthy number of English speakers. English presents numerous focal points to the powerful individuals who talk it - which has enabled it to hold its unmistakable quality regardless of the solid restriction to English which rises occasionally.

Jenkins (2003) classifies Indian English (IE) as an institutionalized variety of the Outer Circle. That is to say IE is the official language used in business, education, law, and media. Several salient phonological features of IE includes the use of retroflex stops for alveolar stops, deletion of some fricative sounds (Wells, 1982).

**Vietnamese English**

Vietnamese is in the Austro-Asiatic language family. Singer (2012) asserted that Vietnamese is a tone language that makes it sound musical when Vietnamese speak English. In Vietnam, English is taught as a compulsory subject from Grade 3 (Nguyen, 2011). Previous research has demonstrated that second language (L2) speakers experience issues with choosing fitting pitch shapes for sentences (He et al. 2012) and that their use of pitch can indicate cross-etalymological impact (Gut 2009). One of the main investigations that found the cross-etymological impact on L2 sound was by Wennerstrom (1994), who analyzed the pitch stature toward the finish of a yes-no inquiry in a perusing section created by local English speakers to that delivered by local Thai, Japanese and Spanish L2 speakers of English. Her outcomes demonstrate that the Thai local speakers did not stamp the inquiry with a high closure ascend as the local English speakers did, while the other two student bunches delivered rises like the local speakers. She theorized that these contrasts between L2 speakers might be because of L1 impacts, and particularly 'the way that in Thai, a tone dialect, pitch capacities to separate lexical as opposed to discourse meaning'.
**Japanese English**

Ellis (1994) stated, the majority of English learners in the Expanding Circle do not reach native-like proficiency, probably due to limited exposure to English and the learners’ lack of strong motivation to master the language. As for Japan, Stanlaw (1992) reported the surprisingly low fluency of English among Japanese people, who usually learn the language in school for six to ten years. The exact word “Japanese English” is used very derogatorily in Japan, mainly referring to the distinctive pronunciation traits that L1 Japanese transfer to L2 English. When the assumption that any deviations from the native model are shameful is removed, however, the very distinctive features that are commonly observed in English spoken by Japanese native speakers entitle their language variety “Japanese English.” Baxter (1980) stresses the importance of recognizing the fact that, for the majority of Japanese, English is not a foreign language but a language for international communication with both native and nonnative speakers. Like Suzuki (1971) and Smith (1976), Baxter (1980) also declares that Japanese need not speak like Americans, while they might want to conform to native English varieties in vocabulary and grammar.

Consonants. Standard Tokyo Japanese includes the following consonants: /p, t, k, b, d, g, ts, S, z, m n, r, h, y, w/. The Japanese “r” is often a flapped sound, el, similar to the "t" in American English "city." The forms /p, t, k/ are usually, but not always, described as unaspirated. Certain consonants (e.g. Is/) have allophones (e.g., U]) occurring before high vowels. A mora nasal conventionally represented as INI becomes Im! before Ip, b, m, In! before It, d, nI, and II]/before /k, g, 1]/. Japanese also has a mora obstruent represented as /9/, which is always realized as the same obstruent that follows it, creating a geminate (or "double") consonant. Only /U/ and 101 can close syllables. American English has the following 25 consonants: Ip, b, t, d, k, g, f, v, o, 6, s, z, 1, 3, t1, d3, m, n, Ij, 1, r, j, W, ll, hi. The forms /p, t, k/ have aspirated allophones at the beginning of words and at the beginning of all stressed syllables. (Vance, 1987)

**Burmese English**

Kirkpatrick (2010) asserted that the linguistic context and the role of English in Burma as a British colony were changed its institutional role of English due to the power of the military dictator. Win (2003) identified the phonological traits of Burmese English spoken by Burmese English speakers including the use of non-prevocalic /r/, unaspirated voiceless stop in the syllable- initial position, glottal stop in the syllable- final position, and consonant cluster omission.

**The context of this study**

Regarding the context of this study, data for this study come from two groups of participants. They all were students studying in an International University in Thailand in a course name Introduction to Linguistics at the time this study was being conducted. This course is a major requirement subject for students in language major. It aims to provide basic knowledge about the study of language in a systematic way. English is used as a medium of the instruction. Students also have to use English in the classroom and communicate with foreign friends. They have a chance to expose to different accents.

The first group consisted of five speaker participants (2 male and 3 female speakers). Their recorded speech extracts were used in this study spoken, namely Vietnamese English, Japanese English, Indian English, Chinese English, and Burmese English.
Another group was listener participants with a total number of 80 Thai university students (58 females and 22 males), who took the course of Introduction to Linguistics at the university with which both authors are affiliated.

**Methodology**

With the help of a recording technician, the researchers prepared recordings of 5 different Asean speakers of English reading a text taken from an intermediate-level reading; a text similar to what students are likely to have heard while attending the university. The recordings lasted about 2 minutes playing time.

In order to yield more useful results by examining the data from a different angle, this study will therefore include a triangulated methodology. According to Merriam (1998) “triangulation strengthens reliability as well as internal validity” (p. 207). According to Mackey and Gass (2005, p.92), a survey in the form of the questionnaire is one of the most used methods in order to collect data consisting of a variety of questions in second language research. The questionnaire in this study will elicit students’ belief and attitude towards a different variety of accents in this research study. In this research, a semi-structured interview in which the participants were given time to answer was used and they were allowed to interrupt, ask questions and comment. The purpose of the interviews was to fill in the gaps left and to elicit answers to questions that might not be answered through the questionnaire. According to Gliem and R. Glim (2003, p.8) “When using Likert-type scales it is imperative to calculate and report Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for internal consistency reliability for any scales or subscales one may be using”. So, as to assure the researcher and the participants of the appropriateness and correctness of the instruments, the Index of Item Objective Congruence (IOC) and Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient were applied. Besides, prior to a large-scale investigation, a pilot study was also conducted to assess the likelihood of success of the main study.

It is claimed that “the content validity of a measurement instrument for a theoretical construct reflects the degree to which the measurement instrument spans the domain of the construct’s theoretical definition” (Rungtusanatham, 1998, p. 11). As measuring the content validity of research instruments are of paramount importance and necessity, the Index of Item Objective Congruence (IOC) was then applied to assess the content validity of the questionnaire survey as well as the interview questions. Besides, the researcher also calculated Cronbach’s Alpha Coefficient to assess the reliability of a questionnaire survey. In this study, the coefficient alpha was 0.79. All interviews were conducted in the researcher’s office at the University. The interviews were also recorded. Duranti (1997) suggests that after a researcher has conducted interviews, copies of the original tapes should be made as a precaution, and so I used two recording devices, one cassette recorder and one digital recorder, to ensure that all the interviews that the researcher conducted were backed up and available on tape as well before analyzing it in terms of salient themes and patterns.

**Results and Discussions**

Students’ perception each accents were surveyed and the results are as follows:
Table 1. Thai students’ perception towards Vietnamese accent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unfriendly</th>
<th>Friendly</th>
<th>Smart</th>
<th>Interesting</th>
<th>Energetic</th>
<th>Clear</th>
<th>Suitable for communication in English speaking countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unhappy</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>19%</td>
<td>6%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclear</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsuitable for communication in English speaking countries</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>66%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suitable for communication in English speaking countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult for you to comprehend</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>60%</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Easy for you to comprehend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult for native speakers to comprehend</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Easy for native speakers to comprehend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unacceptable English accent</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>16%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Acceptable English accent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would not like to sound like this person</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I would like to sound like this person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am definitely sure this person is a non-native speaker of English</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>I am definitely sure this person is a native speaker of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not suitable accent for non-native English speaking countries</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suitable accent for non-native English speaking countries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from table 1 that Thai students were easily able to identify that this speaker was a non-native speaker of English (97%). Even though the majority claimed that it is suitable for communication in English speaking countries (80%), they would not like to sound like the speaker (77%). Overall, the accent was positively viewed by majority of the students.

Table 2. Thai students’ perception towards Japanese accent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Unfriendly</th>
<th>Friendly</th>
<th>Smart</th>
<th>Interesting</th>
<th>Energetic</th>
<th>Clear</th>
<th>Suitable for communication in English speaking countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unhappy</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid</td>
<td>36%</td>
<td>43%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy</td>
<td>64%</td>
<td>29%</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclear</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsuitable for communication in English speaking countries</td>
<td>33%</td>
<td>44%</td>
<td>21%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Suitable for communication in English speaking countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult for you to comprehend</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>14%</td>
<td>12%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Easy for you to comprehend</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is clear from table 2 that in general; Thai students have negative perceptions towards Japanese accented English as higher percentages were given for it being unfriendly, boring and lazy. Thai students did not well comprehend the accent (98%). They were certain that the speaker was not a native speaker of English (99%). They did not want to sound like the speaker (100%) and they also think that it would be difficult even for the native speakers to comprehend the accent (77%).

### Table 3 Thai students’ perception towards Indian accent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>Unfriendly</th>
<th>Friendly</th>
<th>Stupid</th>
<th>Smart</th>
<th>Boring</th>
<th>Interesting</th>
<th>Lazy</th>
<th>Energetic</th>
<th>Clear</th>
<th>Unsuitable for communication in English speaking countries</th>
<th>Difficult for you to comprehend</th>
<th>Easy for you to comprehend</th>
<th>Difficult for native speakers to comprehend</th>
<th>Unacceptable English accent</th>
<th>Acceptable English accent</th>
<th>I would not like to sound like this person</th>
<th>I am definitely sure this person is a non-native speaker of English</th>
<th>Not suitable accent for non-native English speaking countries</th>
<th>Suitable accent for non-native English speaking countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unfriendly</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
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<td>9%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>1%</td>
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<td>10%</td>
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<td>87%</td>
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<td>Boring</td>
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<td>0%</td>
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<td>26%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Unsuitable for communication in English speaking countries</td>
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<td>1%</td>
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<td>87%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>26%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Difficult for you to comprehend</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
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<td>26%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Difficult for native speakers to comprehend</td>
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<td>89%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would not like to sound like this person</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am definitely sure this person is a non-native speaker of English</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not suitable accent for non-native English speaking countries</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>1%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>8%</td>
<td>87%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2%</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from table 2 that in general; Thai students have negative perceptions towards Japanese accented English as higher percentages were given for it being unfriendly, boring and lazy. Thai students did not well comprehend the accent (98%). They were certain that the speaker was not a native speaker of English (99%). They did not want to sound like the speaker (100%) and they also think that it would be difficult even for the native speakers to comprehend the accent (77%).
Overall perceptions of Thai students from Table 3 shows a positive trend. The majority (98%) said that it was clear and easy to comprehend both for native as well as non-native speakers of English (95%). Even though the accent was clear and positively viewed, the Thai learners were able to identify that the speaker was not a native speaker of English.

Table 4. Thai students’ perception towards Chinese accent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>% Unfriendly</th>
<th>% Stupid</th>
<th>% Boring</th>
<th>% Lazy</th>
<th>% Clear</th>
<th>% Suitable for communication in English speaking countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unfriendly</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>17</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclear</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>14</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unsuitable for communication in English speaking countries</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>Suitable for communication in English speaking countries</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult for you to comprehend</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22</td>
<td></td>
<td>Easy for you to comprehend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Difficult for native speakers to comprehend</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td>Easy for native speakers to comprehend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unacceptable English accent</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td>Acceptable English accent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would not like to sound like this person</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
<td>I would like to sound like this person</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am definitely sure this person is a non-native speaker of English</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td>I am definitely sure this person is a native speaker of English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not suitable accent for non-native English speaking countries</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>16</td>
<td></td>
<td>Suitable accent for non-native English speaking countries</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chinese accent is positively viewed in terms of being friendly and smart with both exceeding 60%. However, the majority of Thai students did not want to sound like the speaker (90%) and they were certain that the speakers are non-native speakers of English (89%).

Table 5. Thai students’ perception towards Burmese accent

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perception</th>
<th>% Unfriendly</th>
<th>% Stupid</th>
<th>% Boring</th>
<th>% Lazy</th>
<th>% Clear</th>
<th>% Suitable for non-native English speaking countries</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unfriendly</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stupid</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Boring</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lazy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclear</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, Thai students are quite negative with Burmese English believing that it was not suitable for even non-native speakers to understand (85%). Besides, the majority were able to identify that the speaker was not a native speaker of English (97%). The accent was perceived to be difficult to comprehend for both native and non-native speakers.

**Interview results**

The semi-structured interview was also conducted to triangulate the result of the questionnaire survey. The interview was conducted with 12 students: four from each category of students classified according to their grade points average. The reason is being that each student from the different group would represent for their level. The students were asked about their preferences and the result coincides with the questionnaire survey result. They were interviewed in Thai, their mother tongue language, in order to be able to elicit clear information. Because of its flexibility, the semi-structured interview has become the most popular tool among researchers wishing to obtain qualitative data of some sort (Nunan, 1992). The advantages of the semi-structured interview are, first of all, the personal contact with the respondent which provides a better chance for an honest and serious response. Secondly, it delegates a degree of power and control over the interview to the interviewee. Furthermore, the researcher is more tuned into the process; therefore, he/she can assess the mood of the respondent, thus reducing the chance of boring him/her. Derwing (2003) explores adult immigrants’ perceptions of their own pronunciation and the consequences of speaking with a foreign accent in Edmonton, Canada. The results obtained by Derwing revealed that the learners would like to sound like a native speaker. Timmis’ (2002) survey explores attitudes to pronunciation, standard grammar, and informal spoken grammar among students learning English as a foreign language.
Conclusion
Summing up the findings of this paper, it seems safe to conclude that varieties of English are still not adequately represented in current ELT among Thai learners and speakers of English. It must be pointed out to learners of English that the English language is not monolithic but a constantly evolving dynamic system with a pluricentric structure. Teachers, textbook authors, curriculum designers, foreign language education researchers, applied linguists, sociolinguists and other ELT-related experts should make good use of the growing body of systematic linguistic descriptions of varieties of English.

One advantage of monitoring linguistic variability is that students can have a righteous position without stressing over whether their English is non-standard, halfway in view of their limited command of language, and incompletely in light of the fact that they would feel greater when occupied with normally happening importance doing exercises. While a familiarity with fluctuation in English reinforces one's certainty and feeling of language character, phonetic preference will undoubtedly emerge, and is something to avoid through awareness-raising.

About the Authors
Dr. Rusma Kalra, is a full-time lecturer under the Department of Business English, Faculty of Arts, Assumption University, Thailand. With over 9 years of teaching experience at tertiary level, she has covered a wide range of areas in her teaching including English for specific purposes and business communication writing. Her research include classroom based research and English for specific purposes.  https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3693-3614

Dr. Chayada Thanavisuth, is a full-time lecturer in the Department of Business English, Theodore Maria School of Arts, Assumption University, Thailand. She has diversified experience with over 20 years of teaching linguistics and sociolinguistics at tertiary level. Her main research interest is in English as a foreign language, internet linguistics, psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, and world Englishes.  https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4825-5056

References


The Performance of Topic Shifting in Inclusive Female Informal Gatherings: A Case Study

Ghada Abdullah Al-Ghathami

College of Language and Translation
Imam Mohammad Bin Saud Islamic University
Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
This paper analyzes how topic shifts are performed and perceived in conversations. It investigates the way topic shifts are constructed and sequenced in Saudi female conversations, focusing on the structure of topic shifts along with their discourse markers. It also aims at highlighting the way these topic shifts are observed by participants. This paper is a case study that tries to understand the performance of topic shifts in a recorded conversation with emphasis on the construction, markers and sequences of topics, adding empirical evidence to the overall knowledge related to this issue. It also studies perceptions of Saudi women on topic shifting. Two instruments were used: data recording and analysis, and a four-axis questionnaire. Gathered data was analyzed using interactional sociolinguistics analysis and statistics to arrive at results. The findings of the study indicate that the most frequent shifts of topics occurred after a pause where speakers introduced a new topic. These shifts were performed by using discourse markers such as asking questions, seeking explanations, or telling personal stories. Topic shifts might be violated in informal settings based on relations between participants. Questionnaire results conclude that topic shifts are performed in relation to interest, and motivated by closeness and need. It is recommended that further investigation is carried out considering different social variables and domains of interaction.

Key words: conversation analysis, discourse markers, interactional sociolinguistics analysis, topic, topic shift, turn-taking system

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1- Introduction:
Topic shifts are certain phases of a conversation that indicate transitions from one discourse chunk that has a coherent topic or content to another chunk with another coherent topic or content. They occur in the conversation where one topic is covered and discussed and another topic needs to be introduced. Women interact on a cooperative basis in all-inclusive female interaction, showing significant differences from mixed or all-male interaction (Coates, 2004; Tannen, 2007). Interactional sociolinguistics analysis is an approach that is used to study language in use by specifying recurrent patterns and practices that are performed during social interaction. This approach studies conversational aspects related to discourse like turn-taking, turn-design, repair, questions, topic shifting and other aspects of interaction, revealing the dynamics of the discourse (Schiffrin, 1994; Clark, 2007). Interactional sociolinguistics analysis is adopted in this paper to investigate and highlight the performance of topic shifting by Saudi women in order to understand the construction, markers, and sequences of these instances. This paper aims at investigating the topic shifts that occur in natural speech between female participants where more than one topic is introduced. It focuses on the way these shifts are performed and perceived by participants. It investigates various explanations for differences that occur in the way these topics were introduced, and how women perceived them. It also tries to answer questions related to when and where shifts take place, how they performed and why do they occur using two methods of data collection. This paper goes in line with other research conducted in this area, and it also investigates otherwise.

2- The Notion of Topic Shifting from a Theoretical Perspective:
In the structure of a conversation, there are points where one topic is concluded and another is introduced as a transitional phase that has its own unique and complex structure. The notion of “topic” is a problematic notion with a number of different suggested definitions (Blei et al, 2003; Kellermann, 2004). According to Chafe (2008), "A topic is defined as a coherent organization of thoughts introduced by a participant in a conversation and developed either by that participant or another or by several participants together" (p.674). In this perspective, a topic can be thought of as a coherent unit that is large enough to embed sequences contributing to the same idea. Topics introduce an issue in which all that is said must be relevant to that particular issue. Topics usually have a clear beginning, but their endings may be well defined or may not. Yet, there are phonetic cues that signal shifts such as a pause, a heightened pitch, loudness or a new voice quality (Schiffrin, (ed.), 2008). A topic has a pattern or a schema providing a path for participants to follow. As long as the topic is open, participants a free to develop it, dwell on it or terminate it (Hatch, 2000). People are usually constrained to fully develop the topic before the conversation moves to another topic. There are lots of techniques proposed by scholars trying to divide a stretch of talk into smaller, topically coherent segments (Purver, 2011). Yet, topic segmentation and division is still an open research problem. Some methods of topic analysis and topic segmentation focus more on content, ignoring speakers’ identities, including gender. So, topics can be identified based on their content.

Topic as a notion is related to discourse in which a topic is a unifying concept that makes one stretch of discourse about something and the next stretch about something else (Brown & Yule 2007). Participants pick up elements from the contribution of a preceding speaker and introduce them in their contribution in a dynamic and negotiated way. A topic shift occurs between two
chunks of discourse, or two different topics. This shift takes place at a marked point in the conversation. If these markers or boundaries of shifts are identified, the discourse can be divided into units. In spoken discourse, there are structural units of discourse that take the form of speech paragraph called paratones marked by intonational cues (Brown & Yule, 2007). Introductory expressions are used to announce the beginning of a topic in a raising pitch to signal this shift. Participants need to pick up on these signals and response upon. The end of a topic is signaled with a low pitch, a lengthy pause or a repetition of the introductory statement indicating that contributions are not accepted and a shift is about to be made to another topic (Hatch, 2000). All of these proposed signals are optional since actual interaction may take different expected or unexpected reactions. Any native speaker of a language learns these rules through socialization and interaction in which cooperation is based on this shared knowledge among participants (Johnstone, 2003; Gumperz, 1982). Topic shifts are usually established around relationships between conversational participants (Ireland et al, 2011). Participants having closer relations would tend to have a more relaxed circulation and change of topics. Women are more known to adopt a cooperative style of talk that is supportive in nature. This gender-specific style can be featured by positive violations to the structured frame of topic change suggested by scholars (Schiffrin, 1994). Kaoru Amino (2009) investigated women's style shifting of turn-taking (TT) strategies in mixed-gender conversation in the Japanese society, exploring the different (TT) strategies conducted by both men and women and whether women's TT strategy choice is influenced by the interlocutor's gender. The results illustrate that the senior female participants frequently used (TT) strategies that reflected supportive traits such as the promotion of conversations in mixed-gender conversations.

One of the most common ways to capture conversational structure in naturally occurring data is topic division and segmentation of long recordings or transcripts into shorter, topically coherent segments (Purver, 2011). The two main approaches used to study conversational structure center around either focusing on discourse markers, or studying word distribution. The first approach focuses on identifying discourse markers, which draw boundaries between different topics in the conversations. There are certain cue phrases such as, “well, now, that reminds me, etc.” that explicitly indicate the end of one topic, or initiate the beginning of another (Hirschberg & Litman, 1993; Passonneau & Litman, 1997). The second approach focuses on lexical cohesion that divides a stretch of talk into topics (Halliday & Hasan, 1976). In this method, words within a segment or a topic look more like their neighbors than like words in other segments or topics. Morris and Hirst (1991) worked on defining the structure of any given text by finding what they call “lexical chains”, which consist of units of text that are related to the same theme. In this paper, the first approach is adopted because it gives more insight into the relations between participants, and focuses more on the transformational phase between topics.

3- Methodology:
In this empirical study, both the qualitative and quantitative approaches were implemented. Interactional sociolinguistics analysis is a qualitative method that is concerned with the structure and the pattern of natural conversations between speakers, paying more attention to the relations between participants and their influence on the structural aspect of interaction.
3-1- The Data of the Study:

The data of the study was taken from a recorded conversation between four female participants in an informal setting. The conversation took place in a café between female friends having their coffee and discussing a number of topics. The conversation was recorded on the 3rd of November, 2017. The length of this conversation is around 21 minutes. The method that was followed was the observer-participant method where the researcher was present at time of this conversation. Each participant is given a code (P1, P2, P3, P4). The conversation was tape-recorded by the researcher where the conversation along with the occurrences of topic shifts were transcribed and analyzed. The participants were close friends sharing similar interests and belonging to the same university environment.

The statistical data was gathered through conducting a questionnaire distributed on female participants. All participants were female college students. The total number of distributed questionnaires was 91, and the turned-on questionnaires that were completely answered were 80. They were collected in February 2018. The results were further analyzed using statistical analysis tools, and presented in diagrams and tables in later sections.

3-2- Data Analysis:

The recorded data was analyzed following the interactional sociolinguistics analysis. This approach is based on the work of Gumperz and Goffman in which they view language as a socially and culturally constructed configuration, reflecting and creating macro-level social meaning and micro-level interpersonal meaning (Schiffrin, 1994). This can be achieved through the analysis of contextualization cues, alignments, identities of speakers and the participation framework that includes different roles participants can play in an event (Schiffrin, 1994; Holmes, 2013). The recorded conversation was analyzed using this approach to highlight and investigate the effect of gender and interpersonal relations on the construction of topic shifts, and the way participants would follow or hence violate the structural rules proposed by scholars. Instances of topic shifts were transcribed and analyzed. Extracts were originally in Arabic (the native language of participants), and they were later translated to English. The Arabic transcribed formats were presented along with their translations.

The quantitative aspect of this paper deals with answering questions related to participants’ perspectives on when and where women perform topic shifts, why they shift topics, topic choice and how these shifts are performed though using a questionnaire. This instrument was designed based on theoretical motivations and topic-change cues proposed by scholars. The questionnaire is divided into four parts each of which asks a different question (when does topic change take place, motivations of a topic change, topic choice, and how topics are changed?). Under each part, a number of statements were presented on an agreement scale. Data was analyzed using SPSS, calculating the mean and the rank of participants’ responses to each item. The results were summarized in tables. The unit of analysis that is investigated in this paper by using these two methods of research is the unit of topic shift that occurs at certain points in the conversation affecting the pattern and the sequence of this conversation. It further focuses on the linguistic cues or markers that signal the beginning and the ending of topics.
4- The Topic Shifts in the Recorded Conversation:

In this recorded conversation, a number of topic shifts have occurred. This conversation shows an approximate number of 15 occurrences of shifts between different topics. Interactive topic development may be driven by a speaker’s desire to agree, contradict with others, request information, or elaborate. Topic and response analysis is related to interaction since it is hard to discover the intentions of interlocutors without interaction (Shiffern, 2008; Ballard, 2007). Through analysis, topic-response strategies can be understood. The responses speakers provide to the topic reflect their relationships with each other. Maynard (1980) notes that topic changes often occur “as a solution to failed speaker transitions” (p. 264). That is, the circulated topic comes to an end with no contributions are to be provided, speakers then are likely to ensure the circulation of a talk by introducing a new topic. Okamoto and Smith-Lovin (2001) also noted that pauses and short utterances are speech markers that increase the chance that the next speaker will change the topic. It is also important to identify who controls the topic according to a participation framework based on the influence of power position, symmetrical relations, age, and gender factors (Okamoto & Smith-Lovin, 2001). The right of a participant to change the topic is limited in which this act of topic shifting has to be signaled and accepted by others. The conversation is analyzed at a point where the previous topic had just been closed and the conversation is to be continued where someone has to choose and introduce a new topic.

Shifts of topics that occurred in the data have different forms and interpretations. They follow some general rules that allow for a topic to be shifted. These shifts were developed to communicate and cooperate by trying to give details or share related stories about the topic being discussed. It can be considered as a collaborative topic building that reflects solidarity. Telling personal stories and asking overlapping questions are considered high involvement strategies (Wardough, 2010; Holmes, 2013). One instance of a topic shift in the data occurred at a point in which one topic was concluded and no more contributions were developed. It took place after a pause that lasted for six seconds without suggesting a new topic. (P1) at that point has decided to communicate and introduced a new topic related to the vacation asking about the annual schedule of holidays. The conversation took place according to the following sequence of turns:

Extract -1-

Pause 6 seconds:
1-P1: now how much we still have + two weeks for the vacation or three? (halheen kam lessa bagi + esbou’een ala alejaza wella thalatha?)
2-P2: no three + I don't know if its three + but I don't know if its with counting this week or not (la thalatha + ma adri whu thalathah + bas ma adri ma’a hatha alesboua’ wella la’)

In extract -1- of the conversation, a topic shift took place where one participant was trying to communicate and proceed with the communicative event after a relatively long pause. P1 has initiated the new topic with a question regarding the period remaining for the vacation to start. The slightly raising intonation can be perceived as a contextualization cue that signals the need to communicate. The question was not asked for the sake of getting information, but for the need to communicate. This topic shift has followed the rules since it took place after the end of a previous topic. P1 has created a participation framework in which she took the lead. Yet, by asking that
question, she was assigning the turn to the second participant (P2) to contribute to the topic, assuming that she is going to cooperate and provide a response that suits the sequence. In line 2, P2 picked up these cues and decided to follow the rules and contribute to the topic regardless of her knowledge about the topic. The answer was communicative even if it was not one that included a confirmed response. The uncertainty in providing an answer indicates that the contribution was not really an answer to that question. Rather, it was a strategy of cooperative topic building in which she was trying to keep the conversation going. This form of topic shift occurred after a period of silence in which one participant needs to suggest a topic for the conversation to go on. There were other six similar instances in the conversation that took the same form of introducing a topic after a slightly long pause. These topics were introduced by asking questions, telling a story about an event, talking about a daily experience, or by asking about an object that was present at the scene where the conversation took place.

However, there was an instance of topic shift that occurred in the conversation that took a different form. It occurred when P2 was talking about a check that she received and needed to cash. Her topic was nearly closed after she talked about her experience regarding the procedures she had to go through. This topic was not fully closed and was open for more contributions to be made. The floor also allowed for a new topic to be introduced without violating the rules of topic introduction. This topic shift was gradual with a loose phase. It took place at the following point of the conversation as in extract 2:

Extract 2-
3- P2: So, they took it {the cheque} (ehh a’ad akhathowh {elshaik})
4- P3: You cashed it now its with you! so you have the money’ (enti sarafeeh elheen ma’ek! Ajal megrisha!)
5- P2: Ya. Do you want me to get you a treat? (ehh. Taboun a’azemkum? )
6- P3: So what are your plans? (a’ad wesh masharee’ek?)

In this extract, P2 was ending her story about her day at the bank (in line 3) after a long procedure that she had to go through. Her conclusion of the story indicates a conclusion of the topic in which feedback is needed to move on to another topic. The falling intonation at the end of her turn serves as a contextualization cue that signals the end of the topic. It also indicates allocating the next turn to P3, giving her a choice to either provide feedback related to the story or to shift the topic by introducing another. This cue has been interpreted by P3 in line 2 as a point in which a turn has been allocated to he, choosing to provide feedback and a concluding statement at the same time as a step to insure the end of the first topic. This transitional phase signals a gradual topic shift in a collaborative style in which both participants are about to start the new topic. P3 has allocated the next turn to the open floor giving participants a verity of choices. The freedom that can be noticed in the role assignment in this participation framework reflects the close relationship between them.

In line 3, P2 responded to P3's comment offering a treat since she got paid. By this act of offer, she was not really offering a treat but was using this act to function as a way of saying that she really had the money. This form of using a direct question to perform an offer is not considered an offer in the Saudi culture since it reflects uncertainty and hesitation. Her offer can be regarded as a general statement of offering and not an intended act that may be fulfilled. Her raising-falling
intonation could be considered a contextualization cue in which it indicated that this act was not performed as an act of offering, but as a collaborative contribution to the communication showing her agreement that she was welling to talk about it as a potential topic that might be selected by participants.

In line 4, P3 responded by asking a question about P2’s plans regarding what she wanted to do. Her question was not relevant to the offer since it does not reflect refusal or approval. This response can be interpreted in more that one way. P3 has assumed from her interpretation of the contextualization cue that P2 was not really offering a treat. Instead, she was only communicating. Since this act was not interpreted as an act of offering, she decided to avoid the offer and shift the topic into another. This gradual movement from the topic of the story telling into the topic of plan telling has been completed and a new topic has been introduced. The topic shifts that were illustrated and examined in this section represent a case of topic shifting in which general rules of topic shifting were followed. These extracts indicate that topic shifting among females in the Saudi culture could be performed after a period of silence, or it could be performed with a contribution offered as a question, explanation, experience or a story telling.

5- Topic Shifts Used in a Different Pattern:

Topic shifts in real interaction do not always follow the rules that allow for a topic to be shifted or a topic to be introduced. Interaction reflects the complication of the configuration of the society in general. There is an impact of social structure and power relations on conversations, including the authority to allocate turns in conversations, to interrupt and to determine topic continuation or switch (Saville-Troike, 2003). The sources of power are developed from different factors based on differences in cultures that could include sources like age, gender, education, race, color and class (Saville-Troike, 2003; Wardhaugh, 2010). Topic shifting is a process that might be affected to a certain degree by the impact of power on discourse structure. Topic shifts were performed in some parts of this conversation in a matter that designates a deviation from the general rules that constrain topic shifting. These topic shifts contradict the assumption that female language is based in its structure on cooperation and solidarity and not based on power conflict.

To set an example, the following conversation between three friends who were relatively similar in their education, interests and background included an instance of topic shifting that was performed based on power conflict between these conversationalists. In the following example (extract 3), the participants were discussing a topic related to the procedures P1 had to go through to process her cash check. While P1 was narrating the events of her experience, a topic shift occurred before the end of her topic that took the form of an interruption as the following:

Extract -3-
7- P1: So I went and I cashed it today' you know +she said I have t.. I was about to go  
yesterday but she said I must have a card for //
(//Aad reht wa saraftaha alyum, mo galat lazim! Aa..kent abarouh ams bas 
ghalat lazim betakah alashaan//)
8- P3: // you were supposed if you want to go to Noura to leave from gate four.  
(//enti elmafrouth etha serti betrouheen le Noura tetlae’en men bawwaba arba’a.)
9- P1: Why would I go there.. it is so crowded.
In extract 3, P1 was talking about her experience at the bank while she was trying to cash her check. While she was talking about her experience with the regulations of the bank, an interruption accrued shifting the topic to another one that is not related to the current topic under discussion. P1's turn was not completed and her topic was left open without a closure. According to the rules of topic shifting, a new topic can only be introduced after the closure of the previous one in which no contributions were about to be offered. P1 did not signal an end of her topic or of her turn. At the same time, she did not allocate a turn to another speaker allowing for an interruption to take place. Her intonation contour indicates a continuous speech and sequencing of events in a chain that was not completed at the point where the interruption took place.

In line 8, P3 interrupted P1's turn without paying attention to her need to complete her turn. Interruptions could carry corrections that are considered to be primary items licensing violations of the turn-taking system. It is also a technique that is used for signaling a need to discuss a different issue. In an ordinary conversation, a person waiting for a turn may decide to interrupt in order not to loss concentration or interest. P3 at some point in the conversation felt that she needed to discuss an urgent issue that just occurred to her and was not able to wait for P1's seemingly long turn that was not near an end. This new topic was related to a thought that P3 had just been thinking about. Her sudden topic shift was not performed because she was not interested in P1's experience, nor because she did not want to cooperate with her. Instead, her shift was performed because she wanted to suggest a solution to an existing issue. The relationship that naturally exists between friends gives the right to advice. Interruptions that lead to a sudden topic shift can be used as support strategies developing a pattern that shows involvement. P3's shift was not intended to maintain power and control over the conversation. By understanding the close relationship between participants, this shift can be considered a different form of cooperation and involvement where participants are free to discuss issues at any point of the conversation and expect agreement of the other participant regarding these choices and shifts. P3 allocated the turn to P1 and assumed that she would be cooperating with her new topic that she shifted to. This suggests that the shift is not interpreted as a violation of the rules. On the contrary, it reflects a new pattern of involvement that is based on solidarity. This example, as well as other similar ones, indicates that topic shifts could occur in Saudi female conversations as a result of both closeness and solidarity between participants. Topic shifts can be introduced in a manner that contradicts with rules that regulate the way conversations are developed. These shifts may be considered strategies of solidarity and involvement.

6- The Overall construction of Topic shifting in the Conversation:

In this paper, two different sets of topic shifts were discussed. One set of shifts followed the rules of shifting and the other set has diverted from these rules. The analysis of these extracts was based on understanding the context where these topic shifts were performed, and the forms they represented. Their numbers of occurrences along with their forms were calculated. The following table represents each form of the topic shifts, their points of development along with their number of occurrences in the conversation:
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form of Topic Shift</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- After a long pause.</td>
<td>6 topic</td>
<td>Extract -1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- End of previous topic: shift with a contribution, experience, explanation,</td>
<td>8 topic</td>
<td>Extract -2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and questions.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Different patterns: shifts by interrupting an unfinished topic, shifts back to</td>
<td>3 topic</td>
<td>Extract 3,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>previous incomplete topics.</td>
<td></td>
<td>Extract 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of topic shifts: 17 topic shifts.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participants performed two main sets of topic shifts in these conversations which involved cooperation by following the rules at points where support was needed by asking questions, talking about experiences, agreeing or providing details. These topic shifts were performed on solidarity bases as opposed to other findings that regard these shifts as violations. These different types of topic shifts that were noticed in this conversation seem to both follow and divert from general conversational rules that allowed for their initiation.

7- Questionnaire:

A questionnaire was implemented as a means of data collection to reveal general attitudes and perceptions regarding this linguistic behavior. Four main questions were targeted. These questions were concerned with when does a topic shift may take place, what motivates a topic shift, what are the topics chosen by participants based on their age and gender, and how topics might be changed. Each main question was followed by a series of suggested statements that were based on ideal rules of topic-circulation to be performed in ideal informal interaction. Results were calculated and presented in tables.

7- 1: When Does Topic Change Take Place?

One of the questions asked was about the point at which a topic change would likely appear. This question included 11 statements that centered on the length of topics, speakers’ interests, interruptions, silence and pauses, topic order, turn-taking system and participation framework. Statements were presented and ordered in the following table 2 according to their rank.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strong Agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Range</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>A new topic is usually introduced when someone interrupts the group.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.93</td>
<td>0.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I open up a new topic to avoid the long period of silence.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.73</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I might open up a topic, but not discussed by other speakers.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.77</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>When I am a conversation, I discuss different topics.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I usually notice that topics are introduced after a pause or silence.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>When everyone feels that they said everything about a current topic, another new topic is introduced.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I usually move from one topic to another topic while talking.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>I need to open up a new topic if no one did so.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>1.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**MEAN** 3.81 0.38

Table 2 indicates that the axis of when does topic change take place includes (11) statements. It is observed from the previous table that the responses of participants were with strongly agree degree on statement No. (1) whose mean is (4.36) which is put at the fifth category, and refered to (strongly agree) degree as their means range from (4.21 to 5.00) degrees. The responses were with the agree degree on ten statements whose means ranged from (3.48 to 4.15), and these means are put at the fourth category of the five-scale degree, and referred to (agree) degree as their means ranged from (3.41 to 4.20) degrees. Most participants strongly agreed with the effect of topic length and interest as the most influential factors that trigger topic changes. Participants also agreed on the effect of interruptions, silence, pauses, and participation framework on topic change. As it is observed, there is a convergence in the responses of study respondents on the axis (when does topic change takeplace). Additionally, the general mean of agreement degree on the statements of the axis is (3.81), and referred to (agree degree) that reflects that study respondents’ perceptions on when does topic change take place are positive.

7- 2: Motivations of Topic Change:
The second question dealt with the motivations that naturally lead to a topic change to be performed. Ten statements were included centering on theoretically suggested motivations. Statements included motivations such as closeness and relations between participants, interest and need, participants and formality of the situation. Results are presented in the following table 3 arranged based on participants’ responses.
The Performance of Topic Shifting in Inclusive Female Al-Ghathami

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Strong Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 I find it easy to open up topics when I interact with close people.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 A topic is changed when there is another urgent topic that needs to be discussed.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 Discussing similar experience and telling stories motivates introducing a new topic.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 A topic is changed because there is a lack of interest in a current topic.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 I might open a topic to involve a new member into the conversation.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 A topic could be changed by returning to a previous uncompleted topic.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 To maintain a friendly atmosphere, I might change a current topic.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 I find it hard to start a new topic when I am with people who are not close to me.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Topics might be changed very often in informal situations.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 To reduce tension and anger, I might introduce a new topic.</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The axis of motivations of topic change includes ten statements. It is observed from the previous table that the responses were with strongly agree degree on statements No. (1,2,3) whose means ranged from (4.21 to 4.25), and this mean is put at the fifth category (strongly agree) degree as their means ranged from (4.21 to 5.00) degrees. The responses were with agree degree on seven statements whose means ranged from (3.78 to 4.18), and these means are put at the fourth category of the five-scale degree, referred to (agree) degree. As it is noted from the above table, the responses of study respondents strongly agreed with statements that included closeness between participants, urgency of a topic, and discussing similar experience and telling stories as motivations for introducing or changing a topic. As it is observed above, there is a convergence in the responses. The general mean of agreement degree on the statements of this axis is (4.02), and this mean is put at the fourth category whose mean ranged from (3.41 to 4.20) and referred to (agree degree) that reflects that study respondents’ perceptions about Motivations of Topic Change are positive.
7- 3: Topic Choice:
The third item in the questionnaire dealt with topic selection preferred by female participants. Several suggested topics were presented and six items were included in this section. These suggested topics included personal experiences, situation related topics, feedback, external topics or sudden unplanned topics. Results are illustrated in the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Study respondents opinion about choice of topic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I usually introduce a topic related to personal experience.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I usually introduce topics related to something that is within the context or sitting of the situation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I usually introduce a topic related to seeking explanations about something that has been said.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I usually discuss topics related to food, clothes and objects that are within my place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I usually open up any topic about anything because I need to break the silence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I usually open up a topic related to something that is outside the context or place of the conversation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table indicates that the axis of topic choice includes six statements. It is observed from the previous table that the responses are with agree degree on statements No. (1-2-3-4-5) whose means ranged from (3.41 to 3.90) and this mean is put at the fourth category of the five-scale degree (agree). The responses of respondents were with neutral degree on statement no. (6) whose mean is (3.31), and this mean is put at the third category of the five-scale degree (neutral degree). As it is noted from the above table, the statements concerning this axis can be arranged in view of the respondents themselves regarding the agreement degree. The responses on statements related to: personal experience, something that is within the context, seeking explanations, food, clothes and objects came with (agree) degree. The responses on topics related to something outside the context or place of the conversation came with (neutral) degree. This reflects that perceptions were positive.

7 - 4: How Do I Change a Topic?
The forth question was intended to measure respondents’ perspectives on the techniques and devices used to perform a topic change. Six statements were included, suggesting devices like:
following a queue, story telling, expressing lack of interest, declaring the end of a topic or interrupting a current topic. The following table 5 represents calculated results:

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I change a topic by simply talking about a new idea.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.8</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I openly express lack of interest in a topic especially with close people.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I usually show lack of interest to point out that I need to change the topic.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I force the end of a topic by saying, “Let’s move to another topic”.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.5</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I change a topic by interrupting the turn of a current speaker.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.8</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This table indicates that the axis of how to change a topic includes six statements. It is observed from the previous table that the responses are with agree degree on statement No. (1) whose mean is (3.83), and this mean is put at the fourth category of the five-scale agreement degree (agree) as their means ranged from (3.41 to 4.20) degrees. The responses were with a neutral degree on statements no. (2-3-4-5-6) whose means ranged from (2.66 to 3.83), and this mean is put at the third category referred to (neutral) degree as their means ranged from (2.61 to 3.40) degrees.

The statements concerning this axis can be arranged in view of the respondents themselves regarding their agreement. The responses on statement no (1), which states that: (I change a topic by simply talking about a new idea) came with (agree) degree. The responses on statements related to: telling a story, expressing lack of interest, forcing the end of a topic, and interrupting came with (neutral) degrees. As it is observed above, there was a convergence in the responses of study respondents. Additionally, the general mean of agreement degree on the statements of this axis is (3.15) that reflects that study respondents’ perceptions about how to change a topic are neutral.

8- Conclusions:

This paper investigates the instances of topic shifts and their construction and sequence in a conversation between Saudi female participants. It also investigates general perceptions related to this issue. In the data that was collected for the purpose of this paper, a number of topic shifts have occurred. One of the most frequent shifts of topics occurred after a pause where a participant introduced a new topic after the conclusion of the previous one. These shifts occurred by asking a question about an item that was present in the scene, seeking explanation, or talking about a
personal experience. Other topic shifts were also observed that participants performed in different ways. Topic change or shift might be violated in informal settings based on relations between participants in a cooperative and supportive manner. Questionnaire results conclude that topic change occur on the basis of interest, and motivated by closeness and need. Most frequent circulated topics by females are ones related to personal issues and offering explanations related to the situation. The strategy that is mostly used to perform a topic change is related to following a queue.

The findings of this paper go along with the findings of other research papers, indicating that topic shifts can be performed in a manner that reflects cooperation between female participants. However, some of the findings of this paper contradict with the findings of researchers where some other forms of topic shifting were performed on bases of power conflict between participants, or solidarity between them. Since topic shifts take different forms and occur in different locations in the discourse, further research needs to be carried out to investigate the construction of topic shifts in conversations searching for other forms that can be intended by speakers. Other research is also needed to examine other variants that can affect the forms of topic shifts in conversations along with the markers that are used to signal these shifts.

About the Author:
Dr. Ghada Abdullah AlGhathami, is an assistant professor of linguistics at Imam Mohammad Bin Saud Islamic University; Riyadh, Saudi Arabia. Interested in sociolinguistics, discourse analysis and pragmatics. Research is my area of interest, especially in applying theories of sociolinguistics on Arab speech communities. She is also interested in teaching using new trends of teaching and learning implementing technology and social networking. ORCiD: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6268-3981

References:

**Appendix A**

Coding
The transcription of the tape was written by using a coding system that was adopted by Hatch (2000) in discourse analysis by using the following:
( ) Micro-pause
. Period at end of line: clause final falling intonation
? Raising intonation of questions
- Dash: break off, unfinished words
[...] Omitted section
// Interruptions at this point by speakers
+ Short pause
++ Longer pause
+++ Long pause
, Comma: rise in intonation
: Colons: indicate the lengthening of a syllable
Uppercase typing: Stress (pitch and volume)
( ) Single parentheses: used when transcriber is using original text
(( ))) Double parentheses: indicate non-verbal sounds
{ } Transcriber’s comment
A Gender-based Investigation of the Perception of English Language Teachers at Saudi Universities Regarding the Factors Influencing Learner Autonomy

Choudhary Zahid Javid
Foreign Languages Department, College of Arts
Taif University, Taif, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
Learner autonomy has been a focus of attention in the realm of English Language Teaching (ELT) research nowadays and the study in hand is an attempt to investigate learner autonomy in theory and practice from the perspective of English language teachers. It aims to identify gender-based perceptions of English language teachers from a Saudi university regarding the role of the textbooks, study material, support of English language teachers, the students’ learning strategies, students’ motivation and self-evaluation in enhancing learner autonomy. This empirical survey has involved 30 male and 30 female (n=60) English language teachers from English language center of Taif University, Saudi Arabia to record their insights and views about their perceptions and prospects of these pedagogical constructs in their teaching practices. The participants of the study responded to a 35-point Likert-scale modified questionnaire to generate data. Independent-samples T-test has been run to calculate percentages of their responses as well as to identify any statistically significant gender-based differences. The results revealed that only six items out of the total 35 have shown significant gender-based differences in the perceptions of the participants of the survey. The findings have revealed that the participants of this study bear extremely positive attitudes towards the pedagogical significance of learner autonomy and have exhibited encouraging trends about the implementation of this construct in the classrooms. Recommendations have been forwarded based on the results of this survey.

Keywords: English language teachers, gender-based differences, learner autonomy, perceptions

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Introduction

The brave new world poses a special emphasis on human capital and provides opportunities to individuals who are more competitive. Research informs us that such individuals are the ones who are “innovative, creative, proactive, motivated, highly skilled, flexible, available, and most important to have complex and critical thinking” (Melor, Yunus, & Arshad, 2015, p. 41). Research also reports that such traits of competitive human beings can be developed by practicing learner autonomy (LA) (Bullock, 2011; Yoshiyuki, 2011). Review of relevant studies transpires that LA has been a focus of international discourse amongst scholars as well as practitioners in the field of pedagogy (Al-Busaidi, & Al-Maamari, 2014). LA is conceived as a process of empowering learners and making them responsible for their learning process through active participation in the process. A growing mass of research is produced about this concept since the groundbreaking work by the Council of Europe in 1980s and pioneering work of Holec in 1981.

Literature Review

Review of relevant literature reveals that there exist several definitions for LA which “differ depending on the writer and the context where the term is used (Al-Busaidi, & Al-Maamari, 2014, p. 2051). A broader definition of LA can be summed as learners’ ability to take decisions about their own learning. Among the pioneering definitions, Holec (1981, p. 3) considers LA as “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning… to have, and to hold, the responsibility for all the decisions concerning all aspects of this learning”. While elaborating his definition, Holec (1981) states that this autonomy lies in learners’ ability to determine the learning objectives, identify the content, choose appropriate learning techniques, monitor the learning process and evaluate what is learned. Little (1991) identifies LA as “essentially a matter of the learner’s psychological relation to the process and content of learning. It is to be found in a wide variety of behaviors as a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action” (p. 4). Littlewood (1996) defines LA as “learners’ ability and willingness to make choices independently” (p. 97). Benson (2001) defines “autonomy as the capacity to take control of one’s own learning, largely because the construct of ‘control’ appears to be more open to investigation than the construct of ‘charge’ or ‘responsibility” (p. 47). LA is also “described as a capacity … because various kinds of abilities can be involved in control over learning. ………….the most important abilities are those that allow learners to plan their own learning activities, monitor their progress and evaluate their outcomes” (Benson, 2003, p. 290).

Following the definition of Holec (1981), the linguistics have used several terms for LA such as, ‘ability’ by Benson, 2006, ‘capacity’ by Little, 1991, ‘take responsibility’, and ‘take control’ as reported by Al-Busaidi, & Al-Maamari, (2014). According to Benson and Voller (1997), the term LA has been applied to the following five learning modes; 1) situations where learners control their own learning, b) self-directed learning skills, c) an inborn capacity that is suppressed by formal education, d) demonstration of learners' responsibility towards self-learning and e) learners’ freedom to decide about the learning dynamics of their learning.

Cherrington (2000) has reported that it was after the second world war era, because of several economic and political exigencies, “…ELT[English Language Teaching] became a large and expanding business, supported by academic and linguistic developments and also by governments and their agencies” (p. 361). In addition to that, rapid developments in the field of
applied linguistics and ELT pedagogy and research has initiated an era of increased interest in language learners as well. English language practitioners have started to consider LA as a determining factor for effective ELT. It has been stated that “the current processes of upheaval and change constrain most of us to lifelong learning, which is at least partly synonymous with autonomous learning” (De Florio-Hansen, 2007, p. 30). Benson (1996) has emphasized that LA is directly related to the psychological or internal abilities of a language learner which include their learning styles, aptitudes, motivational orientations, attitudes etc. The main objective in this regard should be to enhance the learners’ responsibility of their learning process. Gardner and Miller (2002) have detailed the historical perspective of LA in his book and elaborated various terms related to it. They have further stated that LA has been closely related to the concept of life-long learning skills. It has been suggested that the following three pedagogical aspects, namely learner empowerment, learner reflection and appropriate target language use, are the main prerequisites of successful LA (Little, 1991). A growing mass of research has offered insights into the fact that LS inculcates enhanced motivation among learners when they hold the responsibility regarding the development of their learning process (Al Asmari, 2013; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). It is also suggested that “motivation should enhance the sense of responsibility among the learners in conducting their language learning process” (Melor, Yunus, & Arshad, 2015, p. 41). The relevant literature also warns that LA does not work well if the learners do not have clear and achievable learning objectives in front of them to guide them take appropriate initiatives for their learning process (Melor, Yunus, & Arshad, 2015). Benson (2001) has also reported that LA is closely related to the learners’ capacity to learn in terms of personal goals. Therefore, it seems imperative that language teachers should interact with their students to form measurable and achievable learning objectives (Schunk, 2005; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012).

Traditionally the emphasis of LA research has been on the learners and the “researchers have tried to identify the traits that characterize autonomous learners” (Al-Busaidi, & Al-Maamari, 2014, p. 2051). The recent years have seen a shift in this regard as a growing mass of LA studies have been conducted to investigate language teachers’ beliefs related to LA. It seems logical and “equally important to explore the teacher dimension of LA, considering the impact teachers’ beliefs can have on the learning process. The extent of teachers’ support for LA is based on their own learning and understanding” (Al-Busaidi, & Al-Maamari, 2014, p. 2051). The same has been emphasized by Edelhoff (1984, p. 189) who has stated that “teachers will hardly be prepared or able to administer autonomous learning processes in their students if their own learning is not geared to the same principles”. Much research has reported that teachers’ beliefs and attitudes towards various pedagogical concepts, teaching methodologies and approaches determine their teaching practices (Isenberg, 1990; Hedge and Cassidy, 2009). Thus, it is important “to build a design or adapting activities in promoting autonomous learning, it is vital to understand teachers’ perceptions, practices and beliefs toward the notion of learner autonomy” (Melor, Yunus, & Arshad, 2015, P. 42).

During the last decade a host of studies has been conducted in various English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts to investigate English language teachers’ beliefs about LA. The study of Balçikanlı (2010) involved 112 student teachers from a Turkish university who were investigated by using semi-structured interviews. The researcher has conducted multiple interview session with the participants to seek their responses towards the use and productivity of LA. The investigation
of Borg and Al-Busaidi (2012) was conducted in the setting of higher education in Oman. The researchers have investigated 61 teachers’ attitudes and practices towards LA in an Omani university language center. A closed-ended questionnaire was used to elicit the participants’ responses and descriptive analyses were run to present the results. The results indicate that the participants understand the role of pedagogical significance of LA in successful language teaching; though they were not very confident in inculcating this quality among their Omani students. The results have also pointed out that the participants of this survey questionnaire have considered learner-related factors such as low motivation among the students and teacher-related factor like lack of confidence in their students and the institutional factor such as heavy syllabus the main reasons behind their inability to inculcate LA. Al Asmari (2013) investigated male and female English language teachers from the context of higher education in a Saudi university. A Likert-scale questionnaire was administered to the participants of the study to generate data related to their perceptions about LA. It was also found out that a vast majority of the participants bear a strong liking for LA and they supported the belief that AL provides wide opportunities for enhanced learning to the students because of their active and positive role in the process of learning. It was also learnt that the participants favored the strategies of ‘teaching communicative skills’ and ‘group discussions’ as important strategies to promote LA. Duong (2014) has investigated Thai EFL faculty members’ perceptions regarding the promotion of LA of their students in the context of Thai higher education. A closed-ended questionnaire was exploited to elicit thirty participants’ responses who were English language teachers. The results have revealed that the majority could perceive the concept of LA and the subsequent role of English language teachers but most of them reported that it was difficult for them to implement LA practices in the Thai context. The study of Salimi and Ansari (2015) meant to investigate the beliefs and attitudes of Iranian English language teachers towards LA. The study engaged 35 participants who were selected randomly from the English department of university of Maragheh, Iran who responded to a Likert-scale questionnaire. The responses were manually coded and descriptive analyses were run to present the findings of this survey. The findings have exhibited that Iranian teachers had a fair idea of LA and they believe that it plays an important role in successful language learning as well as to prepare their students to look after their learning in future as well. Yunus and Arshad (2015) have investigated Malaysian EFL teachers’ perceptions towards the prospects and practices of LA in the Malaysian public secondary schools. The study was conducted in relation to the latest emphasis of Malaysia Education Blueprint (MEB 2013-2025) towards the usage of LA as a desirable teaching/learning approach. The study involved 35 in-service English language teachers teaching to seek their attitudes related to their perceptions, practices and possibilities of implementing LA. The findings have revealed that major traits of LA were missing in the ELT practices in Malaysian universities because of an overemphasis on final exam preparations. It also transpired that the participants had favorable attitudes towards this construct despite the difficult situation in Malaysian schools. The study of Al-Onaizi (2017) intended to investigate the role of English language faculty in incorporating LA in the academic context of Saudi secondary school. It aimed at finding out the roles of English language teachers as managers, facilitators, counselors and resource. The study involved 60 English language teachers who responded to a questionnaire. The results have exhibited that LA is usually encouraged though the process is not very effective as many teachers at Saudi secondary schools lack proper strategies to activate learners’ LA. Furthermore, the students are also not skilled for this kind of learning mode because they are seldom exposed to it. It has been recommended that teachers’ continuous assessment and
contemplation of their teaching practices, availability of professional development sessions to them and relaxation of administrative restrictions should be exercised to improve LA at Saudi schools. Al-Rabai (2017) has conducted a mixed-method study to investigate 136 English language teachers from a Saudi university to understand their perceptions related to LA. The participants of the study were investigated through a survey and interviews to elicit their responses towards the concept of LA and its role in language learning process. The study also aimed to collect data about the role of English language faculty in helping their students to become autonomous learners, their assessment of the autonomy their students have, and the challenges faced by the faculty in enhancing LA among their students. The results generated from the descriptive analyses have informed that English language teachers consider psychological orientation as the most closely related to LA from the four constructs of learner autonomy namely technical, psychological, social, and political orientations. The participants have emphasized that it is their duty as English language teachers to promote LA among their students but it becomes challenging because of their students who are relatively passive, usually depend on their teachers and lack initiative.

Research questions
1. What is the perception of male and female English language teachers at Saudi universities about the role of the textbooks and study material in enhancing LA?
2. What is the perception of male and female English language teachers at Saudi universities about the role and support of English language teachers in enhancing LA?
3. What is the perception of male and female English language teachers at Saudi universities about the role of the students’ learning strategies in enhancing LA?
4. What is the perception of male and female English language teachers at Saudi universities about the role of the students’ motivation and self-evaluation in enhancing LA?

Null hypotheses
1. There does not exist any gender-based statistically significant differences in the perception of male and female English language teachers at Saudi universities about the role of the textbooks and study material in enhancing LA?
2. There does not exist any gender-based statistically significant differences in the perception of male and female English language teachers at Saudi universities about the role and support of English language teachers in enhancing LA?
3. There does not exist any gender-based statistically significant differences in the perception of male and female English language teachers at Saudi universities about the role of the students’ learning strategies in enhancing LA?
4. There does not exist any gender-based statistically significant differences in the perception of male and female English language teachers at Saudi universities about the role of the students’ motivation and self-evaluation in enhancing LA?

Method
Participants of the Study
The participants of this survey report have been male and female English language teachers serving in the English language center of a Saudi university at Taif. English language center caters for the English language needs of Saudi students who join the university. Intensive skills courses ranging from six hours to 15 hours coaching each week are taken by the students during their first
year according to their major areas of study. English for specific purposes courses are taught during their second and third year of study at the university. Majority of male and female English language teachers hold MA degrees and belong to various nationalities.

The Instrumentation

A Likert-scale adopted questionnaire has been used by the researcher to collect data from male and female English language teachers. Several relevant studies which have been published during the last 10 years to investigate faculty members responses towards LA have been consulted to develop the instrument for this study (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; Al-Asmari, 2013; Al-Busaidi & Al-Maamari, 2014; Salimi & Ansari, 2015; Yunus & Arshad, 2015; Alonazi, 2017 etc.) The questionnaire has been divided into four sections to seek the participants’ beliefs about four areas related to LA as set in the research questions and the hypotheses. The first section was meant to elicit the participants’ perceived beliefs about the role of the textbooks and study material in enhancing LA and this section contained nine items. The second section also contained nine items which were related to the role and support of English language teachers in enhancing LA. The next section comprised of eight item which were included in the instrument to seek their perceptions about the role of the students’ learning strategies in enhancing LA. The last section also had 9 items which were meant to collect data related to the participants’ perceived beliefs about the role of the students’ motivation and self-evaluation in enhancing LA. The questionnaire had 35 items in Likert-scale format and the participants were supposed to respond to each one of them with the scale of ‘strongly agree’ to strongly disagree.

Reliability and Validity

After reviewing the previous studies, an initial version of the questionnaire was developed by the researcher according to identify the participants’ beliefs about the four areas narrowed down in the research questions. That initial version was sent to three experts in the field and their suggestions were incorporated to achieve face validity. The questionnaire was then pilot tested with 17 English language teachers from the same context. The data generated through the pilot test was entered manually and Cronbach’s Alpha reliability test was run to determine the reliability of the instrument. The results have indicated an acceptable level of reliability of .769. The final version of the questionnaire was generalized to the participants to present the results and findings.

Results and Discussion

Table 1. Textbooks and Study Materials

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p value</th>
<th>No</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 The students should discuss their views with the teacher on what to learn in the classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.9000</td>
<td>56.751</td>
<td>.711</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 The students should offer opinions on learning materials.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.7333</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.5667</td>
<td>57.287</td>
<td>.551</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 The students should assist the teacher in setting up the equipment in the classroom.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.8667</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.0333</td>
<td>51.497</td>
<td>.474</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 The students should have a say in the choice of materials to use.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.1000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The table 1 details the descriptive statistics of the responses of male and female participants of the survey regarding the role of the textbooks and study material in enhancing LA. This section contains 9 items in total and 4 items have been assigned higher mean values of more than 4, only two items have been allocated less than 4 whereas the remaining items were given medium high mean values. The participants have favored the item ‘The classroom activities should encourage self-learning among students’ the most with extremely high mean values of 4.73 by male participants and 4.8 by their female counterparts. The second highest mean was assigned to ‘The study material should encourage students to use English in real-life situations’ with extremely high mean of 4.63 and 4.83 by male and female cohort respectively. The next two most favored items were related to the textbooks and study materials and the participants have emphasized that LA can be achieved successfully if the textbooks have multimedia support and they are tailor made indigenously according to the students’ interests and needs. An interesting finding is that the participants of this survey have allocated extremely low mean value of only 3.1, both by male and female cohort, to the belief that the students should have a say in the choice of materials to be taught to them. The same has been emphasized by the their second least preferred item which states that the students should offer opinions on learning materials. Thus, the participants of the survey strongly believe that textbooks should be developed indigenously based on the needs of the students and only that material should be included in the textbooks which are according to the interest of the students. Similarly, it is also evident that the findings support that classroom activities are quite instrumental in promoting LA if they are according to the interest of the students, align with their previous learning experiences, encourage the learners to use the target language in real life situations and provide them practice to become autonomous learners.

The finding strongly coincides with the results of Farooq (2013) who has also revealed that English language teachers teaching at university level strongly agree that to enhance LA it is necessary that the textbooks should be based on students’ interest and needs as well as encourage students to use English in real-life situations. The results of two highest ranking items of this category suggesting multimedia support to textbooks and conducting activities which promote self-learning of this empirical survey received partial support from the cohort of Farooq (2013).
who have assigned medium high values to these items. The overall results of the questionnaire items which elicited the participants’ responses related to the involvement of the students in selecting textbooks and study materials seem to suggest that for effective ELT, autonomy should be provided to EFL learners confirming a growing mass of research in the field which indicates that mutual coordination and consultation is important by English language teachers and learners to ensure positive results (Al-Rabai, 2017; Melor, Yunus, & Arshad, 2015; Al Asmari, 2013; Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012). Therefore, it seems unavoidable for English language teachers in the KSA to involve their students in various classroom proceedings to help enhance their language learning abilities. Melor, Yunus and Arshad, (2015) has reported that English language teachers from a Malaysian public school have assigned reasonably high preference to the items which sought their responses about providing training and facilitating them to become autonomous learners. Same has been emphasized by Melor, Yunus and Arshad (2015) who has reported that most of the participants “agree and strongly agree that giving the learners opportunities to make decisions about their own learning process is an important factor in promoting learner autonomy” (p. 1112). He has further emphasized that the teachers’ role is extremely important in developing and promoting learner autonomy.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10 EFL teachers should be facilitators and helpers in the classroom.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.9000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05 No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.8667</td>
<td>57.117</td>
<td>.694</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 EFL teachers should treat all the students equally in the classroom.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.8333</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05 No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.8000</td>
<td>54.838</td>
<td>.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 EFL teachers should encourage students to ask questions whenever there is a problem.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.7000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05 No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.9333</td>
<td>37.604</td>
<td>.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 EFL teachers should encourage students to participate in the classroom activities.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.9000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05 No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.9333</td>
<td>56.131</td>
<td>.647</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 EFL teachers should give real-life examples and assignments to the students.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.7000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05 No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.9000</td>
<td>50.000</td>
<td>.055</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 EFL teachers should give proper feedback on each assignment as it helps students in their learning.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.7000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05 No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.8000</td>
<td>56.960</td>
<td>.380</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 EFL teachers should encourage creativity among students in language use.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.8000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05 No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.7667</td>
<td>55.529</td>
<td>.779</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17 EFL teachers should use appropriate technology in the classroom to make learning interesting.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.7333</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05 No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.7667</td>
<td>57.264</td>
<td>.788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 EFL teachers should assign home-based language tasks and projects to the students.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.3333</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &lt; 0.05 Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.6667</td>
<td>58.000</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2 contains the data related to the male and female participants of this study towards the role and support of English language teachers in enhancing LA. The descriptive analyses have shown the extremely high preference of the participants about the role of English language teachers as evident by extremely high mean values of more than 4.5 assigned to all items of this category. The highest means of 4.9 and 4.93 have been calculated by their belief that EFL teachers should encourage students to participate in the classroom activities to maximize the possibility of enhancing LA. The second highest means have been reported by male and female participants to the belief that to increase LA, the role of EFL teachers as facilitators and helpers in the classroom is extremely instrumental. It was also favored unanimously by all the participants that the teachers should treat all their students equally and should not favor anyone in any respect. In a similar manner, extremely high mean has been allocated to the item that sought their responses towards EFL teachers’ efforts to encourage their students to ask questions whenever there is a problem. As it has been mentioned earlier that all items of this category were given extremely high mean values. The least preferred items included ‘EFL teachers’ assigning home-based language tasks and projects to the students’ and ‘EFL teachers use appropriate technology in the classroom to make learning interesting’.

The results of this survey have highlighted one point clearly that both male and female English language teachers believe that their role is extremely instrumental in achieving the goal of inculcating LA among their students. The findings have emphasized that English language teachers should ensure a communicative atmosphere in their classes where they act as facilitators and motivators by bringing the real-world situation in their classroom settings through exploiting authentic teaching materials that keep the students motivation and interest intact and high. The role of timely feedback, use of appropriate technology and attempts to develop creativity among the students have also been emphasized.

The results of the highest-ranking questionnaire item of this category is partially in line with the findings of Farooq (2013) who has indicated that the participants from a similar academic context have allocated medium high mean to this factor. The second most preferred item confirms the findings of Melor, Yunus and Arshad, (2015) stating that teachers should “be more like facilitators and classroom managers as well as encouraging learners to engage with outside of classroom learning” (p. 45) to enhance LA. The findings are similar to Javid (2014) who has investigated Saudi university undergraduates and reported that the most preferred English language teachers are those who motivate and encourage their students effectively. The same has been reported by Al-Asmari (2013) as well. The results of items 12, 14 and 16 are in line with Al-Onazi (2017) who has stated that Saudi secondary teachers have allocated medium high preferences to these items as well indicating that English language teachers should encourage their students to have their own learning goals, exercise creativity in learning activities and interact with their teachers to find solutions to their academic issues to ensure independent learning. Encouraging students to participate in the classroom activities remained the most favored item partially confirming the findings of Farooq (2013) who reported medium high liking by the participants. The third most preferred items of this category is also in line with the results of Javid (2014) who has reported that Saudi students like those teacher who treat them equally and provide their learners with equal opportunities.
The table 3 contains descriptive analyses of the statements about the role of the students’ learning strategies in enhancing LA as perceived by Saudi male and female English language teachers. Majority of the items in this category have been assigned reasonably high mean values as there is only one item with less than 3 mean, 5 items have been given mean higher than 4 whereas the remaining 2 have been assigned medium high values. An extremely high mean of 4.8 was recorded by the male cohort to the item which states that ‘taking part in classroom activities increases confidence in students which is instrumental in developing LA. The female cohort has allocated 4.63 to this item. Same high value of 4.7 has been assigned unanimously to the assumption that language learners learn from their peers as well and not just from their teachers. High mean has been reported for the belief that pair work contributes significantly in providing the learners with the opportunities to communicate. ‘Individual work is better in the English class’ is the only statement which was assigned lowest mean of only 2.43 and 2.73 by males and females respectively. All the remaining statement received medium high mean values by both groups.

The highest-ranking item of this category partially coincides with the results of Farooq (2013) who has reported medium high mean to the item stating that participation in classroom activities is instrumental in inculcating confidence in English language learners. The findings of Melor, Yunus and Arshad, (2015) have reported that English language teachers from a Malaysian public school strongly believe that group discussion creates interest in English language learners.
confirming the liking of the cohort of this empirical study to this aspect. The findings also confirm the findings of Javid (2011) who has also revealed that Saudi EFL learners from the same context believe that pair and group work is instrumental in their English language studies.

Table 4. Motivation and Self-evaluation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>p value</th>
<th>p value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students enjoy learning English.</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.7000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>57.104</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students stimulate their own interest in learning English.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.3000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
<td>57.116</td>
<td>.365</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students set up their own learning goals.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.6333</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.1000</td>
<td>50.405</td>
<td>.100</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students identify their own strengths and weaknesses.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.7667</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.3333</td>
<td>57.817</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students know learning English better will enable them to get a well-paid job.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.1000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>4.0667</td>
<td>46.563</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students want to be the best in the English class.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.9000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &lt; 0.05</td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
<td>56.659</td>
<td>.010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students always come to the class on-time.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.2000</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
<td>57.897</td>
<td>.321</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students hand in assignment to the teacher on-time.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.1667</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.6333</td>
<td>52.856</td>
<td>.069</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saudi EFL students access internet for online English language learning activities.</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.1333</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>p &gt; 0.05</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>female</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.1333</td>
<td>56.137</td>
<td>1.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last nine items have been included in the questionnaire to elicit the participants’ responses about the role of the students’ motivation and self-evaluation in enhancing LA. As compared to other factors, this one has received lower ranking by the participants. Only 1 item was assigned more than 4, 5 items were allocated less than 4 whereas the remaining 3 were allotted quite low mean. In this category, the item ‘Saudi EFL students know learning English better will enable them to get a well-paid job’ has received the highest favor by the participants as indicated by high mean values of 4.1 and 4.06. The participants have also assigned reasonably high mean to the assumption that ‘Saudi EFL students enjoy learning English’. The male and female participants of this survey have not reacted positively to the statement that ‘Saudi EFL students set up their own learning goals as indicated by the lowest mean of only 2.63 by the males and 3.1 by the females. The second lowest set of mean has remained for ‘Saudi EFL students identify their own strengths and weaknesses’. The results also indicate that Saudi EFL students do not bear very competitive attitude to remain at the top position in their classes.
The medium high mean values reported by the cohort of this empirical study about enjoying learning English and stimulating their own interest in learning coincides with Melor, Yunus, & Arshad (2015) who has also presented the same findings by English language teachers from a Malaysian public school. The findings related to these items partially confirms the findings of Farooq (2013) who has reported that the participants of his study from a similar context have assigned comparatively higher mean to these items. A growing mass of research has suggested that motivation is an important factor in inculcating urge among EFL learners to work hard inside as well as outside the classroom to learn the target language (Dornyei, 2006; Javid, Asmari & Farooq, 2012). Though research has also reported that extrinsic goals such as scoring high marks and task completion overshadow intrinsic motivation among EFL learners (Borg & Al-Busaidi, 2012; NST, 2012; Javid, Asmari, & Farooq, 2012). Therefore, it is also important for EFL teachers to try to keep intrinsic motivation high. The highest mean is reported for the extrinsic motivation of securing a better job in future is in line with the findings of Javid, Asmari and Farooq (2012) who has also reported that Saudi EFL learners want to learn English mainly for the instrumental factor of achieving higher salary and better status in society.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

The present survey attempts to explore gender-based perceptions of Saudi EFL teachers in inculcating LA as there has been a major emphasis to a more learner-centered teaching. The results indicate that to enhance LA, it is important to understand that EFL teachers are no longer provider of knowledge only, rather they have to act as learning resource, facilitators and counselors. The result generated by the data analyses highlight the best strategies which are instrumental in promoting learner autonomy. It has been emphasized that textbooks and study material should be finalized after consulting the faculty members, assessing the students’ preferences and analyzing the learners’ academic needs. The textbooks should have multimedia support to ensure LA. The role of EFL faculty is imperative in promoting autonomous learning and the learners should be provided with the opportunities to reflect on their individual learning process, assess their progress and take their own decision regarding their learning. The findings reveal that pair/group work and classroom activities promote learning possibilities among EFL learners. The null hypotheses set for this study were rejected as the results of independent-samples t-test has not shown any significant differences along gender-lines.

Considering the fact that largely EFL culture in the KSA depends on teacher-centered pedagogy, EFL faculty should exert to inculcate greater motivation, interact with their students to help them make own learning decisions, respect individual difference, and encourage them to become life-long learners. It is recommended that there should be continuous professional development programs for the faculty related to autonomy-oriented education. The teachers should ensure a cooperative learning environment in classes to encourage LA among their students. The students should be encouraged to set learning goals for themselves, share their strengths and weakness in language learning with their teachers and discuss feedback on their language tasks, assignments or projects as well. It is also suggested that LA is a much-sought after goal which cannot be materialized without a close coordination of EFL faculty, learners, supervisors and the administration. Traditionally Saudi EFL culture heavily depends on pre-deigned teaching materials, therefore, it is also extremely important to choose material which ensure LA through various scenarios and activities which enhance the learner’s development of skills in this regard.
About the Author:
The author is serving Foreign Languages Department as an associate professor. He has authored more than forty articles, three ESP textbooks and presented and participated in many international conferences, symposia and workshops. He has teaching experience of more than 24 years in reputed organizations. https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4631-581X

References


Dynamic Transfer and Relations between First Language (L1) Proficiency and Second Language (L2) Writing Skills Performance

Abdulelah Alkhateeb
Basic Sciences, Faculty of English language
College of Applied Medical Sciences
King Saud bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences
Alahsa, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
This study investigates the transfer relationship between first language (L1) (Arabic) proficiency and second language (L2) (English) performance in writing skills of a Saudi bilingual graduate student. Several studies have discussed the transfer issues in language learning, yet a few of them focus on the transfer relationships between Arabic and English language writing skills. Regardless of the huge linguistic distinction between the English language and Arabic language, it is presumed that Arabic and English writing skills positively, negatively, and neutrally transferred in a dynamic relationship. The researcher has conducted observations and interviews with Fatimah, the participant of this study, and analyzed her texts in both languages to illustrate how dynamic relationships between L1 and L2 in the composition skills is and what the effects of language transfer in the composition skills between L1 and L2 are. The data were collected and analyzed in January 2018. The results demonstrate effects of L2 on L1 as the following; first, a reverse or backward transfer implemented in three ways; positive, negative, and neutral transfer. Second, they indicate that there is a dynamic relationship between second language performance and first language proficiency in composition particularly. It is hoped that this knowledge will assist students in being aware of the effects of L2 on L1 specifically in composition and taking the advantages to accelerate the rate of language learning. It is recommended for future research to conduct studies in bilingual writings to investigate how L1 could be a resource and advocate of language development.

Keywords: dynamic transfer, English as a second language (L2) writing, Arabic as a first Language proficiency (L1)

Intoduction
Learning language is a complex process occurs in one’s mind. All L2 learners possess L1, so L1 is an important source for L2 learning. In fact, crosslinguistic influences and other social and psychological influences affect the development of L2 negatively and positively (Anderson, 1983; Klee & Ocampo, 1995; & Odlin, 2003). Positive and negative influences are important for a complete understanding of how second language acquisition (SLA) works. SLA theorists study and compare the differences and similarities between given language pairs in what was known as Contrastive Analysis. Interestingly, similarities between L1 and L2 learners’ mistakes within the same L1 such as ‘”runned’” and “car crashed” instead of ‘ran’ and ‘car was crashed’ exist in what they call Developmental Constraints which are undeniable (Ortega, 2013).

Eventually, Contrastive Analysis implications were not persuasive and well-manifested, in both Error Analysis and Performance Analysis; however, it sometimes provides accurate anticipations to help language learners avoid making mistakes. For instance, the case of placement of pronouns between English and French learners known as ‘Evidentiality, the degree of certainty with which a statement is believed or presented to be true,’ clarifies the complexity of L1 influences in L2 learning (Klee & Ocampo, 1995). Therefore, the researcher aims in the present paper to analyze the crosslinguistic influences in four texts, two in each language, Arabic and English, to illustrate if there is a transfer relationship between L2 (English language in this context) writing performance and L1 (Arabic language in this context) proficiency, and how L1 impacts L2 writing skills and vice versa.

Significant of the Study
This study will closely analyze Arabic and English texts of an English as a foreign language (EFL) learner to broaden our understanding of the dynamic L1-L2 transfer in writing. Several studies have discussed the transfer issues in language learning, yet a few of them focus on the transfer relationships between Arabic and English language writing skills. Although researchers in the area Carrel, Carson, Silberstein, Kroll, and Kuehn (1990) have looked at transfer of language skills across languages, few have investigated this phenomenon among Arabic EFL learners even though Arabic-speaking students represent a large proportion of the EFL body all around the world.

Question of the study
How is the dynamic relationship between L1 (Arabic language) and L2 (English language) in the composition skills, and what are the effects of language transfer in the composition skills between L1 and L2?

Literature Review
 Contrastive Rhetoric (CR) research start with Kaplan’s 1966 pioneering study, which find that speakers of different language backgrounds organize their paragraphs in a unique way related to their L1 environment. It has been hypothesized that each language and culture have unique rhetorical conventions and that they negatively transfer with L2 writing (Kaplan, 1966, 1972, 1988; Grabe & Kaplan, 1989).

Several empirical studies have been conducted to compare the rhetorical, organizational patterns, and quality of writings between L1 and L2. In a contrastive rhetoric study, Hirose (2003)
investigates and compares L1 (Japanese) and L2 (English) organizational patterns in the argumentative writing of Japanese English as a foreign language (EFL) students. The results of this study indicate that multi-faceted influences are involved in students’ choices of L1/L2 organizational patterns. Several factors such as instructional background, perceptions about the decent organization, and task (including time) influence the students’ choices.

Kubota (1998) in another important study has investigated the possibility of positive transfer between L1 and L2 in composition skills. She examines the individual Japanese students utilize the same discourse pattern in L1 and English as a second language (ESL) writing and how it affects the quality of ESL essays. The results reveal a positive correlation between Japanese and ESL organization scores.

An important track that SLA researchers demonstrate the deficiency of Error Analysis is Interlingual Identification, defined by Odlin as “The judgment that something in the native language and something in the target language are similar” (2003, p.437). For instance, when a gap in L2 knowledge exists, then the best available strategy for language learners is to rely on their L1 knowledge. Singleton (1987) illustrates Interlingual Identification strikingly in his interview with Philip. During the interview, Philip speaks French and he makes errors consciously. When he asks him about these errors, he replies “I knew that it probably was not right, but it was the nearest I could get to something that might be right” (1987, p.327). Since the researcher is a bilingual speaker, his experience in learning an additional language, namely English, proves that his L1 (Arabic) accelerates the learning process rate of L2 (English) development in several aspects such as understanding the fact that English and Arabic are subject-prominent languages. Subject-prominent means that language typically organizes sentences around a subject and verb and marks topics only when pragmatically needed and through other exceptional means.

Interestingly enough, that to understand L1 transfer, one needs to go beyond L1–L2 formal correspondences. Sometimes L1 and L2 share similar grammatical rules such as relative clauses in the English, Persian, and Arabic language, yet researchers find that learners with L1 in e.g. Persian make more mistakes than those whose L1 has not relative clauses such as Japanese. They find that Japanese learning English as L2 avoid using relative clause format and that is known as Avoidance (Schachter, 1974). In fact, L1 knowledge accelerates L2 learning process consciously and subconsciously, and all previous known languages can influence knowledge of additional language, and this holds universally true of all L2 learners (Ortega, 2013).

Markedness is an essential term in SLA that indicates a closed set of possibilities within a linguistic system, where the given chances rank from simplest and most frequent across languages of the world, or unmarked, to the most complex and most rare, or marked. Eckman (1977) proposes the Markedness Differential Hypothesis to describe that marked forms tend to be more challenging to learn and therefore cause more interlanguage solutions. Moreover, a style that is more marked in the L2 than the L1 leads to difficulty whereas a form that is less marked in the L2 than the L1 presents no particular learning challenge. To illustrate the notion of Markedness, there are languages (e.g. Arabic, Greek, etc.) in which passive sentences occur without expressed agents (see example 1a below), but they do not allow using passive with expressed agents (example 1b).
a. The door was closed.

b. The door was closed by the janitor.

On the other hand, English, French, and Japanese languages, for instance, accept both types of passive with or without expressed agents. Obviously, there are no languages which accept passive formats with agents without also taking agents. Therefore, the occurrence of passives with agents implies the presence of passives without agents, but the reverse is not true (Jin, 2008). The aforementioned eight categories of linguistics interference illustrate how the differences and similarities between languages accelerates the rate of learning.

Jarvis & Odlin (2000) discover the hypothesis that L1 knowledge could prevent certain L2 choices and prime others, thus resulting in the underuse or overuse of certain L2 forms in spoken and written learner production. They reanalyze the L1 Finnish and L1 Swedish adolescents’ written retellings. Underuse of prepositions in general is attested in the sample of English written retellings produced by the Finnish-speaking adolescents. Many of them produce instances of zero preposition. Together with the underuse of prepositions, Jarvis and Odlin find that the Finnish speaking adolescents overuse the preposition in, and when they do, they overextend it to many contexts. This linguistic choice is non-native-like. Rather, Swedes never overextend in to denote the meaning from. Overuse of in among the Finns seems to have been motivated by semantic transfer. Jarvis and Odlin suggest that this difference in the L1–L2 semantic mapping misled Finnish learners to collapse all the uses of in into a general internal location meaning. The findings typically suggest that there are noticeable differences in the frequency of use for certain linguistics forms according to L1 influences semantically or syntactically and that the L1 make underuse or overuse of certain types may be typical at different stages of L2 development for certain L1–L2 learner groups.

Another important aspect which plays a vital role in analyzing the L1 transfer whether negative or positive is the information structure of L1 and L2. Languages in the world are categorized into two types, topic-prominent languages such as Mandarin Chinese, Japanese, and Korean, and subject-prominent languages like Arabic, English, and Spanish. Most of the researchers investigate only the surface meaning and structure of L2 learners, and they misinterpret or misdiagnose L2 leaners’ error(s) in the target language structure. For instance, findings contributed by Rutherford and Schachter provide a well-known illustration about how the information of structure of L1 and L2 have bidirectional influences (Rutherford, 1983; Schachter and Rutherford, 1979). They analyze Chinese L1 learners of English from Schachter & Celce-Murcia study in 1971. They closely-analyze this example:

1- There are so many Taiwan people live around the lake.

At the first look, sentence (1) shows a relative pronoun missing, so a language teacher would consider this error as a relative clause error. However, Schachter and Rutherford interpret this error as an influence of L1 (Chinses) that is a topic-prominent language. They claim that the L2 writers may be unconsciously attempting to organize information following principles of their L1.
Carroll, Murcia-Serra, Watorek, & Bendiscioli (2000) mention that information of structure in the L1 continues to employ a pivotal part on influencing the L2 structure, even in high-level proficiency. They said that English and Romance languages will favor "existential constructions for the introduction of new referents as in There is a fountain on the square, whereas German will favour locational constructions of the kind Auf dem Platz ist ein Brunnen (‘On the square is a fountain’)" (Ortega, 2013, p. 46). Their findings show that ten L1 English speakers preferred to use existential construction even though they were at high advanced levels of L2 German.

As Odlin (2003) points out crosslinguistic influences will always be probabilistic, and they still are formed by mutually interacting forces that come from learners’ psychological decision of transferability, learners’ current proficiency level in the L2 and the nature and relative density of the given L2 subsystem at hand (Ortega, 2013, p. 41). Indeed, Transfer is a highly complex phenomenon in language learning.

Langan (2000) also mentions that composition process is such a discovery that involves a series of steps starting by discovering a thesis often through prewriting, developing support for the thesis, organizing the thesis by start writing a first draft, revising and then editing to ensure an effective and error-free paper. This inspires writing teachers, educators, and researchers to investigate the transfer of writing skills between languages. In fact, it is commonly known among researchers and linguists that the similarities and differences between the two languages determine the degree and nature of transfer (positive or negative transfer) (Odlin, 1989; Ellis, 1996; & Dweik, 1986).

The influence of the mother tongue cannot explain all phenomena of interlanguage development because there are other universal influences impact and exercise powerful effects on the interlanguage system. Notwithstanding, those linguistic systems and subsystems that are transferable linguistically are the ones that play a pivotal role in promoting L2 skills development. These schemes frequently occur in language learning and diverge from one language to another (Odlin, 1989).

In the past, transfer studies compare and contrast between learned languages only (Kaplan, 1966, 1972, 1986; Odlin, 1989, 2003, 2004; Grabe & Kaplan, 1989). Nowadays, the new trends of transfer or preferably crosslinguistic influences studies tend to investigate transfer knowledge that goes beyond target language boundaries. As what Leonard & Nowacek argue about transfer and translingualism in composition skills:

Both transfer and translingualism acknowledge that writers do make mistakes and do not always have complete control over communicative production. But under a translingual approach, language deviations in writing can be considered not always failure to transfer standard writing knowledge, but instead a norm of language-in-practice, one of its meaning-making functions (2016, p.261).
Thus, composition knowledge can be transferred from L1 to L2 in a bidirectional way positively and negatively. Some writers do make mistakes while they are borrowing knowledge from their L1 during their L2 writing, yet linguists should not consider all transfer knowledge as a failure.

**Methodology: Bilingual Texts Analysis**

**Participant and Context**

The focal participant of this study is Fatimah who specializes in English in the B.A. at King Faisal University, Saudi Arabia. She speaks Arabic as a native language and English as a foreign language. She has been studying English since 2011 and has pursued learning English in the English Language Institute (ELI) at Illinois State University for almost one full academic year, consists of Fall 2017 and Spring 2018. Her Arabic proficiency is limited to school textbooks information, i.e., in Saudi Arabia, textbooks of Arabic language provide shallow information with limited proficiency in writing and reading Arabic texts. Specialized books with dense information that assist students to write professional Arabic essays, articles, or research papers are taught in colleges of arts at universities or in private institutes. Therefore, the Fatimah’s proficiency in the Arabic language writing is high-school level according to Saudi school curricula.

On the other hand, her proficiency in the English language based on the International English Language Testing System (IELTS) is a competent user i.e. she has generally effective command of the language despite some inaccuracies, inappropriacies, and misunderstandings. She can use and understand fairly complex language, particularly in familiar situations. Once she accomplishes the ELI requirements and fulfills the admission conditions, she is going to pursue her study to obtain a master’s degree in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). She always thinks about her writings in Arabic and English and how an interrelationship occurs between each other. When she performs writing tasks in the ELI, she found her L1 demystifies difficulties in planning ideas, organizing structure, reviewing texts, searching lexical, and editing writings. She also recognizes that L2 (English) impacts other writing skills in the L1 (Arabic) such as punctuation marks negatively and positively. Because of that, the researcher asks Fatimah to participate in this study by writing four texts, two in each language, Arabic and English, to closely analyze how L1 proficiency affects L2 writing.

**Data Collection and Analysis**

The data sources of this study include interviews and different types of written texts. The researcher assembles four academic narrative and persuasive texts, two in each Arabic and English (see Appendix A). These texts are required tasks for Fatimah in the ELI, and they are in different genres of writing, i.e., narrative and persuasive. In analysis and evaluation of Fatimah’s writings, the researcher adheres to the rules and criteria of the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) for the English composition tasks. Alike assessment and evaluation rubrics were used in the Arabic composition. For more information about evaluation questions, assessment, and rubric guideline (see Appendix B). The instructions of these prompts were as follow;

**Task 1:** Who is a hero to you? It could be someone in your family, such as your mother, father, or grandparent. Or maybe it is a teacher or boss. Think of someone in your life that has been a hero to you. This would be someone you respect and admire and have learned from. Answer the following questions:
1. Who is this person?
2. Why do you feel like they are a hero?
   o What characteristics do they have that you admire or respect?
   o Did they do something heroic?
   o What did you learn from them?

Task 2: Write about whichever question you did not answer for Journal Entry 8. Your response should be 250-300 words long.
1. Why did you choose to come to Illinois State University?
2. Should high school students be required to learn a foreign language? Why?

The researcher selects the texts from the ELI tasks that are suitable to Fatimah’s level and appealing to her common knowledge so that she would demonstrate interest while writing about the topics in the Arabic language. During writing the texts, the researcher asks the participant about her cognitive process, and the strategy of planning, organizing, and formulating ideas and sentences in both L1 and L2 writing to understand the effects of L1 proficiency in L2 writing. Some of the tasks were written in Fall 2017, the others were written in Spring 2018. The purpose behind that is to analyze Fatimah’s transfer strategies and cognitive knowledge in L1 and L2 writing process and proficiency. In other words, the researcher examines the effects of Fatimah’s L1 proficiency in the L2 writings, and the effects of L2 on L1 writing.

Results and Discussion
Dynamic Effects between L1 and L2 in writing
The results of the study are presented with respect to the research question: How is the dynamic relationship between L1 (Arabic language) and L2 (English language) in the composition skills, and what are the effects of language transfer in the composition skills between L1 and L2? The findings of this study could enrich the literature of L2 (English) effects on L1 (Arabic) as the effects of the L2 on the L1 previously were so little studied because of the belief in the native-speaker standard (Cook, 2003).

The analysis of the data was conducted in order to investigate the issue of correlation between English writing skills with the same skills in the Arabic language. The researcher has observed the participant during her writing of the required tasks in both languages, Arabic and English. During the observation, the researcher listened to the participant’s thought while she was writing to analyze if there are dynamic effects of L1 and L2 proficiency in writing. Jessner clarifies the dynamic system as “a set of variables that mutually affects each other’s changes over time” (2003, p.235). The dynamic relationship between language maintenance, attrition, and growth exist in Fatimah’s texts. Interestingly, the findings clarified that the influences of L2 on L1 writings appear to be what is sometimes called ‘reverse’ or ‘backward’ transfer. While it was thought that the L1 would influence the L2 more, the findings of the texts analyses illustrate the L2 actually influences the L1 in many ways. Moreover, the results of the observations and the interview portrayed the L2 (English) writing performance and competence and L1 proficiency are dynamically affecting each other in three ways: positively, negatively, and neutrally.

The question of the L2 effect on the L1 arose out of the notion of multi-competence, knowledge of two of more languages in one mind (Cook, 1999). The researcher categorizes the effects of L2 on L1 in Fatimah’s writings into three venues: First, a positive effect such as her
hook statements that she applies it in her Arabic writing unknowingly. For instance, she commences one of the Arabic texts with "كثير ما يتردد علي هذا السؤال من هو قدوتك في الحياة؟" asking question as a ‘hook’ strategy that she transfers from her knowledge of English writing skills. The second venue is a negative effect as in sentence-connecting, punctuation marks, and oddly repeating first person singular pronoun ‘أنا’ which means ‘also’.

Laufer (2003) mentions two effects of L2 on L1: The first situation is the proportion of infrequent words used in writing e.g. ‘asked’ instead of ‘inquiry’, for several reasons; one of them is difficulty to access. The second situation is L1 collocation as correct or incorrect. For instance, in Fatimah’s writings, masculine and feminine verb-subject agreement in the Arabic Language was affected by the English language because it is a neutral-gender language. Obviously, Fatimah writing proficiency in L2 is dynamically affected by L1 proficiency because the L2 texts were academic, formal, well-organized, and cohesive the same as the L1 texts. In the L2 texts, the paragraphs are written cohesively, while the organization of L1 texts is absent. When the researcher asks the participant about the essay organization, she replied that she has never studied how to divide an essay into paragraphs in the Arabic Language (L1). If so, she would be able to organize the L1 texts into paragraphs as she did in the L2. To shed light on her response, her L1 writing competence is not as proficient as L2 writing due to an intensive study program in the L2 from undergraduate until the time of this research, approximately ten years, that ends up with mutual effects between L2 and L1 in writing. Indeed, the findings portrayed the reciprocal influence of L2 on L1 in Fatimah’s texts.

In addition to well-organized paragraphs in the L2 texts, their conclusions and dictions (i.e. the choice and use of words and phrases in writing) are more academic than her L1 texts. L1 texts conclusions are unclear and mixed with a previous paragraph, while in the L2 are signalized and well-stated. Based on the analysis of her texts, similarities in the academic essay format and structure between L1 (Arabic) and L2 (English) did not benefit her to utilize the three main parts of an essay in her L1 texts due to ignorance, as she indicated. Furthermore, Fatimah stated that she has never written any formal writing in the Arabic language (i.e. الفصحى) for ten years. Thus, the different styles between formal and informal writing (العامية) in the Arabic language impact her academic writing proficiency.

Back to the interview analysis, Fatimah relies on her English proficiency more than Arabic because she has been studying the English language since 2009, the first semester in her specialization in the English language in undergraduate. Kecskes & Papp (2003) indicate two crucial influences shaping the L2-L1 relation; proficiency and transfer. Thus, the reason of L2 effects on L1 in this case study is clearly because Fatimah has been studying L2 (English) since 2009 in her undergraduate in Saudi Arabia until the time of this study. Furthermore, she is currently studying L2 in the United States for a year, and she is still learning the L2 academically. Therefore, her proficiency in the L2 affects the L1 texts in sentence-connecting, punctuation marks, and repetition of first-person singular pronoun ‘أنا’ as she focuses on learning the English language in the last ten years naturally and academically.

Conclusion and Future Study

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In this study case, the L2 competence influences the L1 texts in three venues. First, one of the positive transfers took place in the area of strategy use. For instance, one strategy she used was hooking strategy. In this strategy, Fatimah applies to ask questions at the beginning of the text to attract the readers. The positive effect that Fatimah applies it in the L1 texts influenced by her knowledge of L2. Second, the negative effects as in (connections and transitions between sentences, punctuation marks, repeating first person singular pronoun ‘I’ ‘أنا’ irregularly). Last, the neutral effect as in (repeating ‘أيضا’ which means ‘also’) affected by the L2 manner. In fact, the researcher anticipates that the L1 (Arabic) would influence the L2 (English); however, Fatimah’s texts show that the L2 positively affects the L1 texts as in starting the Arabic text with an interesting hook to grasp the audience’s attention. This testifies the power of L2 on L1 specifically in the writing skills. A language learner who is a sequential bilingual should learn the common similarities between his/her L1 and L2 to get the benefits of them, and then accelerate the rate of language learning and avoid negative transfers. Indeed, understanding the Interlingual identification and the dynamic relations between L1 and L2, particularly in writing skills, could demystify language literacy.

The present study supports the notion of reverse transfer in the L1 and L2 composition. It is hoped that this knowledge will assist Arab students to improve or at least maintain their writing skills in the Arabic language while they are learning the English language. It is recommended that future research examines the relationship between Arabic speakers’ reading and speaking skills alongside writing skills, and to compare Arabic groups with other linguistic groups in order to establish clarity about the relationships between different linguistic backgrounds. In addition, different L1 proficiency levels should be considered as a variable in the future research to establish its effects on L1/L2 transfer because language proficiency is pivotal in language transfer. Moreover, it is recommended that any researcher investigating language transfer issues should increase the number of participants and text analysis to confirm the credibility of the dynamic transfer phenomenon. Before every other consideration, it is recommended that future research would continue to study and closely analyze the relationships for Arab ESL students at various proficiency levels. The research might reveal dissimilarity in language transfer patterns and their relationships with each other and with other social, historical, political, and ecological factors.

Note:
1 It is ungrammatical to utilize passive with expressed agents in, for example, Arabic and Greek languages.

About the Author:
Abdulelah Alkhateeb is a Ph.D. candidate at Illinois State University and a lecturer at King Saud bin Abdulaziz University for Health Sciences, Saudi Arabia. His research interests center on writing in EFL, Academic Writing, and Assessment and Writing Literacy. ORCiD: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7025-0342

References


Appendix A

Fatimah’s Texts in both Arabic and English

Texts 1&2:

قدوتي في الحياة

يحتاج كثيرا من التفكير فكل فتاة بأبيها معحبة. نعم الجواب

لا كثير ما يتردد علي هذا السؤال من هو قدوتك في الحياة؟ الجواب

يكون أبي وهو الذي ضحى بالأحق و أجل مستقبلي. أبي هو المسؤول عن توفير المال لنا في المنزل انا و

لا هو أبي فلما أخوتي الالثة لم يعطني أو كسر بخاطري. فهو أبي لا، لم يشكوا احدا منا قط عن قلة لمصروف. ال أتذكر يوما طلب من أبي ما

في عمرة و متعة بالصحة و العافية. لن انهي تعبيري من غير ذكر الحادثة الذي انقذ فيها والدي حياتي من موتا

المثالي أطال

محتم. عندما كنت في الخامسة ذهبت أنا و

عائلتي إلى مجمع فتح قريبا، إلتقينا بعمي محمد و عائلتة. لدى عمي ولد يكبرني

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الله

مثالي أطال

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Everyone has a hero that s/he admires. My hero is an idol that really I respect him faithfully. Nothing can describe the love that girls have for their fathers. For me my father is my super hero. He is my idol that I want to grow like him follow his steps of upbringing because he provides me with everything that I need. In addition, he strives to gain halal money and struggles to please us with anything that my siblings and I like.

My family consists of five members, my parents and my three siblings. All of my siblings believe that my father is a hero. When I was young he saved me from a fatal accident. The story is that I was in the mall with my family. I met my cousin, and I was playing with him and copying his moves. He was holding the black belt of the escalator. I saw what he did and I thought that would be fun. Unfortunately, I personally remember when I did it, the belt took me up on the other side. I almost fell down from five-meter high, but my father came very quickly and holds my hands. Moreover, when I was studying in the high school, the system of the Ministry of Education was changed. The new system was very difficult, because the teachers of the public school were not adequate for teaching their students according to the new system. I asked my father to transfer me from the free public school to the private school. Immediately, he paid the fees of tuition and I commenced studying in the one of the best private school in my city.

To sum up, no word that describes my passion and feelings toward my hero ‘father’.

Why did you choose to come to Illinois State University?

Choosing a certain university is a hard decision that all students have to take make and think about carefully. We as students struggle to find a good university that can present us. Each one of us has a personal interest in the university that he/she wants to join. Searching about appropriate universities need a lot of time and effort since many universities open their doors to appeal and attract the prospective students who look for admissions. Therefore, I have researched
in many U.S universities for several months until I found Illinois State University (ISU) which aligns with my interests in pursuing my academic career.

The first interest of mine about ISU is its high ranking. ISU gets the rank number 159 among the national universities in 2017 according to usnews.com. It provides several undergraduate and graduate courses which are diverse and rich with knowledge. Moreover, the faculty and the students are national and international that strengthens the education environment.

The second interest of mine is the location of ISU. Many of other universities located in a very big city. Personally, I think that the small cities provide a better atmosphere for studying than the big cities do. In addition, you can find whatever you need in Bloomington/Normal. One of the things that makes me love the city is the transportation. The entire city is connected by the bus that can take you to the camps or to the central areas of the city.

To sum up, I am so eager to get an admission in the graduate school at ISU in the near future.

Appendix B
Evaluation Questions

1-Did the students appropriately respond to the prompt or did they deviate from it?
2-Did the students organize their ideas well? And how logical was the progression of these ideas?
3-Were the structures sophisticated and accurate?
4-Did the students choose suitable vocabulary to express their ideas?
5-Did the students use accurate punctuation, spelling and other writing considerations?
6-Did the students use accurate paragraphing.
7-Did the students use classical or standard Arabic? Or did they use colloquial Arabic?

The scorer used the following Warriner's (1986, p.438) guidelines in correcting the English composition prompts.

1-Did the paragraph have a topic sentence that clearly states the paragraph's main idea and arouses the reader's interest?
2-Were the structures, vocabularies, punctuation and spelling accurate?
3-Did the supporting sentences develop the paragraph's main idea with sufficient detail?
4-Would the paragraph be improved by adding a clincher, or concluding sentence that restates the main idea, summarizes specific details, or suggests a course of action?
5-Did every sentence in the paragraph directly relate to the main idea? Have all sentences that destroy the paragraph' unity been eliminated?
6-Were the ideas in the paragraphs arranged logically according to a definite plan?
7-Did the paragraph contain pronouns and transitional expressions that link ideas clearly to one another and make the paragraphs easy to follow?
Using Task-Based Learning with Students of Academic English

Chorthip Viriya
Language Institute, Thammasat University, Thailand

Abstract
The purposes of this study were to study the effects of using task-based learning (TBL) to teach English for Academic Purposes (EAP) students and to explore their opinions towards TBL at Thammasat University. Forty students were chosen via purposely selected sampling. The research instruments included a reading and writing pretest-posttest, a speaking pretest-posttest, and a questionnaire. The questionnaire was divided into three parts: the students’ demographic information, the students’ opinions about Pre-Task, During Task or Task Cycle, and Post-Task, as well as their additional opinions and suggestions of TBL. The data was statistically analyzed by mean, standard deviation, and t-test for dependent samples. The results of this study indicated that the reading-writing and speaking abilities of EAP students through TBL after the experiment were significantly higher at the .05 level. Similarly, they were highly satisfied to study with TBL.

Keywords: English language teaching, language teaching approach, task-based learning, teaching English as a foreign language

Introduction

A Chapter in the Educational Reform Act states that Thai learners should have global literacy (Prapphal, 2003). In addition, university graduates should be able to exchange knowledge, have interactive networking, and collaborate in international research projects. In fact, the stakeholders expect university graduates to have communication skills in English and Thai. Therefore, learning and teaching English is important for both educational and career purposes.

However, there are many problems caused by the quantity and quality of English language teachers in both public and private institutions in Thailand. Biyaem (1997) has reported that not only the teachers but also the learners faced many problems, which is still true even today. The students have difficulties in using English because of a lack of opportunity to use English in their daily lives, unchallenging English lessons, being passive learners, and a lack of responsibility for their own learning.

In addition, Noom-ura (2013, citing Wiriyachitra, 2002) has stated that problems involving students who wished to speak English fluently are challenging interference from Thai language, lack of opportunity to speak English with classmates, being poorly-motivated and lack of responsibility for their own learning.

Moreover, Prapphal (2003) has suggested that teachers should choose appropriate tasks for students to enhance their students' general proficiency as well as achieve the desired goals and objectives. Tasks and activities must be designed to expose the students to the target language and increase their motivation to learn the language in class and acquire the language outside of class. Furthermore, Wongsothorn, Hiranburana, and Chinnawongs (2002) have predicted that English language classrooms of the future would be less teacher-fronted. Greater emphasis would be on cooperative learning, productive skills, and English communicative skills.

In order to increase the student’s general proficiency and achieve the desired goals and objectives of English language learning, task-based language learning or teaching should be utilized since it has strengthened the following six principles and practices: 1) a needs-based approach to content selection, 2) an emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language, 3) the introduction of authentic texts into the learning situation, 4) the provision of opportunities for learners to focus, not only on language, but also on the learning process itself, 5) an enhancement of the learners’ own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning, and 6) the linking of classroom language learning with language use outside the classroom (Nunan, 2006).

Literature Reviews

Task-Based Language Teaching

One of the most important things about the task-based language teaching is that it promotes learners’ confidence by providing them with plenty of opportunities to use English in the classroom without being constantly afraid of making mistakes (Willis & Willis, 2011). TBL can also be used not only to teach reading and to provide valuable writing practice but also to teach the spoken language through working in pairs or groups which give learners more opportunities to use the language themselves.
Various TBL designs have been proposed (e.g. Estaire & Zanon, 1994; Lee 2000; Prabhu, 1987; Skehan, 1996; Willis, 1996 as cited in Ellis, 2006). However, they all have three principal phases in common: Pre-task, During task or Task cycle, and Post-task. The first phase, ‘Pre-Task’, concerns the different activities that teachers and students can tackle before they start the task, such as the purposes and the expected outcomes of the task, with or without time restriction. The second phase, the ‘During Task’, focuses on when and how the task must be completed, involves timing and grouping, and provides different instructional choices as necessary. The final phase, ‘Post-Task’ involves language analysis and reflection on the task performance.

In addition, the TBL teacher has different roles: leader and organizer of discussion, manager of group/pair work, facilitator, motivator, language “knower” and advisor, and language teacher.

Similarly, TBL learners have various roles: the writer/secretary/reporter for a pair or group, language consultant, leader/chairperson to make sure that everyone in the group has a chance to talk, spokesperson, and an observer.

Willis and Willis (2011) suggest seven types of tasks, confirming this concept by gathering ideas from teachers in Malaysia, working at different levels in schools and colleges: 1) listing: brainstorming and/or fact finding, 2) ordering and sorting: sequencing, ranking, classifying, 3) matching, 4) comparing: finding similarities or differences, 5) problem-solving: logic puzzles, real-life problems, case studies, incomplete text, 6) projects and creative tasks, and 7) sharing personal experiences; storytelling, anecdotes, reminiscences, opinions, and reactions.

Also, TBL is of particular relevance as language is used for a genuine purpose, meaning that real communication should take place. Furthermore, learners are forced to consider language forms in general rather than to focus on a single structure. Another way in which TBL is more relevant to learners is that the aim of TBL is to integrate all four skills and move from fluency to accuracy plus fluency.

In Thammasat University, EAP students are generally low-proficient in all skills since most of them received a C or D grade in their foundation courses. In addition, they have low motivation to learn English and their participation in class is quite low. After considering the problems and reviewing the literature to find ways to enhance teaching and learning English as well as the students’ motivation to learn English, the researcher found that the task-based approach is a promising approach in enhancing English skills of EAP students at Thammasat University. A three-step teaching process of TBL, Pre-task activities, During-task, and Post-task activities, including seven types of tasks, were chosen to investigate whether the problems of EAP students in the four skills of English could be solved with TBL or whether TBL could enhance their motivation to learn English and increase their cooperative learning in class.

Previous Studies on Task-based Language Teaching

Numerous studies have found that task-based language teaching has a positive influence on language development and learners’ attitude toward language learning. For example, a large number of studies on task-based learning have been conducted from different English skills such as English language communicative ability (Rattanawong, 2004; Sittichai, Thummapon, & Churngchow, 2005), Vadhamara, 1996), listening and speaking ability (Ruenyoot, 2011; Sae-Ong,
2010; Wichitpaisan, 2005), reading ability (Thaneepakorn, 2003), and writing ability (Ruengrat, 2006).

**Research Objectives**

The objectives of the study are to study the effects of using task-based learning to teach EAP students at Thammasat University and to explore the students’ opinions about task-based learning.

**Methodology**

**Participants**

The participants were 40 students from two classes that were taught by the researcher. These undergraduate students enrolled in EAP as an elective course at the Language Institute, Thammasat University. The course aimed to equip students with four skills: listening, speaking, reading and writing used for advanced studies and future careers. All students passed the prerequisite foundation course before taking this course. The majority of them were second-year students from the Faculty of Science and Technology, majoring in material sciences and physics electronics.

**Research Design and Instruments**

This research is an experimental study with one group pretest and posttest. The instruments used included a reading and writing pretest-posttest, a speaking pretest-posttest, an opinion questionnaire, and the lesson plans for 12 weeks. The validity was ensured by 1) the lessons were planned along with the course textbook- *Tech Talk Intermediate* (Hollett & Sydes, 2013) and 2) all research tools were checked for the content validity by a native speaker and ELT experts through appropriate Item Objective Congruence (IOC) indices.

**Data Collection Procedure**

Before the study started, all research instruments were developed, validated, piloted, and revised and ethical concerns were considered throughout the procedure. Following this, the reading and writing pretest and the speaking pretest were administered. In Week one, the researcher introduced TBL to the students to raise their awareness of using ONLY English in all communicative tasks and its benefits and helped them understand the different roles of students when conducting task-based activities. During the study, the researcher incorporated three different stages of performing tasks: Pre-Task, During Task, and Post-Task, as well as seven types of tasks and then checked and evaluated by observing the students while performing tasks and then asked the students to give opinions towards task-based learning at the end of each task-related lesson. In the last week, the researcher administered the reading and writing and speaking posttests and the questionnaire. Having gathered all research instruments, the researcher analyzed and interpreted data from the pretests, posttests, and questionnaire responses.

**Data Analysis**

The mean, standard deviation, and t-test for dependent samples were used to analyze the reading and writing tests and the speaking tests, while the questionnaire was analyzed by mean
and standard deviation. Finally, content-analysis and frequency-count were used to analyze the student open-ended opinions, suggestions, problems, and solutions to TBL English learning.

**Results**

Table 1  *Students’ average reading and writing pretest and posttest (Total score: 30)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std .Deviation</th>
<th>Std .Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>10.71</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>4.642</td>
<td>.734</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>23.19</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.502</td>
<td>.554</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the average scores of the reading and writing pretest and posttest of the students who studied the EAP course with TBL. A significant difference was found from the average score of 10.71 in the pretest to 23.19 in the posttest. The paired sample t-test in Table 2 confirms the significant level.

Table 2  *Paired sample t-test reading and writing pretest and posttest*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Difference</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig (2 tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Pretest-Posttest</td>
<td>-12.48</td>
<td>4.359</td>
<td>.689</td>
<td>-13.87</td>
<td>-11.08</td>
<td>-18.10</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(p<0.05)*

A similar result was found with the speaking pretest and posttest as shown in Table 3 and Table 4. The speaking test results show a significant level at 0.05 from the paired sample t-test.

Table 3  *Student’ average speaking pretest and posttest (Total score: 132)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair 1</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std .Deviation</th>
<th>Std .Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>81.40</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>21.861</td>
<td>3.456</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>98.38</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>19.278</td>
<td>3.048</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4  *Paired sample t-test speaking pretest and posttest*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Difference</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
<th>Lower</th>
<th>Upper</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig (2 tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1 Pretest-Posttest</td>
<td>-16.98</td>
<td>22.646</td>
<td>3.581</td>
<td>-24.22</td>
<td>-9.73</td>
<td>-4.741</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>.000*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(p<0.05)*

For the questionnaire results, the students’ opinions about Pre-task, During-Task and Post-Task are shown as follows:
Regarding student’s opinions about Pre-task, the students’ average mean score of 4.20 shows a high level of agreement with the approach. Before performing a task, they thought that the teacher should inform the purposes of a task (mean score = 4.53), should demonstrate how to do a task (mean = 4.42), and should arrange groups (mean = 3.47). In addition, they believed that they should share a task equally (mean = 4.45) and they liked to find their group members (mean = 4.13).

Concerning the students’ opinions about During Task or Task Cycle, the students’ average mean score of 3.88 shows that they agreed with the approach at a high level. They agreed that while performing a task, better students helped weaker students (mean = 4.26), students collaborated more (mean = 4.18), they were thinking of how to communicate rather than thinking of accuracy (mean = 4.13), they had more fun studying (mean = 4.11) and they were determined to complete the task (mean = 4.08). However, the students moderately agreed that they needed more time to complete the task (mean = 3.66), they used more Thai to complete the task (mean = 3.53), and they were worried that they didn’t study the same way as their peers in other different classes (mean = 3.47). The lowest rank with the moderate agreement was that they could complete the task without the teacher’s demonstration (mean = 2.84).

With respect to the students’ opinions about Post-Task, the average mean score of the students’ opinions regarding the Post task was also at a high level of agreement (mean = 3.93). The highest ranking item (mean = 4.32) shows that the students were proud to complete the task, followed by more learning of difficult vocabulary and listening skill improvement (mean = 4.29). Besides, they thought that tasks were various and suited the text (mean = 4.26), they had various roles doing a task e.g. a speaker, secretary, language counselor, etc. (mean = 4.18), and they could use their English background knowledge (mean = 4.16). However, the students moderately agreed that they liked doing tasks (mean = 3.45), the tasks were difficult (mean = 3.18), and the teacher gave too many tasks (mean = 3.05). The lowest ranking shows that they didn’t like to work alone (mean = 2.92).

When the average scores of the three stages were calculated to see the overall picture, it was found that the students’ opinion averaged at 4.00, a high level of agreement with TBL approach (see Table 5).

Table 5  Overall average score from three stages of TBL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TBL stages</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th>Level of agreement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-task</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During task</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.73</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-task</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.71</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall average score</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

According to the findings, TBL, implemented during the 12-week elective ESP course, positively affected students’ English skills and attitudes with increases in motivation, confidence in using English, and willingness to use English. The results of TBL in this study agreed with several research studies that found TBL could improve English language communicative ability (Rattanawong, 2004; Sittichai, Thummapon, &Churngechow, 2005), Vadhamara, 1996), listening
and speaking ability (Ruenyoot, 2011; Sae-Ong, 2010; Wichitpaisan, 2005), reading ability (Thaneepakorn, 2003), and writing ability (Ruengrat, 2006). Positive attitudes regarding motivation, confidence in using English, and willingness to use English were shown in the students’ open-ended opinions about the advantages of TBL:

“I used English more. I had more courage to use English, and my fright to use English and my dislike of English have been reduced.” (Student #31)

“I did tasks and presentations more. This made students think and speak more. I developed my teamwork skill when I exchanged ideas and experiences.” (Student #5)

“I thought more through integrated teaching and tasks. I learned how to work with others. This was more interesting and I did not feel bored.” (Student #16)

“I was eager to use English more and I developed my listening and speaking Skills.” (Student #28)

Regarding the students’ increased proficiency in English, it was found in this study that the students who studied with TBL performed better in the reading and writing posttest. This is because the students said they had learned many things during the three phases of TBL. For example, before doing a task, the teacher had informed purposes of a task and demonstrated how to perform a task, and the students shared a task equally among their group members.

While performing a task, better students helped weaker students, and they collaborated more. In addition, they were thinking of how to communicate rather than thinking of accuracy, and they were determined to complete the task.

After performing a task, they were, therefore, proud to complete the task, had learned more difficult vocabulary, and could use their English background knowledge.

In addition, when they had problems of TBL lessons and activities such as difficult vocabulary, especially technical terms and grammar, they searched the Internet or website, asked peers, or used a dictionary. Therefore, they learned more vocabulary by looking for more information from various sources.

Through the three stages of TBL lessons, the students improved in various areas: their language proficiency: what they knew and what needed to know, the learning process, how to work with others, and how to solve the problems. These findings accorded with Bygate, Skehan, and Swain, 2001 (as cited in Ellis, 2003, p. 5), ‘a task requires learners to use the language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective.’ The finding also agreed with Willis and Willis (2010, p. 5-6), ‘One of the most important things about task-based teaching (TBT) is that it promotes learners’ confidence by providing them plenty of opportunities to use the language in the classroom without being constantly afraid of making mistakes. The initial aim of TBT is to
encourage learners to engage in meaning with the language resources they already have. TBT can be used to teach reading and to provide valuable writing practice.’

Not only did the students perform better in reading and writing by studying with TBL, but it was found in this study that they also performed better in speaking. This could be the result of the improvements made in the three phases of task-based learning mentioned above.

In addition, the students said studying with TBL enabled them to use English more through tasks, to understand more since they learned from their mistakes, to collaborate in group work, to practice how to think, to take part in class more, to learn to exchange opinions, and to focus on performing the task using their English background and then learn the language later.

These findings agreed with Nunan (1989, cited in Ellis, 2003 p. 4), ‘A communicative task involves learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing, or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form.’

The findings also accorded with Willis and Willis (2011, p. 2-3), ‘Task-based teaching is effective if the teachers have confidence to trust the learners and give them every opportunity to use the language for themselves, so they are aware of what they need to learn. The teachers then give form-focused activities to help them develop the language and later do a repeat task which gives them the opportunity to incorporate some of the language they have learned from the earlier stage.’

The focus on learning results are not satisfactorily only in terms of academic achievement; affection and passion in learning should be factors to consider. Thus, the students’ opinions regarding TBL should be focused upon. It was found in this study that the overall participant opinion towards TBL was at the high level (mean= 4.00). That means the students were satisfied with this approach. The participants also gave several reasons to recommend TBL, for example, they could practice using English more, they learned how to work with others, TBL made them more interested in class, and they had to use their English, so they understood better than they listened to the lecture.

For these reasons, TBL has been shown to be a suitable alternative approach in language teaching and learning due to its large amount of engagement and involvement on the part of the learners as the more learners become engaged, the more language acquisition they experience, and, in turn, their motivation should also increase. Also, their high-level agreement with the approach showed that students were taking more responsibility in their own learning and displayed no resistance to non-lecture approaches in teaching.

Conclusion

From this study, forty students showed significant improvement in all four skills and they agreed with all the three stages of the approach at a high level. From the open-ended question, the students stated that TBL was advantageous because they used more English, learned and understood by themselves outside the class when they did homework, had more practice, understood more, and learned how to work with others through TBL. In addition, they recommended TBL be used with other courses because of its many learning benefits.
Pedagogical Implications and Recommendations

From the dual roles as a teacher and the researcher in this study, the researcher would like to recommend that English teachers teaching similar courses write the TBL lesson plans together to gather materials, brainstorm and make decisions on task types and evaluation criteria. While many tasks could be achieved in class, encouragement for autonomous learning should be maximized. This means some tasks such as task-related vocabulary and grammar exercises, listening and reading exercises could be given as homework or learned outside class time.

For further study, a larger number of participants in foundation courses and other ESP courses that focus on business, politics, engineering, nursing, social sciences, and the law should be employed to generalize the findings. Interviews or classroom observation could possibly help gain more details of the students’ real needs, collaboration, quantity and quality of English use, etc. to counteract or support TBL.

About the Author

Chorthip Viriya is an English lecturer/researcher at the Language Institute, Thammasat University, Thailand. Her research interest focuses on task-based learning, task-based learning in English, language teaching tasks, language-teaching approaches, and English language learning and teaching. https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0436-6176

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Metadiscourse Markers in Master Thesis Abstracts of American and Iraqi English Theses

Kawther Abdual Ameer Hussein
College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Iraq

Jinan Ahmed Khalil
College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Iraq

*Nawal Fadhil Abbas
College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad, Iraq
*Corresponding author

Abstract
The present study is intended to critically examine metadiscourse markers in 24 master thesis abstracts. Twelve of them are written by non-native Iraqi female students and the rest by native American female students. To do so, the researchers have set two aims: examining the types and subtypes of metadiscourse markers in terms of nativity and major and comparing the usages of metadiscourse markers’ types and subtypes in terms of nativity. To achieve the present aims, Hyland’s model (2005) is adopted. It aids in classifying the types and subtypes of metadiscourse markers in both data. The findings show that the Iraqi and American researchers use the interactive resources more than the interactional ones but the American researchers are capable of engaging their readers since their use of the interactional markers is higher than their counterparts. The field has no effect on the use of metadiscourse markers. There is diversity in the usage of the interactive resources in Iraqi data. Accordingly, the researchers recommend metadiscourse markers to be added to M.A courses as part of abstract writing exercise and the instructors of fourth-year college students to include metadiscourse markers in the writing of their research papers for coherence and clarity.

keywords: interactional resources, interactive resources, metadiscourse markers, the reader, the text, the writer

1. Introduction

Harris (1959) is the first scholar to coin the term ‘metadiscourse’ which was new to discourse analysis. Hyland (2005) states that “[m]etadiscourse is a widely used term in current discourse analysis and language education, referring to an interesting, and relatively new, approach to conceptualising interactions between text producers and their texts and between text producers and users” (p.1).

Metadiscourse markers consist of two types: verbal and non-verbal. The first kind is concerned with words (Hornby, 2010), which is the main concern of the current study. It involves using words as markers. The second kind, non-verbal, does not involve “words or speech” (ibid., p.1037). It refers to different types of “visual metadiscourse markers” (Kumpf, 2000, p.401; Saadi and Roosta, 2014, p.299), which are used in writing such as the font size, the type of font …etc. or used in speech as indicated by Craig (2008) such as: intonation, stress, voice quality…etc.

The term ‘metadiscourse markers’ is developed by a number of linguists such as Vande Kopple (1985); Crismore, Markknen and Steffensen (1993); who provide more classifications of the term by dividing it into major and minor types. However, the classification includes many overlaps in its subtypes because of the few categories they offer.

Hyland (2005) makes use of the previous models in generating his own. There are no gaps or overlaps in his model, as the previous ones, because it consists of ten subcategories. The subtypes of this model do not have overlaps in regard to the functions of metadiscourse markers. Zarei and Mansoori (2011) indicated that Hyland’s model is designed specifically for academic writing. For these reasons, the researchers of this study have chosen it.

2. What are Metadiscourse Markers

Different linguists offer various definitions of the term. Crismore et al. (1993) define metadiscourse markers as “a linguistic material in texts, written or spoken, which does not add anything to the propositional content, but that is intended to help the listener or reader organize, interpret, and evaluate the information given” (p.40).

The researchers do not totally agree with this belief because if one says that metadiscourse markers do not add anything to the propositional content of the text, then this means that their existence is optional but they are not. One can say they add a very slight meaning that can direct and engage both the reader and the writer in a text.

Crismore (1983) presents metadiscourse markers as “the author's intrusion into the discourse, either explicitly or non-explicitly, to direct the reader rather than inform” (p.2). She neglects that the writer while writing should take into consideration the readers’ requirements. The readers, in her definition, are viewed as the ones who just read what has been written. Such markers have not only the function of directing and organising. Their main role is represented by engaging writers and readers in a text.

Hempel and Degand (2008) elaborate that metadiscourse “concerns the understanding of the ideational meaning and serves to organize the discourse by structuring the propositional
content, by introducing sequences or by referring to the source of the propositional material” (p.679). In their definition, they partly define metadiscourse markers because they are concerned with just how metadiscourse markers are used to organise a text and this can be achieved by using the interactive markers only.

For Craig (2008), “meta-discourse ranges along a continuum from the relatively blatant verbal framing moves . . . to relatively unconscious cues (such as a slightly noticeable word choice, vocal emphasis, or facial expression) in which meta-discourse may be hardly distinguishable from first-level discourse” (p.3108).

In the above definition, Craig includes the two types of metadiscourse markers that are the verbal and non-verbal markers.

3. Taxonomies
There are several taxonomies emerge with the aim to classify metadiscourse markers, most of them start from Halliday’s notion (1973) of language who point out that when a person uses a language s/he is going to achieve three functions: the ideational function which refers to the information that one has; the textual function which makes plain the way a certain person is going to organize her/his proposition; and the interpersonal function which shows the interaction that will take place between the producer and the audience through the understanding of what is being said or written.

Some linguists depend on the last two functions in their classification of metadiscourse markers since such markers play a role in organizing the text and engaging the audience. For example, Williams (1981) categorizes them into three groups: hedges and emphatics; sequencers and topicalizers; and attributors and narrators. The first class shows certainty and uncertainty which can be regarded as interpersonal function according to Halliday. The second class of markers helps in directing the readers, while the third class, which tells readers about the source of the information is known as the ‘textual function’ according to Hallidayan taxonomy.

Vande Kopple (1985), who adopts Hallidayan terms totally, categorizes metadiscourse markers into two major types: textual and interpersonal. The subtypes under textual are text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers, and narrators while the interpersonal comprise validity markers, attitude markers, and commentaries. So this taxonomy is more developed than that of William’s but still one can find many overlaps in its subtypes because of its limited sorts.

While Crismore et al. (1993) adopt the same major types of Vande Kopple (1985) but they adapt the subtypes either by adding or deleting classes. They further divide the textual into textual and interpretive in order to separate the organization function (textual) from evaluative function (interpretive) which helps readers to understand the writer’s point of view by offering a further explanation and clarification. So, both of them are used in organizing the text in order to be coherent for the audience. Hyland (2005) argues that there is no need for such a division and merges them under one term which is ‘textual’. Crismore et al. (1993)
include the subtypes: logical connective, sequencers, reminders, topicalizers under textual and the subtypes: code glosses, illocution markers, announcements under the interpretive. While under the major type, interpersonal, comes hedges, certainty markers, attributors, attitude markers, and commentary.

Thompson and Thetela (1995) and Thompson (2001), have influenced the way Hyland shapes his model in 2005. Both of these models are concerned with the major types of metadiscourse markers. The first one, Thompson and Thetela (1995), use the term writer-in-text to denote the textual resources and reader-in-text for interpersonal resources. By writer-in-text, they mean the interaction between the writer and the information that s/he is organizing. While the second term, reader-in-text, they indicate that the writer should take into consideration her/his imagined readers while organizing her/his text. Both of these terms work together and are separated only for the sake of clarity in this paragraph. Thompson (2001) classifies the major categories into interactive markers (textual) and interactional markers (interpersonal) which are later included in Hyland’s model (2005).

4-Hyland’s model (2005)
The researchers of the present study have adopted Hyland's model (2005). The reason behind this is that this model is designed specifically for academic writing as stated by Zarei and Mansoori (2011) when they describe it as “a model of metadiscourse in academic texts” (p.45). In addition to this, the model includes previous models as stated by Hyland (2005). This means that it overcomes the gaps and overlaps in them. The following table clarifies Hyland’s model with all its major and minor types.

Table (4.1): Hyland’s model of Metadiscourse Markers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Markers</th>
<th>Function</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interactive Markers</td>
<td>To express relation between main clauses.</td>
<td>Therefore, and, but, thus … etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitions</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frame markers</td>
<td>To limit and frame the proposition content.</td>
<td>My purpose is, first,…etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endophoric markers</td>
<td>To direct readers to information in other parts of the text.</td>
<td>As noted earlier, see figure1,…etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidentials</td>
<td>To direct readers to information outside the text.</td>
<td>X (2005) states, According to Z,…etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code glosses</td>
<td>To expand the propositional meaning.</td>
<td>In other words, such as, is defined as,…etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interactional Markers</td>
<td>To withhold writers’ commitment to the proposition</td>
<td>Might, perhaps, possible,…etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5- Data collection and Analysis
The researchers have selected 24 abstracts divided into 12 abstracts written by non-native Iraqi female students and the other 12 abstracts written by native American female students. The twelve abstracts likewise were divided into six abstracts taken from the linguistic field (representing different genres, namely pragmatics and semantics) and six abstracts from the literature field (also representing different genres, namely, poetry and novel). The abstracts in each discipline are selected in an arbitrary way but with a focus on years only to ensure the fairness of the comparison between native and non-native data for which the researchers did the same. The scope of the years was from 2005 till 2015. The researchers restrict themselves with this scope because writing changes over time. This means new forms of metadiscourse markers may start to be employed, specifically when one knows that metadiscourse markers are an open category.

5.1. The Analysis
The researchers classify and discuss metadiscourse markers’ types and subtypes in terms of nativity and major. The researchers start with the literary and linguistic fields of Iraqi data then with the American ones. The study shows the frequency of occurrence of metadiscourse markers’ subtypes in each field by counting them manually. Their percentage is calculated according to the following equation:

\[
\text{The score number of the sub-type} \quad \times 100
\]

\[
\text{The total number of the major type}
\]

After that, the study lists and pinpoints the similarities and the differences in the use of metadiscourse markers’ types, subtypes and sub-subtypes in terms of nativity. The researchers manually count the markers and put the numbers which show the frequency of their use between two parentheses immediately after the marker.

The following table (5.1) classifies the types and subtypes of metadiscourse markers used in the linguistic and literary Iraqi data:

| Table (5.1): Types and subtypes of metadiscourse markers used in the linguistic and literary Iraqi data |
|---------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
| **Linguistics** | **Score Number** | **Percentage** | **literature** | **Score Number** | **Percentage** |
| Boosters | To emphasize certainty | It is a fact that, certainly,…etc. |
| Attitude markers | To express writers’ attitude | Fortunately,surprising,…etc. |
| Self-mentions | To explicitly refer to writers | I, me, my,…etc. |
| Engagement markers | To explicitly involve readers | You can see that, note that,…etc. |
The above table shows that the Iraqi students use interactive markers more than interactional ones in the linguistic field. They exploit all of the interactive resources’ sub-types. More specifically, they frequently use transitions and frame markers, then come the other sub-categories: endophorics, code glosses and evidentials. Iraqi researchers use only two sub-types of the major type, interactional markers; they have low frequencies as the table above indicates.

In the literary field, the Iraqi students employ all the sub-types of interactive and interactional resources as the table above shows.

The following table (5.2) categorizes the types and subtypes metadiscourse markers as used in the linguistic and literary field of American data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Score Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th></th>
<th>Score Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Linguistics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Interactive Markers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitions</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>87.25</td>
<td>Transitions</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>80.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frame markers</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.82</td>
<td>Frame markers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endophoric markers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.76</td>
<td>Endophoric markers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table (5.2): Types and subtypes metadiscourse markers as used in the linguistic and literary field of American data:**

The above table shows that the Iraqi students use interactive markers more than interactional ones in the linguistic field. They exploit all of the interactive resources’ sub-types. More specifically, they frequently use transitions and frame markers, then come the other sub-categories: endophorics, code glosses and evidentials. Iraqi researchers use only two sub-types of the major type, interactional markers; they have low frequencies as the table above indicates.

In the literary field, the Iraqi students employ all the sub-types of interactive and interactional resources as the table above shows.

The following table (5.2) categorizes the types and subtypes metadiscourse markers as used in the linguistic and literary field of American data:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Score Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th></th>
<th>Score Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Linguistics</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Interactive Markers</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transitions</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>87.25</td>
<td>Transitions</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>80.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frame markers</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>8.82</td>
<td>Frame markers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endophoric markers</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.76</td>
<td>Endophoric markers</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.76</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The native American students, in the linguistic field, use three subtypes of interactive markers which are transitions, frame markers and code glosses. They employ four subcategories of interactional ones, namely, hedges, boosters, self mentions and attitude markers. The literary field indicates that the native American students frequently exploit transitions, frame markers, code glosses and evidentials of the interactive markers. They use only three subtypes of interactional resources, namely, engagement markers, hedges and self mentions.

The following tables list the points of the similarities and the differences in the use of types and subtypes of metadiscourse markers in terms of nativity:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Evidentials</th>
<th>Evidentials</th>
<th>Code glosses</th>
<th>Code glosses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.92</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>102</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interactional Markers</th>
<th>Interactional Markers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hedges</td>
<td>Hedges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>62.5</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Boosters</th>
<th>Attitude markers</th>
<th>Self-mentions</th>
<th>Engagement Markers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total Number</th>
<th>Total Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table (5.3): Transitions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Native Transitions</th>
<th>Non-native Transitions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Additive markers: and (59), also (13), as well as (3), or (20), whether or (1)</td>
<td>Additive markers: and (115), also (23), as well as (3); besides (2), furthermore (2), moreover (1), further (10), in addition (1), either or (3), whether or (2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consequent markers: Thus (1), so (2)</td>
<td>Consequent markers: Thus (4), accordingly (3), hence (4), therefore (1), so (2).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Causative markers: because (3), in order to (6),</td>
<td>Causative markers: because (8), in order to (4), that’s why (2), since (3), due to (9).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrastive markers: conversely (1), by contrast (1), despite (1), otherwise (1), while (6), however (3), but (4), although (2).</td>
<td>Contrastive markers: otherwise (1), while (2), however (1), but (9), although (2), though (1), on the other hand (1).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the above table, both of the Iraqi and native American students use ‘and’ with high frequency. This is due to the importance of that marker in organizing, stating and creating semantic and syntactic connections. There are certain markers, as the table shows, which are exploited by Iraqi students only. This result can be attributed to the desire of Iraqi students to be tautologies. They divide their abstracts into more than one paragraph unlike the native American who are in most of the cases write their abstract as one paragraph.

The native American students use only two markers from consequent and causative markers while their counterparts, in addition to these markers, employ other markers as the table indicates. Iraqi students in their abstract try to direct and guide their readers to extra details about their theses. The native American in many cases gives just headlines about what their theses will be about. Both use the contrastive and comparative markers with slight differences as indicated above. The Iraqi and native American students tend to show the uniqueness of their study required to compare and contrast theirs with others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Frame Markers</th>
<th>Frame Markers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Label stages</strong></td>
<td><strong>Label stages</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>primarily (1), mainly (1), eventually (1), at this point (1)</td>
<td>primarily (3), eventually (1), ultimately (1), finally (4), in this case (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Limit text boundaries</strong></td>
<td><strong>Limit text boundaries</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>especially (1), only (1), today (1), specifically (1)</td>
<td>especially (7), specifically (3), only (6), nowadays (1), now (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Denote sequences</strong></td>
<td><strong>Denote sequences</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>first (1), then (1), before (1)</td>
<td>first (3), then (3), before (1), second (3), third (1), fourth (1), after (1), after that (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Announce goals</strong></td>
<td><strong>Announce goals</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>an additional objective of this study was..., The purpose of this study was...</td>
<td>the objective of this study is..., the aim of the study is (3)..., the main purpose of this study is..., the aim of this thesis is... (8)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Delineate a text</strong></td>
<td><strong>Delineate a text</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this thesis focuses particularly on..., my thesis seeks to..., This study identifies and focuses on...,</td>
<td>the conclusion sums up..., this study pins down..., this thesis exposes..., This study seeks to..., It is hypothesized that..., The present study investigates..., This study is carried out to give..., The present thesis falls into..., The most general conclusions are..., This study attempts to..., This study undertakes..., The study highlights..., Section one deals...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Iraqi and native American students make use of frame markers to label stages as first or final stage in the discussion of the aspects of their theses with slight differences. For example, the use of ‘at this point’ in native American data and the use of ‘in this case’ in Iraqi data is to direct their readers to a specific stage in their argument.
The Iraqi and American students also limit the boundaries of their text to certain points, events, concepts …etc. through the use of markers such as ‘especially’, ‘only’, ‘specifically’, but ‘today’ is used only in native American data and ‘nowadays’ and ‘now’ only in Iraqi data.

There is an overuse of the markers that show sequence, announce goals and delineate a text in the Iraqi data. Iraqi students state the objectives and some details of their theses in sequence which requires the use of such markers. Native American students tend to be precise and avoid details which justify the low frequency of occurrence of these types of frame markers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table (5.5): Code Gloses</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Native</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Code glosses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In other words (1), such as (3), namely (1), which is called (1),</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is diversity in the use of code glosses in Iraqi data to elaborate, expand and exemplify or to illustrate facts in other ways. In addition to what has been used in native American data, there are other markers such as ‘in terms of’, ‘like’, ‘for instance’ and they also use verbs to offer further clarifications such as ‘defined’ and ‘means’ with the exception of ‘which is called’ that is used in native American data only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table (5.6): Endophoric Markers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Native</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Endophoric markers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No use of any of these markers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A noticeable result in native American data is that there is no use of any of endophoric markers while there are different uses of them in the Iraqi data. Iraqi students purvey in their abstract what each chapter in their theses will be about unlike their counterparts who avoid such details trying to increase their readers' curiosity to read more.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table (5.7): Evidentials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Native</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evidentials</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(name of scholar, year) 1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Evidentials are represented by mentioning the name of the scholar followed by year and sometime the page number. In the Iraqi and native American data, ‘evidentials’ are used to direct readers to sources such as scholars’ books outside the text to ensure the reliability of their arguments and to direct readers for more information.
Hyland (2005) states that this sub-type is used to guide readers to reliable sources other than a text and aid a writer to support her/his argument. This technique is used once in American data. The low frequency of the occurrence of this marker in the American data is represented by the nature of abstracts that should be written in most of cases with students’ words. Most of the Iraqi students do not know or follow this rule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Table (5.8): Self-Mentions</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-mentions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>My (6), I (6)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of the possessive adjective ‘my’ and the first personal pronoun ‘I’, instead of using words such as the ‘writer’s thesis’ or ‘the researcher’, explicitly reflect the researcher personally. This sends a message to readers that what follows these pronouns will distinguish the researcher’s work from that of others. Hyland (2005) argues that self mentions refer “to the degree of explicit author presence in the text measured by the frequency of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives” (p.53).

The above table indicates a very low frequency in the occurrence of self-mentions in the Iraqi data. This could be justified due to the fact that these markers are regarded as forbidden in the Iraqi abstracts, in spite of their importance in distinguishing a researcher’s work from that of others and creating solidarity with readers.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Table (5.9): Attitude Markers</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Attitude markers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Essentially (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Attitude markers are used only once in each data as in the above table. The ‘attitude markers’ are represented by ‘unfortunately’ and ‘essentially’ which for the first investigation indicates how the writers are keen to build a relationship with readers to the extent that they show their emotion. The researchers in their reaction towards the proposition do not only show their attitudes but they express them from the readers’ perspective so they can experience the same emotions. These markers are followed by logical facts which are difficult to dispute about. This gives a reason for their low frequency. This can be supported by Hyland (2005) also who argues that “[b]y signalling an assumption of shared attitudes, values and reactions to material, writers both express a position and suck readers into a conspiracy of agreement so that it can often be difficult to dispute such judgements” (pp.149-150)

Martin and White (2005) state that when writers exploit ‘attitude markers’, they do not only intend to show their feelings towards the proposition but also “… invite others to endorse and to share with them the feelings, tastes or normative assessments they are announcing. Thus declarations of attitude are dialogically directed towards aligning the addressee into a community of shared value and belief”( p.95).
Table (4.10): *Hedges*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Native</th>
<th>Non-native</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Hedges</td>
<td>Hedges</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Often (5), sometimes (1), sort of (1), seemingly (1), possible (1), could be (2), might (3), may be (2)</td>
<td>Often (2), sometimes (1), about (1), almost (1), presumably (1), kind of (2), somehow (3), could be (3), might (4), may be (4)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hedges are used equally in both data with some differences in the use of markers. For example, the native American students use ‘sort of’, ‘seemingly’, ‘possible while the Iraqi use ‘about’, ‘almost’, ‘presumably’, ‘kind of’, ‘somehow’. The other markers are found in both data.

The existence of these markers in both data shows respect to the readers’ alternative point of views. The researchers of both data reveal their uncertainty and release their responsibility about what follows which will avoid forcing certain opinion on their readers. That is why some scholars such as Mauranen (1993) argue that the use of such markers view the writers as being polite since they take their readers’ points of view into consideration. Sehrawat (2014) states “these markers [hedges] perform an important interpersonal function: they allow the writer to avoid absolute statements, which makes the text more polite by giving readers the opportunity to form their own judgments. This involves the reader more deeply in the processing of the text” (P.380).

Table (5.11): *Boosters*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Native</th>
<th>Non-native</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Boosters</td>
<td>Boosters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Should (1), must be (1)</td>
<td>Should (1), never (1), it is not precise to say that (1), clearly (1), indeed (1), in fact (1),</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

“Emphatics [boosters] are used by a writer to persuade readers to ‘believe me’ ” (Crismore, 1983, P.40). The Iraqi students sometimes show certainty and responsibility to what they argue about through the use of boosters unlike the native students who, in most cases, release their commitment to what they discuss. Hyland (2005) states that “[b]oosters suggest that the writer recognizes potentially diverse positions but has chosen to narrow this diversity rather than enlarge it, confronting alternatives with a single, confident voice” (pp.52-53)

Table (5.12): *Engagement Markers*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Native</th>
<th>Non-native</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Engagement markers</td>
<td>Engagement markers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question (1)</td>
<td>Questions (2)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One of the techniques to engage readers is to raise a question without answering it, leaving a space for readers to give their own responses. It is used only once in native data and twice in Iraqi data. The low frequency of this marker could be due to the lack of the sufficient knowledge about its significance in engaging readers. There is no use of any other devices of engagement markers in both data. This can be justified due to the nature of other markers. The writer usually uses the second personal pronoun ‘you’ and the ‘imperatives’ such as ‘note’, ‘consider’, …etc. to engage her/his readers. The use of ‘you’ and ‘imperatives’ in texts other
than books and manual, where a writer has authority, can be regarded as offensive as clarified by Kuo (1999, p.126) “you [emphasis mine] could sound offensive or detached since it separates readers, as a different group, from the writer” and “imperatives are frequently used in textbooks or manuals where a writer would like to sound authoritative.” “[H]owever, imperative you would sound offensive and impair the reader–writer relationship.” (ibid, p.127)

6. Discussion of Results
The results show that the interactive resources are highly used by the Iraqi researchers compared to the interactional ones. More specifically, in the linguistic field, transitions subtype has been used (99) times and the frame markers subtype (40) times, then comes the other markers. As for the interactional markers, hedges have been used (13) times and boosters only (3) times. The other subtypes are neglected. This indicates that the Iraqi researchers are able to organize their information more than engaging their readers.

In the American data, only 3 subcategories of interactives have been used; transitions (89) times, frame markers (9) times and code glosses (4) times. The interactional ones are represented by 4 subtypes that are hedges (15) times, boosters twice, attitude markers only once and self-mentions (6) times.

Concerning the literature field in the Iraqi data, one can notice that the percentages for interactional resources increased slightly. There is the use of hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions and engagement markers while in the interactive ones still the transitions and the frame markers take the first places according to the percentages then comes the other categories. In the American literature data, the transitions and frame markers come first then the code glosses and evidentials. Besides, one can detect that there is a reduction in the use of the interactional resources in this field in comparison with the linguistic one. Hedges and engagement markers are used (only once) and self-mentions (6) times.

7-Conclusion
Concerning the first objective of the study, which is about examining the types and subtypes of metadiscourse markers in terms of nativity and major, the researchers find that the American and Iraqi researchers’ use of interactive markers’ subtypes are nearly high in both fields. When it comes to the interactional markers’ subtypes that are related to readers’ engagement in the text, there are great differences between American and Iraqi data. The total number of American researchers’ use of interactional markers in linguistics is 24 while in Iraqi data is 16. Concerning the literature field, the American researchers use interactional markers only 8 times while their use in the Iraqi data is 17 times. This leads to conclude that the field has no effect on the use of metadiscourse markers. This may be proved through the rise in the percentage of interactional markers when they are used in the Iraqi literary field more than the linguistic field, but when it comes to the American data, the result is completely the opposite. The American researchers use the interactional markers in the linguistic field more than the literary field. This leads us to conclude that the use of metadiscourse markers is something that is highly related to the producers’ understanding and their ability to employ them in a text, i.e., being non-natives.

With regard to the second objective of the study, which is comparing the usages of metadiscourse markers’ types and subtypes in terms of nativity, the researchers find that there
is diversity in the use of metadiscourse markers’ subtypes, specially the interactive resources, in the Iraqi data more than the American ones. This is due to the tendency of Iraqi researchers to give more details about their theses. Logically, this will lead them to use more markers to make their tautology clear. This appears clearly in the use of endophoric markers. One can notice that these markers are used (33) times in the Iraqi data whereas there is no use of them in the American ones. The Iraqi researchers direct their readers to what each chapter in their theses will be about which will ultimately need the use of endophorics. Moreover, the frame markers are used (68) times in Iraqi data while used only (16) times in the American ones. This leads us to conclude that the American tend to be precise and avoid details in their abstracts which will require low variety in the use of metadiscourse markers’ types and subtypes.

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About the Authors:
Nawal Fadhil Abbas got her PhD in English Language and Linguistics in 2014 from Universiti Sains Malaysia and now she is teaching at the College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad. Her fields of interests include but not limited to Pragmatics, Critical Discourse Analysis, Critical Stylistics and Corpus Linguistics.

Jinan Ahmed Khalil is an Assistant Professor and she has been teaching at the University of Baghdad, College of Education for Women since 1997. The fields of interest are Pragmatics, Phonetics, Grammar, and Semantics. She got her B.A. Degree in 1982 and her M.A. in 1988.

Kawther Abdual Amear got her B.A and M.A degrees from the University of Baghdad, College of Education for Women/ Department of English. Her specialty is English Language and Linguistics and her fields of interests include Pragmatics and Discourse Analysis.

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A Training Program in the Framework of Rogers’ Theory of Blended Learning: A Case of Teachers of Information Technology in Oman

Khalid Muslem Al Mashikhi
College of Arts and Applied Sciences
Dhofar University, Salalah, Oman

Sobhy Ahmed Soliman
College of Arts and Applied Sciences
Dhofar University, Salalah, Oman
&
Menoufia University, Egypt

Abstract
This study aimed at designing a training program according to Rogers Theory of Blended Learning for the teachers of Information Technology in Oman and studying its effectiveness. The study sample was composed of 40 primary school teachers of Information Technology working in public schools of Dhofar Governorate of Oman during the academic year 2016/2017. The researchers used the achievement test and observation card as tools of measuring the program effectiveness, study results indicated statistically significant differences with a value of (T) for the difference between the average of dimensional applications of the achievement test and skill performance (51.36-15.45) in Information Technology teachers’ practice, which resulted in a value at statistically significant level of (0.001) and the training program was effective, as the profit rate of black was 1.33-1.41 respectively. It is a statistically significant value as it is more than 1.2. The effect of the training program was high in terms of both cognitive achievements and skills. The study recommended using educational models as one of the self-education techniques in Information Technology Teacher Training programs along with the integration of other training styles which are compatible with it by implication, the study suggested to exploit Roger’s Theory for education technology innovations and designing other models for sustainable educational development.

keywords: Training program, Roger’s Theory, Information Technology, teachers, Blended Learning

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1.1 Introduction

Information technology and communication play an essential role in all aspects of life; this large development is also reflected in the education process as the teachers search for new methods, strategies, techniques and models to face various challenges which confront the education process and help in its improvement to achieve the best results.

Innovations for learning, cooperation, and sharing have appeared as the early experiences and dealing with these innovations have revealed better chances for profound enhancement in the quality of educational skills and its competencies and the extent of suitability. As Sayed (1998) rightly state that only now have we started to realize how the education experiences will develop through the mixed investment of traditional learning techniques and techniques based on modern technology.

With the spread of the e-learning systems, the increase in the numbers of users and recruiting it in educational process, many difficulties have emerged including the absence of a direct social connection between the element of educational process – teachers and students and the management which has adverse effects on the social connection skills of the students. Also, their needs of infrastructure and equipment require a high sum, in addition to the ability of teachers and students of using e-learning technology skills, along with the hardships of using the formative and summative evaluation process and the guarantee of its credibility, especially when the subject involves higher skills.

Given these difficulties the need to for an education system emerged based on exploiting the strengths of e-learning as well as the advantages of traditional learning, what has been termed later the “blended learning”, where e-learning is integrated with conventional class-based knowledge. According to Zaytoun (2005), blended learning is known as the education in which the characteristics of both traditional learning and learning through the Internet are used in one integrated model, using the maximum available techniques for both the processes. Milheim (2006) defines blended learning in terms of using modern technologies in education and teaching without leaving the common educational reality of attending the class room and focusing on direct interaction inside the class room by using modern mechanisms like the Computer and the Internet.

Salama (2006, p.54) claim that blended learning is characterized by low educational expenses in comparison with e-learning. It also provides a face to face connection in addition to enhancing human aspects and social relationships between learners and teachers, flexibility to attend to all issues of individual needs and learning styles of students with differences in their age and levels. It also provides opportunities of for making use of technological progress in design, implementation, usage and the enrichment of human knowledge towards enhancing the quality of education process i.e. the quality of educational product and the competence of teachers. Al Batea & Abdelmawla (2008) are of the view that the blended learning encompasses the advantages of both the traditional learning and e-learning and helps students exploit electronic educational technology in the learning process vis-à-vis the traditional way of learning used by teachers.

Tangible practical reality appears in preparing Information Technology Teachers in the field of Education as most of them are not well developed in recruiting blended learning as it requires
specialization in Information Technology. Hassan (2009) remarks that the colleges and universities either do not have this specialization or it is not ensured that Information Technology teachers are trained to recruit blended learning after their graduation.

Furthermore, as Shawky (2004) argues, practicing blended learning at the present time is at the expense of the serving teacher’s time and rarely comes as a response to the need of the hour and the planning of training programs and their implementation fall upon the efforts and desires of educational leaders and managers; therefore, these programs haven’t achieved desirable success in enhancing the performance of Information Technology teachers. This has resulted in the lack and inadequacy of Information Technology Teachers’ knowledge, skills and competence of exploiting blended learning as a result of which the educational process still circulate in the range of school textbooks, lectures and the interaction between the student and teacher. (Ibrahim, 2000, p.21).

The call for exploiting Rogers Theory to design and develop educational programs and to adopt and recruiting innovations in teaching is not new, as many scientists and researchers in the field of education technology have called for its usage because these innovations also depend on the process of publication in this context (Sayls & Ritchy, 2000, P. 130). The works of Rogers have a significant effect in understanding the phenomenon of publishing innovations and its adoption in addition to a group of social factors and individual regulatory structure the theory has presented which affects the rate of adopting innovations recruitment to be integrated in the process of educational design.

Surve & Farquhar (2002) remarks that studying the theory of publishing and adopting the innovations is necessary for the field of education technology for many reasons, including that many specialists in the field of Information Technology do not realize the reasons behind not adopting innovations and products of education technology. The theory of publishing and adopting innovations helps to understand a number of factors which effect adopting innovations and make the information technology teachers able to clarify, suggest and check the factors that effect or facilitate adopting all new developments relevant to the field of education. In addition, the study of publishing and taking innovation theory may lead to the development of an educational model which may serve as a systemic model for guiding the process of adoption and recruitment rightfully and effectively.

1.2 The problem of statement:
The studies assured the vitality to take care of training education programs from the stage of identifying training needs and caring about the content of training and its methods, its period, the time of convening and following it, the vitality to adopt new theoretical attitudes in designing educational programs for teachers during the service.

Therefore, it is necessary for the teacher of information technology to gain knowledge and information during their service, and performance skills are required in blending e- learning and traditional learning to be able to adopt blended learning in the educational process through the educational program based on Rogers’s theory through answering the following questions:
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1. What are the required skills for blended learning of information technology teachers?
2. What are the training needs required of information technology teachers for recruiting the skills of blended learning?
3. What is the training program set according to Roger’s theory to adopt blended education by information technology teachers?
4. What is the effectiveness of the proposed program in developing the cognitive achievement connected with knowledge and information required to adopt blended learning by information technology teachers?
5. What is the effectiveness of the proposed program in developing blended learning skills of information technology teachers?

1.3 Research limits:
1. Applying the program to a sample of information technology teachers at the primary level schools (first round) in Dhofar Governorate in Oman.
2. The structure of the training program was restricted to the training needs of blended learning skills achieved through e-learning which has some recurrences in identifying the training needs.
3. Caring only about the cognitive side and performance to recruit blended learning skills during the education process.

1.4 Research Items:
The training program: The recent research defines the education program as an organized plan to a number of education and training situations where e-learning and traditional learning are integrated and organized according to Rogers’ theory in the form of a group of minimized educational models, meetings, discussions and scientific statements. It also includes the basics components for the training programs to train the teacher of information technology on the skills of blended learning recruiting it in education through a period or an educational level.

2. Blended Learning: Education combines both characteristics of traditional classroom education, and e-learning in an integrated model, making use of the maximum technology available for both of them. (Milheim, 2006).

3. Roger’s theory: Adopting and publishing innovations: The recent research adopts defining the process of adoption as a type of education types and taking decisions. It is also a mental process, the teachers of education technology pass by from the time they hear about an idea or method, or a new tool (blended learning), till its final adoption in other words the usage and full recruitment of the idea or the new tool (Rogers, 1997, p. 155)

1.5 Hypotheses:
1. There are statistically significant differences to the level of 0.05 in cognitive acquisition connected with the required knowledge to recruit blended learning between the average degrees of pre-and post-test acquisition to the side of the post-test.
2. There are statistically significant differences to the level of 0.05 in the performance connected with the required skills to recruit blended learning between the average degrees of remarks card to the pre-and post-performance to the side of post-performance.
3. The training program makes a high effect (n2>0.14) in knowledge acquisition connected with the required knowledge to adopt recruiting blended learning skills.
4- The training program makes a high effect (n²>0.14) in the level of performance skills required to adopt recruiting blended learning skills.

1.6 Significance:
The importance of the research has several reasons:
1- Organizing a training program for information technology teachers to recruit blended learning skills during their service.
2- Making use of these procedures in recruiting Rogers’ theory to adopt information technology teachers for blended learning during their service.
3- The training program may be useful for those who work on developing the educational program at the concerned faculties by preparing the teachers of information technology, especially concerning the field of blended learning.

2- Literature Review
2.1 Blended learning
Blended learning is the learning accomplished through using various communication methods to teach a specific subject. These methods may include a mixture of direct lecturing in the time of lectures, communicating through the internet and self-learning which mixes traditional learning and its usage and the usage of various educational technologies which gives freedom to the teacher to use communication skills inside the classroom. This was defined by (Khames, 2003, p. 211) as an integrated system that aims at helping the student in every stage of high education level, based on mixing the traditional learning and e-learning in different forms inside the classrooms.

It is also defined by (Ismail, 2009, p.96) as using the mixture of learning methods of collaborative learning, e-learning and traditional classrooms face to face, education management systems, self-learning in learning strategies to get the suitable content in a suitable form for suitable individuals and at suitable times. Synthesis learning includes various presentation methods to complete each other and enhancing the learning of the learned behavior and its application.

Showing these detentions about blended learning makes us conclude that blended learning is a process done by mixing techniques with traditional learning, learning by using the technology in various forms from technological devices, audio-video, communication and internet technology and by using the technology as a supportive technique for traditional teaching.

2.1.1 Mixing traditional education and e-education methods:
Introduce (Zaytoun, 2005, p. 171) presented various available alternatives for the teachers to choose from when using blended learning in teaching; the most dominant alternatives are as follow:
The first alternative: Achieved by educating and learning a specific lesson or more in the subject through classroom educational methods and teaching another lesson or more through e-learning tools, the student would be evaluated finally through traditional evaluation methods, or E-evaluation methods.
The second alternative: Both classroom learning and E-learning mutually share in teaching and learning the lesson; beginning with classroom learning followed by E-learning, then the students would be evaluated finally through traditional evaluation methods or E-evaluation methods.
The third alternative: Similar to the second alternative but it first begins with E-learning followed by classroom learning then the students would be evaluated finally through traditional evaluation methods or E-evaluation methods.

The fourth alternative: Similar to both the second and third alternative, however a rotation between classroom learning and E-learning happens more than one time during the events of the lesson, not just once like what happens in those other alternatives.

Most studies dealt with revealing the effectiveness of E-learning, like the study of (Hong & Ridznan, 2003, P.46) and (Abdo & Soliman, 2008, p. 55), while concerning the studies that used e-learning in developing the scientific performance it is connected with technological skills variable was like developing the skills of designing and producing internet websites, etc. Like the study of (Shiang-Wang, 2006, 597) which aimed at learning the scientific skills in the environment of E-learning.

2.1.2 Success factors of blended learning:

There are several factors which contribute to the blended learning success including the following (Muianga, 2005, p. 658), (Naser, 2010, p. 143)

- **Communication and guidance:** Of the most important factors of the success of blended learning is communication between teacher and student, as the teacher guides the student with the time of learning, draws the steps he should follow to learn and the programs he should use for the best achievement.

- **Collaborative work in the form of teamwork:** In blended learning every member (teacher – student) should be convinced that working with this type of learning needs the interaction of all participants.

- **Encouraging the creative and amazing work:** Caring to encourage the students to self-learning and learning among groups, as the available technological multimedia in blended learning allows that.

- **Flexible choices:** Blended learning enables the students to obtain information, to answer questions, no matter where and when or the preceded learning of the student. Moreover, blended learning should include various choices and flexibility at the same time.

- **Communication then communication then communication:** There should be clarity between the available choices for the concerned subject; there should be a fast communication method and should be available most of the time between teachers and students for guidance under all circumstances.

2.1.3 The advantages of blended learning:

Blended learning has many advantages summarized in the following: (Buket 2006, pp.43), (AL Awad, 2005, p.76)

- Making computers and local and global information networks in reach of the student.
- Enabling learning groups from using multimedia collaborative software, E-mail, hypothetical libraries, and all internet data available.
- Coping with the problem of permanent change in the content of educational subjects, where information and numbers change regularly, which makes blended learning helpful in searching for the information rapidly, and the possibility to use it at any time.
- Making the best use of technology and its database, where blended learning choices are various and it is possible to choose suitable educational technology for the determined lesson to teach.
- The possibility to modify the teaching methods as the chance for changing is available under the light of this type of education.
- Making the use of time, as blended learning technologies shorten time to summon information in a short time.
- Making the student permanently connected with knowledge and its sources.
- Producing various software suitable for our society and culture, especially for our students and downloading these programs to the internal network of the university or to internet to enhance its benefit.

2.2 Rogers’s Theory

2.2.1 Basic factors for Rogers’s theory to publish and adopt innovations

Sees Rogers (1995) that the process of publishing and adopting innovations is based on four main factors, these factors play an important role in the process of publishing and adopting and they are innovation characteristics, communication channels, time and a social educational system.

- **Innovation characteristics:** Innovation may be an idea, practice or a skill realized by a group or an individual who adopt this innovation. The innovation characteristics are realized by the members of the social system like schools – identify the level of adopting this innovation, which was identified (Rogers, 1995, p. 15). In his list are five characteristics: relative advantage, compatibility, complexity, the ability to remark and the ability to experience.

- **Communication channels:** In his theory, Rogers pointed to the substance of adopting innovation recruitment as a process of communication basically. They are preceded by exchanging ideas, information and skills about the innovation between the source and the receiver by using suitable communication channels to achieve a common understanding between them. This leads to adopting the innovation as the source may be an individual or a group of members, or an organization, also the receiver, with no doubt. Adopting the recruitment of innovations is based on the success of the communication process and on convincing the receiver. Also, the success of the communication process is based on using suitable communication channels to achieve the desired goal as communication is a sharing process, a creativity to information between the participating individuals in the communication process is to reach to a mutual understanding (Rogers, 1995, p. 18).

- **Time:** The element of time is considered the third basic element in the process of adopting innovations, as the process of adopting requires enough time to be adopted and to be installed inside the working system. The portion of time is connected with the process of adopting innovations from four sides, the first side is the practical levels to build the innovation, the second side is the categories of innovation adopters, the third side is the role of changing agents and the forth side is the rate of adopting the innovation. All sides connected with the side of time will be discussed.
2.2.2 The levels of adopting blended learning

Identify (Rogers 1995, p. 20) five levels have been by Rogers to the process of taking decision of adopting the innovation, these levels are: knowledge, persuasion, decision, implementation and confirmation.

During the level of knowledge, students will be supplied with knowledge and information about the innovation and its characteristics, possibilities, benefits, goals and aspirations that might be achieved, and the problems it may solve and the advantages of the adopted innovation about prevailing practices. The main purpose for this level is to open the way to a series of levels which will be fulfilled and to raise the sense with urgent need to the innovation.

During the persuasion level, the student forms a positive or negative attitude about the innovation through discussion and interaction with others in terms of the information that has been presented to him or he acquired by himself (Batty et al., 2000, p. 7), and the basic purpose for this level is developing the student information about the new innovation.

During the level of decision, the individual makes a kind of mental experiment of the available information for him and between his current attitude to decide whether to accept or refuse adopting the innovation. If the individual felt that the advantages of the innovation higher than the common practices, decides to experience it to make sure of its benefits and the easiness of using it, as it was assured by (Gane, 2000, p. 162) that the student has to commence his activity with a practical experiment for the innovation to lead him to accept adopting the innovation and the importance of taking care of individual education methods and personal communication methods.

During the implementation level, we should care that students applies the innovation on a narrow scale to identify its benefit rate under his special circumstances. The main purpose of the application level is to show the new innovation within the special circumstances of the student and to identify the possibility to benefit from it for the purpose of full adoption to recruit the innovation (Batty et al., 2000, p.8).

At the level of confirmation, the student usually decides to continue adopting and recruiting the innovation and using it, as the basic purpose for this level is to put the results of both levels of adoption and implementation. It should be taken into consideration by the student to embark on continuous recruitment in the future to this innovation during educational situations. Rogers, 1995, 18, preferred to use the style of training in small groups of 5-15 members, where the trainer reached to a level of mastery in cognitive and knowledgeable competencies which helped him to discuss the innovation to increase the knowledge of the students and their skills, answering their questions and inquires and presenting suitable solutions for the expected problems to eventually reach the level of stabilization and full persuasion by adopting the recruitment of the innovation.

2.2.3 Adopters categories for blended learning:

The concept of adopter’s categories refers to dividing individuals in social regulations - like the school on the base of their ability to adopt recruiting innovations. When a technological innovation is presented, some members inside the system initiate to adopt and accept recruiting innovations with others (Kosma, 2000). In this term Rogers describes some individuals inside the system of
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five categories, the category of innovators, first adopters’ category, early majority category, late majority category and the laggards’ category.
The following diagram shows the rate of the laggard’s individuals towards any innovation inside the educational society.

![Diagram showing the rate of laggard's individuals towards any innovation inside the educational society]

**Figure 1.** The rate of the laggard’s individuals towards any innovation inside the educational society

3. **Design and build of the measurement tools:**

   In terms of procedural goals, the tools of evaluation were built for the training program, which included two tools: an achievement test and an observation card. In the following steps every tool was passed by:

3.1 **The Achievement Test:**

   - The achievement test aimed at measuring the achievement of the cognitive goals which are required to recruit blended learning skills connected with E-learning, and was built through the educational needs
   - The articles of the test were drafted in the form of multiple choices, considering the time of drafting the test to clarify one specified problem, drafting the questions in an intelligible and clear style, avoiding the questions based on each other and to be of one identified answer, (Shabara, 2000, p. 114)
   - The initial form of the test was submitted to a group of specialists in the education technology, curriculum, and teaching methods to assure that the phrases of the test were suitable for information technology teachers, also adding or removing vocabularies which are not suitable for the purpose of the test or modifying it, the drafting for some tests were modified as it has no relationship with the subject of the item, which facilitate the intimation with the right choice, the suggested modifications was implemented on the items of the test, the final form of the test was 44 items
   - The stability of the test upon the experimental sample of ten students of girls specialized in information technology at Dhofar University was measured, while the achievement test was applied and the experimental sample result were observed and the half-retail method was used. The stability rate of the test reached 0.8, which means that the test was extremely stable.
3.2 The Performance Observation Card:
- The observation card aimed at acknowledging the extent of acquiring information technology teachers to recruit blended learning connected with e-learning in teaching.
- An observation card to the teachers on information technology was set during the service to the basic skills to recruit the blended learning, every basic skill was divided into several subsidiary skills and their equivalent performances and procedural phrases has were formed to describe every performance of subsidiary performances to the skill. It was taken into account at the time of articulation to use short phrases when defining, and that the phrases include one behavior and to be clear and identified.
- The observation card included 6 basic skills, each one of it has subsidiary skills, and under every subsidiary skill was a group of phrases; the card includes 135 phrases, and one mark was calculated for each step performed by the information technology teachers if he achieved the step correctly and no mark was given if he missed it or didn’t do it. Or the trainer corrected the mistake because the serial and logic sequence to the performance of every step and not doing a specific step correctly doesn’t lead to keep in implementing the following steps, so it was necessary for the trainer to alert the teacher that there was something wrong. The mission of performance observer – the trainer - had to observe the information technology teacher in his performance of every step and put the sign (✓) in the suitable place.
- After finishing the designing performance observation card in its initial form, it was to offer it to the specialists in education technology and curriculum and teaching methods, to explore their opinion about the extent of achieving the articles of the card to the educational goals and accuracy of their articulation, adding or removing or modifying any performances; under the light of the judges’ opinions then rearranging some phrases to be suitable for logic sequence, modifying the articulation of some acts to be suitable for the performance, after performed modifications which the judges recommended, the observation card was now truly valid for application.

The stability of the observation card was calculated with the style of multi observers on the performance of the one student, as an accordance factor was calculated between their evaluations to the performance. The researchers employed two of the colleagues from the education department and trained them on using observation card and identified them with its content and connectivity to the goals which are to be measured. The researcher and his colleagues, by observing the performance of three students from the experimental sample, then calculated the accordance factor of the observer to the performance of each student alone. The average of the accordance factor in the three cases was more than 93 % which means it is an extremely stable and viable to measure.

3.3 Identifying the content and organizing it:
After checking the references and after organizing meetings with a group of specialists in the education technology field to identify the most important skills for blended learning which the teachers of information technology need, in addition to the personal experience of the researcher in using blended learning with the students of Dhofar university and his information about the basics and procedures. In terms of what preceded, the content was identified and chosen in six educational modules after checking many studies about building and using the models, like the study of (Soliman, 2001), (Mohamed, 1999). In terms of what preceded the researcher designed
and built programs models, the first one was under his name and design and he published the educational pages on the internet. The second dealt with searching for information from the internet. The third came under subtitle e-mail and is used in the education and the fourth dealt with building an educational blog, while the fifth came under subtitle building an educational forum, and finally the sixth dealt with the file of the electronic evaluation for the student.

3.4 Identifying the sources of learning and education:
Educational methods were identified in the practical program on a computer for every trainee, display unit for the computer data, and a monitor in addition to the printed models distributed to every trainee before learning.

3.5 Designing and choosing the educational strategies:
The researcher followed the procedures of developing the adoption of technological innovations which Rogers has identified as a general educational strategy, as shown by the following procedures.

- **The level of cognition:** Individuals are supplied with knowledge and information about every educational model, this include presenting the printings concerning the model, showing the basic information for the including skills, its characteristics, advantages, importance, and show how to implement them through a group meeting with the assistance of presentation shows and the private computer for the researcher. The goal from this stage is to recognize the awareness of the trainee for the implemented skills inside every model.

- **The level of persuasion:** This level depends on the existence of the modeling, presenting all accurate and detailed information, and some transitional trainings, organizing free discussions about the idea or the skill needed to be adopted through an assembly in small groups in beside the individual study in some situations. This stage significantly depends on the success of those in charge with the connection in the first level till the trainee feels the need and the positive attitude of the idea or the skill.

- **The level of decision:** To achieve this level, every trainee should be supported to try and apply the idea or the skill to feel its importance and its necessity for him, with acknowledging the difficulties which may confront him and how to overcome them, till he decides his full ability of it. So, every model was considered another meeting to give the chance for every trainee according to his ability and his speed in adopting the idea and the skill through work by small groups and some time the individual learning.

- **The level of achievement** (recruitment): It means the recruitment of the idea or the skill in another situation, through information and skills he has acquired from the preceded levels, As a result, every trainee reviewed every skill or idea he was able to perform in front of his colleagues either who could perform this skill or who couldn’t; this level was used to encourage the laggards in adopting the idea or the skill to step into it to acquire skills and information about this skill.

- **The level of confirmation:** Rogers called it the level of installation. To achieve this level, the trainees were asked to repeat the same steps they used to do with the trainer, discuss the difficulties and how to overcome them. This level stands in the position of evaluation for improvement, development and blooming, in case of not adopting the idea or the skill by anyone, and before moving to the second model, he is retrained on the skill. Rogers called this as a reinvention, by simplification of the skill or redesign the situation of adoption which simplifies removing obstacles in adopting the idea or the skill. To achieve this general strategy, many
discussions were done about the idea, scheduled to practice on it, acting of some trainees with the role of the trainer in some situations to be assure their understanding to the idea.

3.6 Choosing education experiences, the method of assembling trainees and the training styles:
Educational experiences were chosen, which can help in achieving the goals with more than experience, commensuration of education sources, as it was chosen from the abstract and alternative experiences for all goals of the models. The styles of practicing included the following:
- Leaning in big groups through the collective shows in the stage of knowledge
- Practicing in small groups (3-5) in case of increasing the numbers of trainees, in the lab during the stage of persuasion and decision.
- The individual training for the trainee in case of being late or the time was inappropiate for him in the stage of decision and recruitment.

4. The level of production for adoption methods:
The level of production means transferring conditions and educational specification of education sources to educational product-sources. Education and learning methods need to be complete and ready for recruiting, through the processes of production, evaluation and revisions to reach the product to the required form to allow for use. Concerning adoption methods to achieve the educational goals for the prepared program a website has been set to deal with many basic skills, and included many multimedia and many connected links with the skills.

5. The level of recruiting the blended learning:
A group of procedures including identifying the room of education sources inside the Salalah private school and the main training center at the general directorate of education and coordinate with the information technology teachers at the school to revise the seats, to identify the assistants to achieve the program and the educational subjects, publications, and the materials needed to practicing. The moral support was presented by the preparation of the trainee sample and rising their motivation to effectively participate, providing them of what is expected from them at the end of the training with using praise phrases, encouraging any progress during the achievement or the performance, providing tools, substances and printings for every trainee, attempting to remove all organized obstacles or the procedures which impede the training and recruitment process. Training facilities also were provided according to the time of the trainee, and the time of implementation, its time and its place was identified according to the set timetable to recruit some of the blended learning skills.

6. The level of evaluation:
This level concentrates on performing the experiment processes to be able to implement the required modifications all over the program. The evaluation processes was performed through the following:

6.1 The structural evaluation:
At this level the program was adjusted and assured of its safety, performing required modifications to make the program ready for the final experiment. The program was submitted to a group of judges and in terms of their opinions, the required modifications were performed and the program
became ready in its final from. It was experimented upon the experimental sample to be assure of the program clarity, its suitability to their levels, as it was clear during teaching the program that the absorption of information technology teachers with no ambiguity in the implemented educational activities and was formed in its final form and became viable to experiment upon the basic research sample. Consequently, the third question was answered from the recent research.

6.2. Final evaluation and the research experiment:
The basic sample of the research was formed of 20 teachers of information technology from the first level of the primary education stage at Dhofar Governorate, in addition to an experimental group composed of 10 students from the students of the fourth grade in the specialization of information technology from the Faculty of Arts and Practical Science at Dhofar University, who finished their study of information technology subjects connected with E-learning, to perform the structural evaluation for the program, they all were volunteers.

After the pre-application of the research tools exemplified in the achievement test and the observation card, the students were prepared to study the program by explaining its idea, and to continue to study it upon the desire of every student; in other words, participating in experiencing the program is optional and not compulsory.

Every trainee in the study of models followed the specific arrangement from the first part to the last one of the model, and according to its self-speed, activities and the connected educational methods, the difficulties which can be obstructive were overcome through group meetings.

After the study of information technology teachers of the program, the post application for the research tools exemplified in the achievement test and the observation card followed; appendix No. 3 shows models of the works and images of information technology teachers during practicing.

7. Statistical Treatments:
The researcher used the T-test to calculate the differences between pre- and post-measurement degrees in the achievement test and the observation card. The statistical treatment was done by using (SPSS), and Eta square to calculate the effectiveness of the program, and the test rate of average for Blake.

8. Results & Discussion
Hereinafter, the results of the study explaining it in terms of assumptions are shown:

8.1 Assumption test concerning cognitive achievement connected with recruiting blended learning skills

This assumption stipulates for the following: There are statistically significant differences in the level (0.05) in cognitive achievement connected with required knowledge for recruiting blended learning between the average degree of the pre-achievement test and the post-achievement test for the post-test result. These results connect with the fourth question of the research questions which is: What is the effect of the proposal program in developing the cognitive achievement connected with the required knowledge to adopt blended learning by information technology teachers? That is what table.1 shows:
Table 1. shows the difference between the average degree of pre- and post- measurement in the cognitive test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application type</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>T-test</th>
<th>Significance level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prior</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>15.45</td>
<td>Significant to level 0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>64.75</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 1 shows the existence of statistically significant differences, where the value of (T) for the average degree of information technology teachers in both pre- and post-applications is 15.45, as it is a statically significant value to level 0.001. To be assured of the effectiveness of the training program, the trainer used the Blake Equation to calculate the average profit percentage for the students of the experimental group during the achievement test, as shown in table 2:

Table 2. shows the average profit percentage for information technology teacher during achievement test:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Pre-application Total marks</th>
<th>Post-application Total marks</th>
<th>Maximum test degree</th>
<th>Total actual profit</th>
<th>Total expected profit</th>
<th>Modified profit rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>64.75</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>37.5</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>1.41</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 2 shows that the percentage of the modified profit for Blake reached 1.41, and it is a statistically significant value as it is higher than 1.2 which points to training program effectiveness in developing the cognitive achievement connected with knowledge and information to adopt blended learning. So, the first assumption could be accepted for the following reasons:

- Caring of the training program with the individual factors concerning the targeted categories by providing knowledge according to one’s needs and identifying the level of his portal behavior.
- The contained strategy in preset training program according to Rogers theory helped in acquiring information by allowing the required time replacing the skill and assuring on installing it.
- The help of some information technology teachers to their colleagues raised their enthusiasm in acquiring information in addition to considering the trainee of reading the program printings.
- Using methods in presenting the skills from connectivity between both of the theoretical and scientific sides, continuing the constructive evaluation after every module, maybe as a result of small number inside educational situations, which made them in an educational situation that helped the researcher to discuss them and interact with them.
- Teaching technology with modules contribute in forming effective field experience, like responsibility and taking decisions as it allows the learner to work freely and according to his possibilities.
- Sowing blended learning characteristics in the stage of knowledge pushed them to acquire the biggest amount of information about it.
- The importance of using the training program which was set according to Rogers theory and the systems’ style like advantages in organizing the work, the educational situations and developing the level of understanding the information is connected with cognitive goals to recruit blended learning. This result agrees with both Barawy (2001), Shawky (2004) and Shomly (2007) and these results point to the effectiveness of using the style of learning with modules and systems style in the cognitive achievement of learners.
8.2 Testing assumption concerning skill performance connected with recruiting the skills of blended learning:

This assumption stipulates that there are statistically significant differences of the level of 0.05 in the performance connected with required skills to recruit blended learning between the average degrees of pre-performance and post-performance and the observation card for the post-performance.

These results connect with the fifth question of the research questions which states: What is the effectiveness of the propose program in developing the skills of blended learning of information technology teachers? That is what table 4 shows.

Table 3. shows the difference between the average of pre-measurement and post-measurement in the skilled performance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application type</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>T-test</th>
<th>Significant level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>259.8</td>
<td>10.87</td>
<td>51.36</td>
<td>Significant to level 0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>531.85</td>
<td>5.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 3 shows statistically, significant differences of the value of (T) to the difference between the average of information technology teachers’ marks reached in both pre- and post-applications 51.36. This is a value statistically significant to level (0.001). To be assure of the effectiveness of the training program, the researcher used Blake’s equation to calculate the rate of modified profit for the students’ marks of the experimental group in the cognitive test, as table No. 4 shows.

Table 4. shows the rate of the modified profit of information technology teachers in skilled performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sample</th>
<th>Pre-application total marks</th>
<th>Post-application total marks</th>
<th>Maximum test degree</th>
<th>Total actual profit</th>
<th>Total expected profit</th>
<th>Modified profit rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>259.8</td>
<td>531.85</td>
<td>578</td>
<td>272.05</td>
<td>318.2</td>
<td>1.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 4 shows that the rate of the modified profit for Blake reached 1.33, and it is a statistically significant value which means the effectiveness of the training program in developing performance is connected with required skills to recruit blended learning. Therefore, the second assumption could be accepted and may point to the following:

- The level of ability of information technology teachers from computer skills made the training on special skills easier through blended learning connected with E-learning
- The style of training information technology teachers on skills inside the training situation allows them to practice in appropriate time and led them to practice on the skills and mastering them. This goes with the study of Shawky (2004) which assured the effective results of the program, which was held in work locations, in improving the teacher’s information and their skills about the programs which was held outside work locations.
- Designing a training program according to Rogers’ theory at the various levels of adoption helped in improving the skills and acquiring them. It provided the following items: theory, model, scientific practicing, reference and renewing the skill, and come up with Mills (2000). This may refer back to the characteristics of blended learning skills which are connected with
E-learning which was practiced according to their needs and which helped in acquiring motivation and enthusiastic learning skills.

- Supporting technique which was presented by the program, allowing practicing time for the skills, relying on personal communication methods also helped in overcoming many obstacles.
- The decision to practice on the skills was optional and not obligatory from the higher authority and agreed with the study of both Beggs (2000) & Tolba (2001).
- The training program used the steps of module styles to adopt recruiting blended learning according to Rogers theory and was full of advantages in organizing work in educational situations and in developing performance skills connected with the goals required in recruiting blended learning; this result agrees with Tolba (2001) & Shawky (2004) All these studies combined indicated the effectiveness of these methods in developing skilled performances for learners.

### 8.3 Choosing the assumption connected with the training program’s effect to the level of achievement of information technology teachers for the connected knowledge to recruit blended learning skills:

This assumption stipulates: The training program achieved a high effect ($\eta^2 \geq 0.14$) in cognitive achievement connected with the required knowledge to adopt recruiting blended education skills:

**Table 6. shows the effect value on cognitive achievement connected with recruiting blended learning skills**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training program</th>
<th>The value of $\eta^2$</th>
<th>Level of effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First module</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second module</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third module</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth module</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth module</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth module</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As table 6 shows that the level of effect in all modules is high where the value of $\eta^2$ in the first module is 0.92, in the second and the third they are 0.95, in the fourth and sixth module they are 0.98, and in the fifth module it is 0.97. This proves that the training program has achieved a high level of effect in the cognitive achievement connected with the required knowledge to adopt recruiting blended learning skills. Therefore, the third assumption could be accepted, also conjoining these results with the results of the program effectiveness concerning cognitive achievement connected with the required knowledge to adopt recruiting blended learning skills. Therefore, in case of considering the factors that affect the level of blended learning adoption which are identified by Rogers in the model of design and suggested educational development, which is added to the high-level effect, so the required effectiveness could be achieved. This result agrees with Shawky (2004) and Batty (2000).

### 8.4 Testing the assumption related to the effect of the training program about performance level of information technology teachers for the skill connected with recruiting blended learning:

This assumption stipulated that: The training program achieved a high effect level, ($\eta^2 \geq 0.14$), at the level of the required performing skills to adopt recruiting blended learning.
Table 7. shows the level of effect on the skilled performance related to recruiting the skills of blended learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Training program</th>
<th>The value of $\eta^2$</th>
<th>Level of effect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First module</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second module</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third module</td>
<td>0.95</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth module</td>
<td>0.94</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth module</td>
<td>0.97</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sixth module</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clear from the precede table 7 that the effect level is high in all modules, where the value of $\eta^2$ in the first, second, and fifth module reached 0.97, in the third module it is 0.95, in the fourth module it is 0.94, and the sixth module it is 0.98. This clarifies that the training program achieved a high effect level in the skilled performance related to the required skills to adopt recruiting blended learning. Therefore, the fourth assumption could be accepted, and this result could be joined with the program effectiveness result concerning performance skills required to adopt recruiting blended learning. Therefore, in case of considering the individual, social and organizing factors in a proposal educational design and developed model, adding to it the level of high effect, then the required effectiveness could be achieved, and this result agrees with shawky (2004).

Conclusion
The study aimed at designing a training program according to Rogers theory for recruiting the skills of blended learning to the teachers of information technology in Oman and knowing its effectiveness. The study results led to the existence of statistically significant differences, with a value of (T) for the difference between the average degrees of information technology teachers in both of dimensional applications for the achievement test and skill performance, it is a value with statistically significance of the level of (0.001), and the training program was effective, as the profit rate for Black was 1.33-1.41 respectively. It is a statistically significant value as it is more than 1.2. The effect of the training program was high in all models concerning both cognitive achievements and skills.

The study recommended using educational models as one of self-education techniques with information technology teachers training, with integration with other training styles which agree with it in characteristics, and the attempt to use Rogers Theory in publishing education technology innovations, preparing other models for designing, educational development to publish and adopting these innovations.

About the Authors:
Dr. Khalid Almashikhi: Dr. Khalid Almashikhi is the dean of the college of arts and applied Sciences at Dhofar University. Khalid received his M.A and Ed. D in educational leadership from the University of Nebraska at Omaha. Dr. Almashikhi’s teaching and research interests include leadership, and teaching and learning. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2440-8487

Dr. Sobhy Ahmed Soliman: Sobhy has taught Education Technology and education courses in a career spanning 15 years in higher education (Menoufia University, Egypt & Dhofar University, Oman). He contributed to publications in the areas of educational research, Education Technology,
teacher professional development and continues to research by working with school teachers in Oman in building capacity among teachers. https://orcid.org/0000-0001-9036-4964

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Indonesian Teachers’ Perception on the Implementation of Lesson Study: Exploring Teachers’ Awareness of Pedagogical Knowledge

Siti Aimah
English Education Department, Faculty of Foreign Language and Culture
Universitas Muhammadiyah Semarang, Indonesia

Bambang Purwanto
English Literature Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia

Abstract
This study aims to know Indonesian teachers’ perception of the implementation of lesson study. A case study was used as the design of this study with six teachers of Islamic Elementary School in Semarang, Indonesia, were chosen by using purposive sampling. A questionnaire with the Likert Scale of 1 to 4 was distributed to the respondents after implementing lesson study. A deep interview was also given to the teachers to explore their awareness of pedagogical knowledge. The quantitative data were analyzed statistically and they were used to support the qualitative data got from the interview. The result showed that the teachers had a new perspective in the pedagogical context in which a preparation of teaching could be prepared well by formulating and designing the lesson collaboratively with the other teachers to achieve the learning goal. Through the intensive collaboration with the teachers, they were more aware to create the effective and meaningful teaching to the students. They knew how to teach the students through the instructional strategies designed.

Keywords: awareness, collaboration, lesson study, pedagogical knowledge, teachers’ perception

Introduction

What did we teach to the students? How was it taught? Did we create a positive climate for learning? Did we stimulate the students to explore their ability in learning? How were the students’ responses? Did we get feedback from the students toward our teaching? Those questions are commonly required by teachers in reflecting their own teaching and learning. However, not all the teachers are aware to do self-reflection even though it benefits them to improve their teaching. Clarke (2008) states that reflection on teaching goals, teaching methods, the level of students’ ability, etc. basically promotes the teachers to create an effective teaching. Through reflection, they can identify the things related to what they have taught such as the mastery of teaching material, teaching practice, the students’ learning styles, and the strategies that would be used to counter the problems of teaching (Ibrahim, Surif, Arshad, & Mokhtar, 2012). In fact, some of the teachers are reluctant to learn with the others through interaction with their peers. They are ashamed that their problems of teaching will be identified by the others. They think that they will be regarded as unexperienced teachers who could not counter the problems.

Basically, each teacher faces his/her own problem of teaching. The problems commonly deal with how to handle the class, how to make the students more active, how to teach the students with the simplest way to understand, how to simplify the material, and how to create a meaningful learning (Munijah, conveyed in Workshop of Lesson Study on March 24, 2018). Those problems are virtually related to pedagogical content knowledge in which it is an amalgam of teacher’s pedagogical knowledge and her/his understanding of the content so that it influences the way she/he teaches (Jang, Guan, & Hsieh, 2009). Pedagogical content knowledge (PCK) which is firstly introduced by Shulman (1987) at Stanford University is the basic knowledge that the teacher should have pertaining to teaching. Dealing with the knowledge of pedagogy, it covers pedagogical techniques, knowledge of students’ prior knowledge, and knowledge of teaching.

Considering about the demands of the government in Indonesia, the teacher needs to possess four competencies that cover pedagogy, professional, social, and personal (The Regulation of The Minister of National Education No. 6 Year 2007). It means that to be a teacher, he/she could not choose only one of them, but all must be mastered in order to implement the instructional practices in the classroom. Those competencies are very crucial because they are related each other. When the teacher wants to teach in a classroom, surely she/he must have her/his pedagogical knowledge that includes the ability to prepare the needs of teaching including designing the scenario of learning which is very basic need to prepare (Hudson, 2007; Matanluk, Johari, & Matanluk, 2013). Through the scenario of learning, she/he must consider what should be done in the first five minute in the classroom, what should be told to the students, what questions should be posed, what activities should be explored from the students, what method of learning should be used, etc. (Hudson, 2007). It is not a simple thing to do by the teacher because the teacher should consider carefully to avoid ineffective teaching.

According to Lenhart (2010), pedagogical knowledge is the knowledge of how to teach. It means that without having the knowledge of pedagogy, the teacher could not prepare his/her teaching well. Pedagogical knowledge is used to support the teacher’s
performance of teaching and learning process, and it needs to be built through the experiences of teaching practices in the classroom by facing students’ learning problems with various different characteristics (Aimah, Ifadah, & Bharati, 2017). By knowing the students’ problems of learning, the teacher is expected to counter the students’ problems of learning, and manage the class well. It is in line with what is expressed by Syahruddin, Ernawati, Ede, Rahman, Sihas, & Daud (2013) that the teacher’s pedagogical knowledge could be seen from his/her ability in managing teaching and learning process from planning to evaluation stages.

Dealing with the phenomena above, to cope with the problems in order to be effective, the teachers can make an interaction with their peers to learn (Bocala, 2015). The interaction can be through participation in groups facilitated in a lesson study in which each participant knows the interactions that should be made. The phases of lesson study include preparation, implementation, and reflection (Lewis, 2002). In the phase of preparation, the teachers should prepare and provide their lesson plan to be implemented in the class collaboratively (Matanluk, Johari, & Matanluk, 2013) so that they could help the students in learning a particular topic easily (Baba, 2007; Fernandez & Yoshida, 2004; Lewis, 2002). Through collaboration, the teachers have a chance to share their own experiences of planning and conducting their teaching in the classroom which also encourage them to have the knowledge to enhance their teaching. This activity also enables them to do reflection to what they have done in their teaching so that it helps them in strengthening their pedagogical skills (Shimahara, 1998). The teacher’s preparation encouraging joint inquiry, teaching practice, and reflection to the classroom instruction is to result the professional growth (Kotelawa, 2012; Rock & Wilson, 2005).

There are some previous studies which are similar with this study. However, most of the research only focused on the study of Science and Mathematics. Matanluk, Johari, & Matanluk (2013) investigated the teachers and students’ perception about the implementation of lesson study. The result showed that they had a positive perception towards the implementation of lesson study. Further, it encouraged the teachers to stimulate the students’ participation in the classroom. Inprasitha & Changsri (2014) concerned with the teachers’ beliefs about teaching practices in the context of lesson study and open approach. Teachers’ beliefs of teaching influenced their very own teaching practice. Lesson study also allowed the teachers a space to provide the students to encounter their problems of learning.

Considering the gap with the previous studies, this study aims to know Indonesian teachers’ perception about the implementation of lesson study. Further, it also explores their awareness of pedagogical knowledge.

**Literature Review**

In the context of teaching, pedagogical awareness is very crucial for teachers in which they need to notice and interpret the aspects of classroom practice, and make the decisions of something occurs in the classroom. Without having pedagogical awareness, teachers will get difficulties in identifying and reflecting their own teaching including what needs to be
repaired from classroom practice. Considering the important of awareness as a part of teacher knowledge that needs to be possessed by teachers, it is then considered as a crucial factor in implementing instructional practice. It is in alignment with Potari (2013), awareness is related to teacher knowledge and is rooted in the context of the actual classroom practice.

Teacher knowledge, according to Guerriero (n.d) deals with the process of teaching and learning, the concept of knowledge, as well as the way the teachers transfer their knowledge in the practice of teaching. Similarly, Fernandez (2014) mentions that teacher knowledge is related to skills that need to know to teach. Shulman (1987) identifies teacher knowledge which not only focuses on the content, but also teacher’s ability in teaching. It is then, well known with pedagogical knowledge.

Pedagogical knowledge deals with knowledge of teaching process and methods used by the teachers including knowledge of teaching preparation, knowledge about classroom management, knowledge of developing lesson plan, knowledge of teaching methods and strategies, knowledge of students characteristics, and knowledge of designing learning evaluation (Aimah, Ifadah & Bharati, 2017; Aksu, Metin & Konyalioglu, 2014; Mishra & Koehler, 2006). It is in alignment with Gess-Newsome (1999) that pedagogical knowledge deals with classroom organization and management, instructional models and strategies, and classroom communication and discourse. Further, it is believed that pedagogical knowledge helps to guide teachers’ decision and action in the instructional practices.

Pedagogical knowledge is necessary knowledge for teachers to implement teaching and learning process in the classroom. The knowledge encompasses knowledge about understanding how students learn, planning an instruction of learning, assessing students, and managing the classroom. Teachers who have deep pedagogical knowledge will understand how the students construct knowledge, acquire skills, and develop their positive minds of learning (Aksu, Metin & Konyalioglu, 2014).

Therefore, it is required by teachers to have the awareness of pedagogy. To possess pedagogical awareness, it could be facilitated through lesson study. Lewis (2009) defines lesson study as:

a professional approach in which teachers work together to formulate goals for student learning and long-term development; collaboratively plan a ‘research lesson’ designed to bring to life these goals; conduct the lesson in a classroom, with one team member teaching and others gathering evidence on student learning and development; and discuss the evidence gathered during the lesson, using it to improve the lesson, the unit, and instruction more generally (p. 95).

Lesson study provides teachers to make a community learning in which they collaborate together to formulate the goal of learning, design a creative lesson plan, and implement it into an instructional practice. In designing the lesson plan, the appropriate strategies are required to create an effective teaching in which it is based on students’ needs in order to create an effective teaching
Indonesian Teachers’ Perception on the Implementation of Lesson Study

(Aimah, Ifadah & Bharati, 2016). Those strategies are achieved through collaboration between them intensively (Bocala, 2015) in which it enables to them to share their knowledge and experiences of teaching including how to counter the students’ learning problems.

When preparing/designing their lesson plan, teachers predict students’ reaction to specific activities in the classroom and it requires them to reflect on their teaching approaches (Coenders & Verhoef, 2018). Through the stages of “plan, do, and see” (Hurd & Musso, 2005), lesson study emphasizes on student learning. Therefore, teachers are expected to develop their pedagogical knowledge (known PCK) as proposed by Shulman. In this case, teachers need to understand how students learn, how to plan an instruction of learning, how to assess students’ learning, and how to manage the classroom effectively (Aksu, Metin & Konyalioğlu, 2014).

**Methods**
In this study, a case study was implemented. Six teachers from fourteen at Islamic Elementary School, Indonesia, were chosen using purposive sampling. The consideration of selecting the participants was based on the length of their experiences of teaching, the complexity of the various teaching and learning problems, and the recommendation of the principal as well. Two instruments were used to obtain the data: questionnaire and interview. The questionnaire was distributed to the teachers to examine their perception about the implementation of lesson study in their class. The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions, asking about teachers’ pedagogical knowledge involving the preparation that they have to set up before teaching. The Likert Scale was used in order to make the objective answers of their perception with the range of 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (agree) to 4 (strongly agree). The quantitative data then were analyzed statistically to see the teachers’ perception on the implementation of lesson study. To support the quantitative data, deep interview was also given to support the quantitative data given through questionnaire.

**Findings and Discussions**

**Teachers’ Perception on the Implementation of Lesson Study**
In examining the teachers’ perception on lesson study through questionnaire, it was found that the implementation of lesson study helped them much in improving their pedagogical knowledge.

The questionnaire consisted of 15 questions that covered some questions pertaining to the ability of choosing the appropriate method of learning utilizing the learning media, managing the classroom, evaluating the teaching and learning process in the classroom, mastering the material taught, knowing how to teach, solving the contextual problems of learning, and communicating with the students interactively. The result of the questionnaire pertaining to the implementation of lesson study could be seen in the following table.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Teachers</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>Very Good</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on Table 1, the average of the teachers’ perception on lesson study shows a good response that is 3.85 (very good). The teachers agreed that lesson study helped them...
In preparing their teaching, if they usually only prepared the materials that would be taught to the students from the textbook used, through lesson study they were trained to prepare from designing the lesson plan (it was usually obeyed by them because of their overloads of teaching hours) that covered the detailed activities from the beginning of the study until the end. It was done in order to be easy for the teachers involved in a group of learning in lesson study in measuring each point within it.

In the phase of planning, the teachers together with the others collaborated actively in formulating the scenario of learning. All the teachers involved in a lesson study team discussed the stages of conducting teaching and learning process in the classroom. They shared their experience of teaching in the stages of planning to enhance the quality of teaching. The teacher not only discussed with the others (observers) what must be written there, but also simulating the scenario of learning created in front of others. Through the activity, it could not be avoided to make some revisions of what they have designed. Selecting the use of appropriate media and method of learning which was based on the students’ problems and characteristics was also important to help the teacher in achieving the goal of learning. However, dealing with this point, the teacher must be careful in selecting and implementing the certain technique in the classroom because there were some illiterate students. It means that they were needed to be assisted intensively during teaching and learning in order they comprehended what they were studying.

Facing the various students with the different style of learning, made the teachers to consider the level of which the difficulty of the materials taught. They had to simplify the materials in order to be easy to understand. Not only knowing what to teach, the important point for the teacher in teaching is also about how to teach it (Lenhart, 2010). That’s why in lesson study, the phase of planning is regarded as a crucial factor in determining whether or not the teaching and learning process will be successful (Rock & Wilson, 2005). All the participants of a group learning could collaborate to discuss the teachers’ planning dream, and the purpose of designing a lesson plan in order to meet the students’ needs. Through this activity, the teachers would grow professionally. They would understand the students better.

**Teachers’ Awareness of Pedagogical Knowledge**

Lesson study provides a chance to the teachers to be professional teachers (Rock & Wilson, 2005). Through the stages of lesson study, the teachers got a positive impact on their instructional practices to be more effective. Their awareness of pedagogical knowledge was well-built. It could be seen when they had to be careful in preparing their teaching and anticipating some possibilities that would occur to their students in the classroom. Through the stage of planning, Bocala (2015), and Kotelawala (2012) explain that the teachers must formulate the learning goals by implementing instructional strategies that have been discussed collaboratively in a group of learning. The teachers also selected the materials that must be based on the goal of learning and the students’ needs. One of the teachers, Mrs. Ika told the benefit that she got pertaining to her pedagogical knowledge from the implementation of lesson study in her school.
Sebenarnya banyak manfaat yang saya peroleh melalui kegiatan lesson study ini seperti bagaimana menentukan tujuan pembelajaran yang harus dicapai. Untuk mencapai tersebut, langkah-langkah yang harus dilakukan oleh guru harus jelas melalui kegiatan seperti apa di dalam kelas, dari apa yang saya lakukan, dan apa yang dilakukan siswa, bagaimana sikap mereka, dan lain-lain. Kemudian...melalui dalam pemilihan media pembelajaran sampai juga harus dibahas bersama-sama untuk melihat apakah media tersebut cocok atau tidak. Itu semua menunjang pengetahuan pedagogis saya. Namun sayangnya, nampaknya tidak mudah untuk selalu berkumpul bersama...Jadwal kami yang berbeda-beda membuat kami susah untuk berkumpul dan berdiskusi bersama.

Actually, many benefits that I have gained through the activity of lesson study such as how to determine the learning objectives that must be achieved. To achieve it, the steps that must be done by the teacher must be clear through what activities in the classroom, from what I do, and what students do, how they have to behave, and so on. Then ... through the selection of learning media, it must also be discussed together to see whether it is suitable or not. Those promoted my pedagogical knowledge. But unfortunately, it didn't seem easy to gather... Our different schedules made it difficult for us to gather and discuss together with others (First Interview, 20180407)

Those conditions are in line with what Baba (2007) says that in a process of planning, the teachers begin their activities by finding and selecting the materials that are relevant to the goal of learning and refining the design of learning based on the actual needs of the students to be written in a lesson plan. Those are required to promote teachers’ pedagogical knowledge to become professional teachers. The similar view about selecting the material was also expressed by Mrs. Endah as follows.

Lesson study ternyata sampai membahas tentang materi yang akan diajarkan kepada siswa apa saja ya? Apakah siswa nanti dapat memahami materi yang diajarkan atau tidak, apakah materi tersebut sudah disederhanakan sesuai dengan kemampuan siswa atau belum, dan bagaimana cara mengajarkannya. Benar-benar sangat detail.

Lesson study discussed what material would be taught to students, didn’t it? Whether or not the students will able to understand the material taught, and the material has been simplified based on the students' abilities, and how to teach it. It’s extremely very detail (Third Interview, 20180428).

Not only about how to select and simplify the material, the important point deals with how to teach the material to the students as expressed by Mrs. Endah. It is also in line with Lenhart (2010) in which pedagogical knowledge is about how to teach the material to the students. In this case, Shulman (1987) highlights that the teachers should represent and formulate the material in order to be comprehensible to the students.
Mrs. Uswatun who was one of the observers also underlined some points about designing the instructional strategies, discussing and formulating the indicator of the observation form used by the other teachers whose role as observers to observe the students’ activities in the classroom. In this case, the teachers must think what the students thought about the material or how their reaction was, what problems usually faced by the students and their approaches to the problems. That’s why in lesson study cycle, the teachers illustrated the activities designed in a lesson plan and facilitated them with the ability in solving their problems through the activities explored.

Kelebihan dari lesson study ini adalah bahwa kita juga harus mampu memprediksi sikap dan respon yang ditunjukkan oleh siswa seperti apa, termasuk dari teknik tertentu yang kita gunakan dalam pembelajaran, kita pun juga diharapkan dapat membayangkan seperti apa sikap-sikap positif mereka. Kondisi ini tentu juga akan lebih mempermudah para observer untuk mengamati sikap siswa meskipun yang terjadi sering berbeda.

The advantage of lesson study is that we also have to be able to predict what students’ attitudes and responses to teaching and learning process, including from a certain technique that we use, we are also expected to be able to imagine what their positive attitudes look like. This condition will certainly make it easier for the observers to observe students' attitudes even though what happens is often different (First Interview, 20180407).

On different occasion, Mrs. Lusiana also shared a similar view:

Sangat beruntung saya ikut kegiatan lesson study ini. Pengetahuan pedagogis saya semakin bertambah. Mengajar anak-anak SD sangat lah tidak mudah. Sikap yang mereka tunjukkan juga biasanya cukup beragam. Ketika saya mencoba menenangkan siswa pada bagian kanan, yang kiri rame sendiri. Yang kiri ditertibkan, yang kanan malah menyusul... tapi setidaknya kita dapat melihat bahwa ada yang salah tidak dengan bagaimana kita mengajar? Sehingga siswa menunjukkan sikap seperti itu? Mengamati satu per satu siswa dalam satu kelas tentu juga tidak mudah dan tidak dapat dilakukan oleh satu orang saja. Di sini kita belajar mengamati apa yang menyebabkan siswa bersikap seperti itu? Senang sih... tapi juga agak capek...

I was very lucky to join this lesson study. My pedagogical knowledge improved. Teaching students in the Elementary School is not easy. The attitude they show is usually quite diverse. When I am trying to handle the students in the right side, the students in the left one will make noisy then. The students in the left are put in order, those in the right follow them in the left one as well ... But at least we can see whether or not there was something wrong with what we had taught that affected the students to show their attitude. Observing each student in one class was certainly not easy and could not be done by only one person. Here we could
learn to observe what caused the students to behave like that. I am so happy ... but also feel a little bit tired ... (Second Interview, 20180419).

The different situation shown by one of the teachers who objected with the process of lesson study which was very detail in each stage. The teacher had the responsibility to formulate the initial lesson plan to be discussed with the other teachers in a group of learning. It should also have covered the problems that must be countered and what strategies used to. Based on the result of discussion, the teacher must also be ready to revise the lesson plan. This condition is not always acceptable to teachers who have quite a lot of teaching hours. Mrs. Rahayu, for example said that:

*Saya kan memiliki jam mengajar yang cukup banyak. Tugas-tugas siswa juga harus dikoreksi. Kalau harus kemudian berkali-kali membuat lesson plan kemudian merevisi dan seterusnya, saya kok tidak sanggup.*

I had a lot of teaching hours. The students’ worksheet must also be checked. If I have to make a lesson plan many times and then revise it and so on, I am afraid I could join this activity (Second Interview, 20180419).

Dealing with the condition above, in conducting lesson plan, Fernandez (2002) states that the teachers should provide adequate time to meet and discuss the lesson plan designed and/or developed collaboratively. The inadequate time had by the teachers in lesson study will only make them isolated as they have to make it individually (Cohan & Honigsfeld, 2006). Another problem faced by the members of lesson study is about the Indonesian culture which is very different from Japan in implementing lesson study. Not all teachers are confident and comfortable to be observed by the others in open class. Some of them thought that being observed by the others made them to think that they would be justified whether or not their performance was good. This view was also shared by Mrs. Rohmah:


I could not imagine if I had to teach in the classroom and many observers joined to observe my class. I would be trembling then. Gathering at the beginning of the process of lesson study was already complicated because the schedule must be arranged, and many things to be discussed and revised (Third Interview, 20180428).

Observing the teaching and learning process commonly makes the class looks like unnatural. The students did not feel free to behave. They felt that their attitude was monitored by another teacher. That’s why the teacher whose class would be observed, asked the students to be good and active students. This condition was also explained by some of the teachers joining the lesson study. However, to anticipate the condition, Mrs. Uswatun highlighted that lesson study should be
implemented continuously in any class. Both the teacher and the students will get used to be observed and they will look natural for joining teaching and learning process as usual even though there are some observers in the class.

Dealing with the different culture in implementing lesson study, for some teachers who did not have adequate time, and/or their inconvenience in collaborating to the others, they preferred to design it individually to be discussed it with the others in the next time. It was effective for those who were busy in having a lot of teaching hours. The characteristic of Indonesian teachers who tends to work individually in planning their lesson is also similar with what Nami, Marandi, & Sotoudehnama (2015) say that Iranian teachers tends to plan their lesson individually. It was caused by individualist culture of teaching that make them difficult to collaborate.

**Conclusion and Suggestion**
Indonesian teachers’ perception on the implementation of lesson study shows a good response (3.85) with the category of very good. Lesson study which is a model of professional development in teacher education through a collaborative learning helps them in maintaining their pedagogical knowledge. Pedagogical knowledge relatively depicts a clear description to teachers’ preparation of teaching (Kotelawa, 2012). The implementation of lesson study attempts to promote teachers’ preparation of teaching better. Teaching preparation deals with the awareness of pedagogical knowledge that must be possessed by the teacher. Without having the awareness of pedagogical knowledge, teachers surely could not decide what should do to create a meaningful learning as they do not know what to teach and how to teach to the students with the appropriate strategies.

However, dealing with the implementation of lesson study in Indonesia, it seems that it needs more efforts in order to be acceptable among teachers. Some teachers’ awareness of pedagogical knowledge is better through a collaborative learning in lesson study. They admitted that the implementation of lesson study helped them more in preparing their teaching well. They collaboratively discussed to formulate the learning goal that must be achieved through the instructional strategies designed. Through collaborative learning, the teachers could also select the most comprehensible material to be presented to the students and they know how to teach it (Lenhart, 2010).

The different culture in Indonesia in which the Indonesian teachers are not used to be observed by many people in their class needs to be evaluated. Teachers should be involved in some activities to promote their professional development through peer reflection and the similar activities that encourage them to evaluate their teaching. Teachers should also open their mind that collaboration is very important to improve their teaching.

**About the authors:**
Siti Aimah is a lecturer of English Education Department, Faculty of Foreign Language and Culture, Universitas Muhammadiyah Semarang (Unimus). Her research interest is in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) including teaching methodology and pedagogy. ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5355-4523
Bambang Purwanto is a lecturer of English Literature Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts, Universitas Negeri Semarang (Unnes). His research interest is in literature studies and he has been teaching in English Literature Department since 2008. ORCID ID https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7110-2878

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Syntactic Errors in an Arab EFL Postgraduate Student’s Spoken English during a Thesis Supervision Session

Ahmed Abdoualzhraa Yaseen
Centre for Rehabilitation & Special Needs, Faculty of Health Sciences
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)
Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia

Kemboja Ismail
Centre for Literacy and Sociocultural Transformation, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)
Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

Mohamad Subakir Mohd Yasin
Centre for Literacy and Sociocultural Transformation, Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities
Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia (UKM)
Bangi, Selangor, Malaysia

Abstract
This study investigates the syntactic errors in speaking among an Arab L2 post-graduate student in an academic speaking context. Specifically, the objectives are to describe the syntax error patterns committed by the student while engaging in speaking and to explore the contributing factors that may affect the errors. To address these objectives, a qualitative research method is employed. Data was collected through audio-tape recordings and a face-to-face interview with the participant. The recorded data was transcribed and coded based on Noor Hashim's (1996) seven categories of errors. The findings indicate that some of the first language (L1) negative transfer errors fall into five out of seven categories of Noor Hashim's classification; however, new categories are discovered, such as wrong verb choice, noun forms, overly restricted use of pronouns, and omission of necessary complementizers. These errors can be explained by interference from the L1 and another contributing factor is the limited use of some strategies, such as repetition and confirmation. The significance of this study is a direct pedagogical implication to expose post-graduate students to academic spoken English. This is to avoid miscommunication between students and their academic supervisors. It is recommended that future research examine new teaching and learning techniques of academic spoken English to be incorporated into the classrooms.

Keywords: Academic conversation, Arab L2 speakers, L1 interference, syntactic errors, thesis supervision
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Introduction
Speaking involves constructing meaning that involves producing, receiving and processing information (Brown, 1994; Burns & Joyce, 1997). Being proficient in a language, for example English, as a second/foreign language involves speaking it well. Knowing the grammar of the language or the rules of writing or possessing a native speaker-like accent may not qualify one to be a proficient speaker unless one is able to express the intended ideas or meaning clearly, and in turn to understand others. Therefore, to communicate well, one requires both linguistic and communicative competence.

Speaking requires both of the linguistic and sociolinguistic competences. Additionally, spoken language is different from written because it requires specific skills and conventions (Burns & Joyce, 1997; Carter & McCarthy, 1995; Cohen, 1996). A proficient speaker knows when to synthesize these skills and knowledge in order to succeed in any academic exchange. This is important for post-graduate students at the tertiary level to avoid any miscommunication and misunderstanding during academic conversations.

In spite of having linguistic and sociolinguistic competence, students frequently face numerous problems and commit errors regardless of their proficiency level. In a second language (L2) learning situation, linguists like Corder (1967), Selinker (1972), Dulay and Burt (1974), Richards (1971) and James (1998) investigated these errors and how they contributed to our understanding of the language learning. It was found that errors made are the result of using the same patterns from the first language, expanding patterns from the second language and using the same vocabulary and structure to express meanings (Richards et al., 1992). An important feature of speaking is real time. Speech production requires real-time processing, which means there is limited planning time (Thornbury, 2005). The real-time factor is one of the several reasons language learners find speaking difficult regardless of their level. Crystal and Davy (1979) refer to real-time processing as the main factor which differentiates spoken from written language.

This study concerns the syntactic errors made by a post-graduate during thesis supervision session. Generally, Arab L2 students have problems in acquiring fluency in using English, whether in speaking, writing, listening or writing. Rababah (2005) attributes this to the absolute lack of English use in the English as a Foreign Language/English as a Second Language EFL/ESL classroom in Arab schools or colleges. Besides lacking linguistic knowledge, the students also lack self-confidence because of their lack of practice and exposure in using English. They also have little knowledge of different cultures which increases their anxiety level in speaking English with non-Arabic speakers. Factors such as motivation, attitude, self-esteem, anxiety, and experience generally play a role in language learning and are particularly crucial in students’ oral production (Brown, 2007; Xiaoyan, 2009).

In addition, the Arabic language has a different language system and orthography from English which could contribute to particular oral speaking issues. Munaif (2012) also asserts that the teaching of English to Arab ESL students tends to focus on grammatical accuracy than on writing and speaking communicatively. The Grammar-Translation method is the dominant approach in the teaching of EFL in some Arab countries, and is still widely used despite the
This paper seeks to address the syntactic errors of one Arab speaker of English Language in academic conversation.

**Literature review**

**Syntax errors**

Knowing the syntax of a language is defined as having the knowledge of its sentences and structures. In addition, the rules of syntax require a grouping of words into phrases and phrases into sentences. These rules dictate the right word order of a language. English is a Subject-Verb-Object (SVO) language hence a sentence in English is considered grammatical when the words are in the right order and ungrammatical when the words are in the wrong order. Furthermore, another significant role of syntax is, it describes the relationship between the meaning of a specific group of words and its arrangement and the grammatical relations of a sentence, for example the subject and direct object. It shows who is doing what to whom which is vital in our understanding the meaning of a sentence.

Thus, any language production, either written or spoken, that is in disagreement with the syntactic rules is said to have syntactic errors. In other words, it does not possess the structural sentence according to the rules of syntax. Speakers must ensure that their utterances accord with the rules of the grammar of that language (Branigan et al., 2006).

**Academic speaking**

Speaking in academic contexts is different from speaking in non-academic contexts. It involves interaction that goes beyond basic question-response, and the exchanges require the interlocutors to use more specific and precise language. In an academic exchange, turn-taking may be longer, as planning and processing of information has to be more carefully done. Additionally, its contexts are in semi-public areas such as lectures and seminars where other participants or interlocutors participate in the interaction. A non-academic context is informal; conversations tend to center on personal and social information to maintain the social relationship, with shorter turn-taking (Basturkmen, 2002). In academic contexts, he argues that language use is more complex and indirect due to its features that are not apparent to non-native or EFL/ESL speakers. Second language learners who further their tertiary education in English speaking countries or universities often face difficulties in adjusting and adapting to using English although some of them would have had some years of formal English education or would have attended English medium schools in their home countries. It can be an overwhelming experience moving into a different academic context outside one’s home country, having to adjust to a more formal manner of speaking. In a survey of 768 ESL students of different L1 at three different colleges in the United States, focusing on their listening and speaking skills, Ferris (1998) found that only 8% of the students reported that they had no difficulty asking questions in class. This shows that a high percentage of students had problems in listening and speaking in academic contexts even if they had studied in an English speaking country.

Past studies showed difficulties faced by Arab EFL learners in learning the four language skills of English (Mourtaga, 2004; Abdul Haq, 1982; Wahba, 1998; Abbad, 1988; Rabab’ah, 2003). Studies were carried out among these students to investigate words, phonological, and syntactic errors made by Arab EFL learners (Abdul Haq 1982; Wahba 1998; Zughoul & Taminian
Syntactic Errors in an Arab EFL Postgraduate Student’s

In the area of speaking and writing, Abdul Haq (1982), Wahba (1998) and Abbad (1988)’s finding showed that these learners encountered difficulties. Muortaga (2004), Mohammed (2005) and Zahid (2006) conducted studies to investigate Arab learners’ syntactic errors and they found that Arab learners were weak in their use of verbs and prepositions. Although these studies were conducted mostly in the area of writing and reading, the findings were connected to speaking as the same errors may occur in speaking. This study seeks to identify the syntactic errors and in academic conversation during thesis supervision.

Accordingly, Hughes (2011) argues that speaking is “fundamentally transient and words are produced within the co-ordinates of a particular place and moment” (p.10), thus, speech is context-dependent. Nunan (2010) defines context as: “The linguistic and experiential situation in which a piece of language occurs. The linguistic environment refers to the words, utterances, and sentences surrounding a piece of text” (p.304). In other words, spoken texts are produced dependently in various environment, situation or listeners. These participants create the final form of a spoken text which makes it easier for the listener to participate in a conversation when the context is further enlarged.

Arabic and English speech conventions are different in terms of language varieties, geographical locations and historical and cultural backgrounds. Present day Arab speaking countries have closed the gap between the Arab and Western worlds. This has led to the importance of communication between Arab and English speakers, and unsurprisingly there is an increase in number of Arabic learners deciding to study English as a foreign language abroad.

**Features of academic speaking**

Spoken language is different from written language for many reasons. One important reason is that it needs to be understood instantly whereas written language can be read and re-read. Academic speaking and academic writing share similar features as both are linear, explicit, centers on a main idea and uses standard language. Moreover, academic spoken style is formal, explicit, hedged, and responsible. Unlike written language, it is less complex and more objective. In a formal situation, the speaker should avoid colloquial words and expressions. Although academic spoken English is less formal than academic written English, in general in a formal academic presentation, colloquial words and expressions like *stuff, a lot of, thing, sort of* and two-word verbs like *put off* and *bring up* are avoided. The speaker’s responsibility is to be clear to the listener by using connections which can be made explicit by using different signal words. Thus, being precise is important in an academic context. Hedging is another feature the speaker uses as different speakers use hedges differently. In academic speaking, the speaker is accountable for, and must be able to provide proof and justification in making claims. Academic speaking employs specific words with narrow specific meanings unlike general English thus it is less complex than written language.

Previous researches have shown that ESL students experienced difficulties in learning English at various levels and with different skills (Hoffman, 2001; McCardle & Hoff, 2006). However, most of them referred to the Commonwealth experience not the Arab region where English is a foreign language (Seargeant & Swann, 2011; Mayor & Allington, 2012; Tagg & Hewings, 2012). Al-Shormani (2010) investigated semantic errors and the causes of L1 and L2 errors made by Arabic speaking learners of English. He posits that “the sources of these errors
vary between following different strategies such as translating from Arabic as in the case of some categories in lexical choice and collocation errors, applying Arabic rules to English as in derivativeness, the Arabic sound system as in the case of the absence of /p/ and /v/ in distortion due to spelling errors, among others” (p.26). He also found that it is the lack of knowledge Arab students have about the L2 semantic system caused such errors. Although his study focused on semantics, it gives us an understanding of the role of syntax in giving meaning.

At present, many Arab students in universities outside of their own countries are experiencing problems with speaking and writing in the English language. Fadi (2010) noted, unsurprisingly, that “Like any second language learners, Arab learners face many problems in acquiring and communicating in English.” (p.2)

Generally, standard Arabic and standard English share some linguistic features in phonological, morphological, syntactical, semantics, and pragmatics. The syntactical systems are diversely different. There are two major types of English and Arabic Basic Sentence Structure: nominal and verbal. One of the major differences between Arabic and English grammar is that English has verbal sentences only whereas Arabic has both nominal and verbal sentences. Even in the simplest sentences in English there should be at least one verb: In *Ahmed is a teacher*, the verb is, but in Arabic it is enough to say *Ahmed teacher* indicating the same meaning.

In Arabic, the nominal sentence does not have any verb. In general, it consists of two parts, the first is called 'Subject' (*المبتدأ*), and the second is called 'Predicate' (*الخبر*). To understand sentence structures in the English language, we should first have a general understanding of the types of words used to structure the sentences. Any English sentence consists of three basic components or parts. The basic structure of the English sentence is (S + V + O/C) as follows:

- **S**= Subject: the person or the thing that does something. He eats cake. ("he" is the subject, and it is a pronoun, functioning as a noun)
- **V**= Verb: a word that expresses an action, occurrence, or a state of being. ("eats" is the verb)
- **O**= Object: the person or the thing that receives the action of the verb. ("cake" is the object).

Arabic has different types of sentences and different structures. The four types of Arabic sentences are: verbal sentences (*الفعلية*), nominal sentences (*الاسمية الجملة*), functional sentences (*لكي لِهِ السَّامِعُ فيَلْعَبْ فَيْنَ هُنَّ*), and, non-functional sentences (*لعْبُ مَعَ السَّامِعِ من الاَجْهَال*).

The structure of the Arabic verbal sentence is (V + S + O/C). So while the order is different from an English sentence, the components are the same. There are variations on verbal sentence types in Arabic like the 'kaanna' sentence, the conditional sentence, the imperative sentence, and so on. The structure of the nominal sentence is (Topic + Comment), without a verb. Also there are variations on nominal sentence types in Arabic like the 'Inna' sentence, the prepositional sentence, the adverbial sentence, and the fronted comment and belated topic sentence. The verb in verbal sentences usually precedes the subject but when it follows the subject, the sentence is a nominal one.
The difference between a verbal and nominal sentence is that the former refers to an act or event, whereas the latter gives a description of a person or thing. The same English sentence can be translated into Arabic in two different ways: As a Nominal sentence: أحمد يلعب القدم، it can be translated this way and be grammatically correct. "أحمد" here is a topic not a subject. As a Verbal sentence: نجاع القدم يلعب أحم، We change the order of the verb and the subject making the structure: V + S + O Ahmed plays soccer. Although this sentence starts with a noun, this noun is the subject of the verb that comes after but this does not make the sentence Nominal. English has only verbal sentences so this sentence is verbal. The structure, S + V + O is the same in all grammatically correct English sentences. The most common mistake that students make is to translate sentences from Arabic into English in the same order neglecting the rules of English grammar and syntax. Although it is a simple rule that each of them has its own structure and order, students still often make this mistake. For example: the English sentence: Hend studies History, is translated into Arabic this way: تدرس Hend التاريخ. This is a huge mistake because simply duplicating the Arabic sentence structure makes it incomprehensible. Words should not be literally translated; attention should be paid to the set of rules, or grammar of each language. So, the correct translation is: Hend studies history. S + V + O تدرس جهان التاريخ + S + O. Errors occur when learners translate from L1 to L2 (this could be caused by interference). When they speak L2, they apply the rules of L1 and translate either the rules or the content (Moubaiddin et al., 2014). Thus, the different linguistic rules can cause students of a L2 to commit errors in speaking.

When a learner attempts to communicate in the target language, he may use a linguistic system different from the source and the target language. This is called ‘interlanguage’. It refers to an independent second language learner’s system that has an intermediate link between the first and target language. It is a system based on the best attempt learners use to provide order and structure to the linguistic stimuli surrounding them. Through trials and errors, learners gradually succeed in creating closer approximations to the system used by L1 speakers of the language (Selinker 1972). Thus, interlanguage is a system that compromises and approximates the learner language.

The term ‘interlanguage’ (Selinker, 1972) refers to the systematic knowledge of an L2 which is independent of both the learner’s L1 and the target language. It also refers to the series of interrelated systems which describe acquisition, the system that is noticed at a single stage of development and a particular L1/L2 combination (for example, L1 French/L2 English v. L1 Japanese/L2 English) (Ellis, 1994). Other related terms are the same basic idea of ‘approximative system’ (Nemser, 1971) and ‘transitional competence’ (Corder, 1967).

There is a continual process experienced by the learner from L1 in acquiring the target language. For each stage there is an interlanguage, the learner makes attempts to communicate in the target language until he/she creates a system from the source language that represents the frame of the target language.

**Conceptual framework**

Conceptually, this study concerns the academic exchanges between two people; the student and the supervisor. According to Van Duzer (1997), a successful exchange requires speakers who have good skills and speech habits. This will enable them to participate in anticipated patterns of
Syntactic Errors in an Arab EFL Postgraduate Student’s Academic Discourse Situations. According to Burns & Joyce (1997) usually these speakers can handle turn-taking, rephrasing, providing feedback, or redirecting because knowing the usual patterns of the exchanges is important to expand further interaction and accumulate knowledge as the exchange progresses. They outline the following features for exchanges to take place. The speaker must be able to:

i. using grammar structures accurately;
ii. assessing characteristics of the target audience, including shared knowledge or shared points of reference, status and power relations of participants, interest levels, or differences in perspectives;
iii. selecting vocabulary that is understandable and appropriate for the audience, the topic being discussed, and the setting in which the speech act occurs;
iv. applying strategies to enhance comprehensibility, such as emphasizing key words.

**Methodology**

Case studies are defined in different ways depending on the context and background of the research. Merriam (1988) for instance states that: “Case study can be defined as an intensive, holistic description and analysis of a single entity, phenomenon, or social unit. Case studies are particularistic, descriptive, and heuristic and rely heavily on inductive reasoning in handling multiple data sources” (p. 16). Thus, using Merriam’s definition of a case study, this study focuses on one participant selected based on purposeful sampling. One of the key aspects of using a case study is the fact that the phenomenon is studied in a context. This allows the researcher to view the reality of speaking of the academic exchanges during thesis supervision (Ferris & Tagg, 1996a, 1996b) and Mason (1995). The time frame for this study was within a semester or fourteen weeks of an academic calendar.

**Selection of participant**

Selecting a sample in a qualitative research is crucial to ensure the validity of the sampling. Purposive sampling method was employed in this study where one post-graduate student who fulfilled sampling criteria was selected as the participant. This was in line with Creswell’s (2005, p. 204) “researchers intentionally select individuals and sites to learn or understand the central phenomenon. The standard used in choosing participants and sites is whether they are rich in information.” The case was a 42-year-old Arab Jordanian postgraduate student who had been in Malaysia for three years. The participant started learning English formally for a total of eight years with six years at the primary level and two years at the secondary level. In terms of English requirement, the participant’s IELTS score was 6.5 which qualified the participant to be admitted to the postgraduate programme at the university. The participant communicated in English only with the supervisor and non-Arabic speakers.

**Research instruments**

**Audio-tape recording**

Two types of data elicitation procedures were used: 1) audio-tape recording and 2) face-to-face interview. To achieve the first part of the research objectives, data was collected through audio-tape recording. The primary purpose of carrying out the audio-tape recording was to capture the reality of a case in a natural setting which was the academic exchanges between the supervisee
and the supervisor. Ideally, the researcher wanted to conduct three meetings; however, it was difficult to arrange for the third meeting as the supervisee was not available due to field work. The scheduled meetings took place at the end of April and end of May, and the duration of recording agreed upon by the researcher and the supervisor was 30 to 60 minutes. A digital audio-tape recorder was used to record the conversations throughout the sessions. The first meeting of the audio-taping was completed in 30 minutes and the second was in 35 minutes. The researcher was a non-participant observer during both meetings.

**Research Procedure**

The data was collected within the time frame of 14 weeks of the second semester as agreed by the supervisor. Before the researcher selected the supervisor for the research, he identified five supervisors at the school using purposeful sampling. These supervisors were approached by the researcher’s main supervisor who was their colleague at the school. One supervisor asked his student to participate in the study based on some criteria. A consent form was completed by the selected student in fulfilment of the ethics requirement. A schedule for recording the meetings was then agreed upon. The duration allotted for each session of data collection was 30 to 60 minutes.

**Stage 1: Data collection**

The two supervision sessions were audio-taped for a duration of between 30 to 60 minutes each. This took place in the month of May. The meetings were held in the supervisor’s office at the School. The researcher’s role was a non-participant observer throughout the scheduled meetings.

**Stage 2: Data transcription**

The next stage was data transcription. The researcher transcribed the data immediately after each meeting. Through repeated careful listening, the recorded conversations were transcribed verbatim for closer study. Throughout the transcribing process, the researcher used reduction, interpretation and representation to make the written text readable and meaningful. Using Gumperz and Berenz (1993), the researcher marked out boundaries to indicate different exchanges that took place.

**Stage 3: Coding**

Next, the data was coded and put into tables based on Noor Hashim’s (1996) categories of syntactic errors. Thus, there were seven columns for the seven categories comprising verbal errors, relative clauses, adverbial clauses, sentence structure, articles, prepositions and conjunctions.

Next the portions of the conversations with errors were identified accordingly in each column with a tick. For example, the first type of error which is ‘verbal error’ was coded as VE. ‘Tense’ is an error that falls under VE thus, it was coded T, hence any tense error was coded as VE-T.

**Stage 4: Frequency count**

The errors were identified by ticking each respective category from the seven categories. Using an Excel file, a frequency count was done to find out which types of errors occurred most frequently.

**Face-to-face interviews**

Semi-structured face-to-face interviews were conducted with the participant. Berg (2007) defines an interview as a conversation with a purpose. Any conversation that aims to gather information
is considered an interview by standard definition (Denzin, 1978; Spradley, 1979; Patton, 2001). Three main questions guided the interview with reference to the conversations and syntactic errors identified: 1) What do you think of this sentence structure? 2) Do you see any problem with this sentence structure? Yes/no? Why? 3) How would you rectify or improve it? These questions were based on Hymes’ (1980) Communicative Competence theory. The researcher used a digital audio-tape recorder to record the informal interview which was completed in 30 minutes.

Data Analysis
The data was prepared for analysis in two ways: categorization based on coding and frequency count and interpretive analysis. For coding, the seven categories as identified by Noor Hashim (1996) comprised: Verbal errors (VE), Relative clauses (RC), Adverbial clauses (AC), Sentence structure (SS), Articles (A), Prepositions (P) and Conjunctions (C). Besides the main headings; a sub coding was created for the sub-headings, hence the researcher used abbreviations to mark the categories as follows (the following two categories shown are examples taken from the seven categories):

i. Verbal errors (VE)
   Codes
   a. Tense T
      VE-T
   b. Tense sequence TS
      VE-TTS
   c. Tense substitution TSubs
      VE-TTsubs

ii. Relative clauses RC
    a. Interlingua errors of relative clauses IERC
    b. Relative Pronoun Deletion RPD
       IERC-RPD
       RC-RPD

Findings of the study
To fulfil the first part of the research aim, which is identifying the syntactic errors, data from the transcribed audio-tape recordings was analysed. The results show that the participant committed errors in six categories during the first meeting: sentence structure, verbal errors, prepositions, relative clauses, articles and adverbial clauses. In the second meeting, the participant committed errors in five categories: verbal errors, sentence structure, preposition use, relative clauses and use of articles. For this purpose, a frequency count was done to show the spread of the overall errors as shown in the table below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of errors</th>
<th>Errors occurring in meeting 1</th>
<th>Errors occurring in meeting 2</th>
<th>Total number of errors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Verbal errors</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relative clauses</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Frequency count

Table 1. Frequency count of the errors
Following are some examples taken from the three most frequent errors identified during the first meeting, which are sentence structures, verbal errors and prepositions respectively.

**Meeting 1**

1. **Sentence structures**
   (L007): No, this what according to UKM Gaya (SS-WO)
   *No, this one was done according to UKM Gaya.
   (L055): What about chapter 5 is ok? (SS)
   *Is chapter 5 ok?
   (L071: You told the last time that it is the form should fill in. (SS-WOMC)
   *You said the last time that it was the form that I should fill in.

**Meeting 2**
(L016): She said, she told just this the only page you have to print out. (SS-WO)
*She said that it was the only page I had to print out.
(L185): Yah, may be may be one thing I may change it, ok? (SS-WOMC)
*Yah, I might change one thing, is it ok?
(L051): this is I think the part for you, I fill my own. (SS-WO)
*I think that this part is for you. I filled in mine already.

**Meeting 1**

2. **Verbal errors**
   (L069): I think you. (VE-VFAD)
   *I think it is you.
   (L147): DM focus in what? (VE-CDTPSM)
   *What does DM focus in?
   (L149): I read articles for DH. (VE-TTSUBS)
   *I have read articles for DH.

**Meeting 2**
(L018): But all of them the same percentage. (VE-VFAD)
*But, they are all of the same percentage.
(L022): She send me an email, yah, one hour. (VE-TTSUBS)
*She sent me an email, yah, one hour before.
(L039): Yes, in the system, she told me that the similarity in the system.
*Yah, she told me that the similarity is in the system.

**Meeting 1**

3. **Prepositions**

---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Error Type</th>
<th>No. in Meeting 1</th>
<th>No. in Meeting 2</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Adverbial clauses</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sentence structures</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Articles</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Prepositions</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conjunctions</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(L031): Yah, I put this my computer. (P-PD)
*Yah, I put this on/in my computer.
(L045): I am classic in every day. (P-PR)
*I am classic every day.
(L063): To you, you have sign that and DZ should. (P-PD)
*To you, you and DZ have to sign this.

Meeting 2
(L041): Yah, may be on your paper. (P-PS)
*Yah, may be in your paper.
(L049): Aaaa, this is the final form I have to with the four copies(copies)…(PD)
*Aaa, this is the final form that I have to hand for four copies.
(L189): I found difficulty in convince this participant to take part in my study. (P-PR)
*I found difficulty to convince the participant to take part in my study.

From the above examples, the frequency of the errors committed might be influenced by many causes and strategy use. It also shows the interference of the first language L1 in interpreting or translating to second language. Interestingly, most errors occur in the ‘sentence structure’ category. A closer analysis shows that within each category, the participant committed errors in the same sub category, for instance, for both meetings, in the ‘sentence structure’ (SS) category, the sub-category was word order (WO) for both. In the ‘verbal errors’ (VE) category, the sub-category was tense substitution (TSubs) for both meetings. Next, for ‘preposition’ (P) category, more errors were committed in preposition omission in meeting 1 but fewer in meeting 2. For ‘relative clauses’ (RC), more errors were committed at structural misinterpretation of relative clauses category – missing antecedents (RC-SMRC-MA). More errors in the ‘article’ category, redundancy of the indefinite article (A-DARDA), were committed more at the first meeting.

Face-to-face interview
The aim of the interview was to get the participant’s explanation for some of the errors committed based on the transcribed data. When asked about the errors committed, the participant responded as follows:

i. “I keep repeating the mistakes unconsciously, I know that those are mistakes but when I keep speaking something sticks to my mind.”

ii. “I depend always the easiest way even when mentioning the numbers, there is no need to focus and differentiate between ordinal numbers.”

iii. “I use some words instead of one other like using (tell) instead of (say) in some positions because I like using that word much more than the other.”

The above samples of the interview data show that the participant was aware of the errors committed but did not have control over making them. This seems to suggest that the errors have been fossilized. The participant resorted to an easy way when referring to numbers which could be a strategy adopted. The participant’s preference for certain words could mean that there was confusion between the verb ‘tell’ and ‘say’ in English.
Next, the participant was asked whether there was any problem with some of the sentences. The responses were as follows:

i. “When I speak English, it is obviously that my L1 interferes into the L2.”
ii. “I keep emphasizing the words to make sure that I deliver my message to whom I talk to.”
iii. “I use my language according to the state I feel for example when I am worried I keep using the word (worried).”
iv. “I skip focusing on the grammar and the right way of speech.”

The above samples show that the participant was conscious of the problems in the sentences but preferred not to correct them as in (c), as it reflected the participant’s mental state at the time of speaking. In other words, the errors were committed without concerning about the rules.

The last question asked was whether the participant would rectify the errors in the sentences, and the responses were as follows:

i. “It would be better if I focused on training in English rather than focusing on grammar.”
ii. “Grammar focusing way makes us making mistakes, not like when we use the Communicative approach.”
iii. “I don’t care for my language as long as the addressee knows what I talk about although I know the correct way. It is a strategy called “safe plan strategy”.”

The above samples indicate that the participant is critical of the way the participant had learned English which was through the grammar-based approach, and would have preferred to have been taught using the communicative approach.

**Discussion**

The findings highlight the syntactic errors in two academic exchanges of an Arab EFL postgraduate student with her academic supervisor, this answers the first objective. A face-to-face interview reveals the factors contributed to these errors which answers the second objective. The errors are can be explained by L1 interference on the L2 (English) oral production. The academic exchanges follow the usual conversation patterns which allow both the participant and the supervisor to share the knowledge and information of what being discussed. This can be explained by the shared context as posited by Nunan (2010). Although the participant did not use the grammar structures accurately, some efforts were made by the participant to sustain the interest levels and differences in views of the supervisor. Appropriate vocabulary or choice of words seemed to be a challenge for the participant at times however the participant used some repeated words for clarification to ensure that the communication took place. This concurs with Burns & Joyce (1997)’s description of a good speaker.

**Conclusion**

Taking this research further on implication for teaching, teachers should give appropriate feedback after checking the inaccuracies in the learner’s interlanguage. Unlike the behaviourist approach which advocates the use of drills and considers errors as signs of failure in their teaching methods, the concept of interlanguage does not restrict language teaching and paves the way for communicative teaching methods or CLT. Since errors are considered a reflection of the students’
temporary language system and therefore a natural part of the learning process, teachers could now use teaching activities which do not call for constant supervision of the student’s language. Group work and pair work can be incorporated in the classrooms to maximize students’ participations. The use of information and communication technologies (ICT) may be adopted in language teaching and learning. In doing so, it can assist students to cope with their academic demands and to perform in their disciplines and professional contexts successfully.

About the Authors:
Ahmed Abdoulzahraa Yasin received his Bachelor degree in Education, Department of English from Basra University-Iraq. He is currently doing his master degree by research in Health Sciences, Speech and Hearing Department, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. His current research is in English language syntax. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-8633-9720

Kemboja Ismail,Ph.D, is a senior lecturer at the Faculty of Social Sciences and Humanities, Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. She was the Head of English Language Studies Programme at the Center for Literacy and Sociocultural Transformation from 2014 to early 2018. Her research interests include Academic Reading and Writing, Assessment, e-Learning and multimodality in teaching and learning. https://orcid.org/0000-0001-7851-0818

Mohammad Subakir Mohd Yasin, Ph.D, teaches syntactic theories to both undergraduate and postgraduate students at Universiti Kebangsaan Malaysia. His current research interests are in endangered languages, gender related issues, and identity. He welcomes collaborative works in these areas. Dr Yasin is also a member of an editorial board in two indexed journals based in UKM. https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2135-7271

References


Professional Learning through Coaching: toward the Enhancement of the Teachers’ Pedagogical Competence

Siti Tarwiyah
Department of English Language Education
Universitas Islam Negeri Walisongo Semarang Indonesia

Warsono
Department of Language Education, Post-graduate Program
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia

Dwi Anggani Linggar Bharati
Department of Language Education, Post-graduate Program
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia

Djoko Sutopo
Department of Language Education, Post-graduate Program
Universitas Negeri Semarang, Indonesia

Abstract
Coaching is mainly purposed to build teacher capacity to enhance the success of learning and the quality of education in general. This paper is aimed at describing the coaching materials, methods, and the effectiveness of coaching in English Foreign Language (EFL) learning to strengthen the teachers’ pedagogical competence. Six Junior High School EFL teachers of Central Java, Indonesia (T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, and T6) attended three-month weekly coachee-centered coaching leading to the implementation of student-centered learning. Observation of the teaching-learning process, review of the lesson plan, and an interview with the EFL teachers through Focus Group Discussion were done before coaching was carried out to identify the coachees’ preliminary pedagogical competence and needs. The coaching materials encompassed using songs in EFL class, learning principles and activity-based learning, teaching methods, teaching vocabulary, teaching grammar, teaching the four language skills, assessing attitude, knowledge, and skill, and process skills. Coachee-centered coaching was implemented to present the materials through such methods as Demonstration, Scientific Approach, Lecturing and Discussion, Problem-Based Learning, Task-Based Learning, Inquiry Learning, Presentation-Practice-Production.

Key words: professional learning, coaching, pedagogical competence

Introduction

Building teacher capacity and professional culture are demanded to improve and sustain professional practices. Professional learning may bridge the implementation of effective teaching practices. Through professional learning a teacher will interact with other teachers to involve in such activities as an academic discussion, sharing, peer lesson, lesson study, mentoring, etc. The rapid change of science and technology boosts teachers to equip themselves with adequate competence to bring students to the standardized outcome.

The emergence of studies on the implementation of coaching in educational practices represents the importance of that matter. Rivera-McCutchen & Panero (2014, pp. 86-101) examine the effectiveness of highly detailed “low-inference” transcripts (LITs) of peer coaching conversations to explore the kinds of interactions that led peers to be more reflective about their instructional practice. The transcripts were drawn from two public US high schools in New York City and used to identify an “Aha!” moment; a moment of the shift of the peer’s prior belief about their instruction and/or planning. Findings suggested that “Aha!” moment involved a thoughtful and strategic use of the low-inference transcripts during the coaching conversation and passive use of the transcripts was less successful. Butler & Yeum (2016, pp. 72-89) studied the dialogic competence of five Korean primary school English teachers in online peer coaching. It was found that, teachers need to (a) engage in internal dialogues (intradialogues) using their own knowledge and experience in order to interpret their peers’ behaviors and intentions and then (b) verbalize their intradialogues into interdialogues, in the process of modifying and negotiating the content with others. Meng & Tajaroensuk (2013, pp. 44-53) investigated the activities and effectiveness of a workshop as a part of Multilayered Peer Coaching Model (MPC Model) developed for twelve Guiyang University’s EFL teachers in-service professional development. The results showed that the workshop was effective in the follow-up teaching practice. Eastman (2016, pp. 105-115) used fictional characters to develop coaching practice of post graduate students. A cohort of students played as the source of hypothetical scenarios. It was directed to simulate workplace problems and functioned as a simulative context in which coaching students could apply theoretical models. The success of its implementation was assessed qualitatively using the excerpts of the students’ written work. The result suggested literary fictional texts supported the enhancement of coach training since it could facilitate coach students to create stronger and more creative narratives in their work-based projects. Foen Ng, Confessore & Abdullah (2012, pp. 191-204) assess the effect of a five-week coaching intervention on Learner Autonomy Profile (LAP) scores and academic success of pre-diploma university students in Malaysia. It used quasi-experimental designed. Participants completed the LAP pre- and post-intervention. 35 students of the experimental group participated in five-week learner autonomy coaching and wrote reflection logs in the computer between meetings. Fifty-two students of the control group received no intervention. Students who got intervention experienced significant increases in the mean post- over pre-intervention LAP scores or in GPA. Jauregi & Melchor-Couto (2017) find coaching effective in teacher competence development for telecollaboration.

Literature Review

Professional Learning

Cole (2012,) defines professional learning as “the formal and informal learning experiences undertaken by teachers and school leaders that improve their individual professional practice and
the school’s collective effectiveness as measured by improved student engagement and learning outcomes” (p. 4) The term of professional learning is commonly embraced with professional learning community. This is due to learning may not be assured effectively unless through others. International Center for leadership in Education (2016) suggests that professional learning community is a self-supportive and created learning. Professional learning brings the participants to be professional; to be able to execute their tasks at any time, in any situation. Professional learning is mainly characterized by “a shared intellectual purpose and a sense of collective responsibility for student learning.” (Wei, 2009, p. 11).

Other characteristics of professional learning are posited by Newmann and Associates (2002) as cited in Vescio, 2006, pp. 3-4). In their opinion, professional learning should meet five essential characteristics: (1) shared values and norms in relation to such points as the views about children and children’s ability to learn, school priorities for the use of time and space, and the proper roles of parents, teachers, and administrators, (2) clear and consistent focus on student learning, that it is not simply to ensure that students are taught but also learn, (3) reflective dialogue about curriculum, instruction and student development, (4) group collaboration.

Professional learning requires interaction among members to share and learn each other about current educational issues and practices. Through professional learning teachers meet on a regular schedule in learning teams organized by shared responsibility for their students’ success and based on the determined plan. The plan is made after examining student data and identifying the areas of student needs. The learning team engages in developing powerful lessons and assessments, applying new strategies in the real learning process. Professional learning stimulates teachers to leave their comfort zone by having more challenging teaching.

**Coaching**

Coaching is devoted primarily to teaching participants new skills. There are four steps required to deliver the skills. The steps are: (1) presentation of the theory or skill, (2) demonstration of the skill, (3) repeated opportunities to practice the skill under both simulated and actual classroom conditions, (4) repeated feedback on the practice efforts (Keith & Robert, 1991, pp. 200-204).

Lofthouse, Leat & Towler (2010, p. 8) define coaching as focused professional dialogue aims at aiding the coachees in developing certain professional skills to improve their teaching repertoire. The coachees are commonly given space to experiment with new classroom strategies. As it purposes to enhance teaching repertoire, coaching needs to meet the following key qualities: (1) promoting professional dialogue on teaching issues that are of interest to the coachees, (2) planning, developing and evaluating teaching activities in collaborative ways, (3) facilitating experimentation and reflection, (4) fostering reflection that will help effective teachers when planning and evaluating their teaching by discussing pedagogical issues in their teaching (McGrane & Lofthouse, 2010, p. 188).

“Coaching is inherently a reflective process.” (Jackson, 2004, p. 57) As a reflective process, coaching is directed at making better changes to the sector becoming its focus of attention. In the
educational field, a coaching program is a form of teacher professional development expected to improve the quality of teaching-learning process, which ends up with the quality of student outcomes. In EFL class, reflective practices may be done through journal writing, peer observation, lesson report, and classroom action research. The area may be covered in the reflection are teachers’ and learners’ beliefs, teacher decision making, teachers’ role, the structure of a lesson, classroom interaction, classroom activities, and language use (Richard, 2007, pp. v-vii). Such a comprehensive reflection contributes to the better EFL class and students’ language competence and performance.

Based on the notions of coaching above it may be concluded that coaching in EFL learning is directed to improve the EFL teachers’ repertoire in teaching based on the content, process, and assessment. An efficient coaching may be reached through a thorough plan, attentive control to the process, and appropriate follow up.

**Pedagogical Competence**

Indonesian Government Regulation No. 19 Year 2005 on National Standard of Education Article 28 Sub-article 3 defines pedagogical competence as the competence to manage the learning of learners which covers understanding learners, planning and implementing a lesson, evaluating products of learning, and developing learners to actualize their potentials. In addition, the addendum of the Indonesian Minister of Education’s Decree No. 16 Year 2007 on the standard of academic qualification and teacher competence mentions the cores of pedagogical competence as follow: (1) understanding students’ characteristics from physical, moral, spiritual, social, cultural, emotional, and intellectual aspects, (2) mastering theories and principles of learning, (3) developing curriculum in relation to the taught subject, (4) conducting educational learning; (5) employing information and communication technology for the purpose of learning, (6) facilitating the development and the actualization of learners’ potential, (7) communicating with learners effectively, emphatically, and politely, (8) conducting assessment and evaluation of the process and the product of learning, (9) making use of assessment and evaluation for learning purposes, and (10) doing reflective activities to improve the quality of learning.

Akhyak (2013, p. 4) defines pedagogical competence as the competence to organize teaching learning process of learners. It consists of three competences, i.e. planning, process, and assessment and evaluation. The competence in planning teaching learning process comprises describing objectives, selecting materials, determining methods and strategies, determining learning sources and media, designing assessment and evaluation instruments, determining assessment and evaluation techniques, and allocating time. Teaching learning process competence is reflected in the competences in opening a lesson, delivering materials, using media and methods, using communicative language, motivating students, organizing activities, interacting with students communicatively, concluding a lesson, providing feedback, conducting assessment and evaluation, and using time effectively. The competence of assessment and evaluation comprises choosing questions based on the level of difficulty and discriminating power, repairing problems, checking the answers, classifying and processing the results, making interpretation, determining the correlated problems, arranging follow-up programs, identifying the need for follow-up, carrying out follow-up, and analyzing the results of evaluation.
Pedagogical competence takes the biggest portion of all the four competences, i.e. pedagogical, interpersonal, social, and professional competences. The rest of three competences are blended in the realization of teaching learning processes.

Methods
This descriptive study describes coaching materials, procedure, and the enhancement of the teachers’ pedagogical competence after the coaching program was administered. Six Junior High School EFL teachers of Central Java, Indonesia (T1, T2, T3, T4, T5, and T6) attended ten-week coachee-centered coaching leading to the implementation of student-centered learning. Observation of teaching-learning process, review of the lesson plan, and an interview with the EFL teachers through Focus Group Discussion (FGD) were done before coaching was carried out to identify the coachees’ pedagogical competence and needs. The same procedure, except FGD was carried out to identify the teachers’ pedagogical competence after being coached in EFL learning. Presentation and demonstration of theory and skills were conducted in six weekly meeting which was continued with implementation in twice individual classroom teaching and peer reflection in the following four weeks. Peer reflection was done after each individual teaching. In the first and the fourth teaching the teachers’ pedagogical competence before and after the coaching program was compared to identify its enhancement.

Results
The Coaching Materials and Methods
The coaching program implemented was coachee-centered coaching. It was aimed at giving a model of participant-centered activities. The modeling might energize the coachees to bring it into their classroom practice (read: learner-centered learning). The material presentation spent six meetings in six weeks. Each meeting lasted 70 minutes. The table below shows the materials presented and discussed from the first to the ninth meetings together with the methods of delivery:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Week</th>
<th>Material</th>
<th>Method</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Using Songs in EFL Class Learning Principles and Activity-Based Learning</td>
<td>Demonstration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Scientific Approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Teaching Vocabulary</td>
<td>Demonstration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scientific Approach</td>
<td>Problem-Based Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inquiry Learning</td>
<td>Task-Based Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teaching Grammar</td>
<td>Demonstration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Problem-Based Learning</td>
<td>Scientific approach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Genre-Based Instruction</td>
<td>Task-Based Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Teaching Listening and Speaking</td>
<td>Lecturing and discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contextual Learning</td>
<td>Lecturing and discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Teaching Reading and Writing</td>
<td>Lecturing and discussion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Assessing Attitude, Knowledge, Skill</td>
<td>Inquiry Learning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Process Skills (Planning, Implementing, Assessing and Evaluating A Lesson)</td>
<td>Presentation-Practice-Production</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>The Implementation of Materials</td>
<td>Individual Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Peer Reflection</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>The Implementation of Materials</td>
<td>Individual Teaching</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Reflection</td>
<td>Peer Reflection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The implementation of participant-centered sessions was represented through the choice of method in every session. Before starting the session, the researcher usually shared or invited the teachers to share some teaching strategies, warmer, or filler in the form of a game or song. Each material was supported with individual or pair worksheet. As the materials were packed based on need analysis of the teachers, they joined almost every session enthusiastically. The big problem of the presentation session was the limitation of time. Two learning hours (2 x 35 minutes) were not enough to discuss every matter.

Peer reflection was administered after every individual teaching through which there had been a kind of peer lesson among the coachees. Hence, significant improvement was made in the following teaching.

The figure describes how each activity is related to another activity. First is determining the coaching materials from the researcher’s perspectives based on first teaching (pre-coaching teaching) and from the teachers’ perspectives through FGD. The confirmed materials are presented in the agreed specified times and places. To make sure the teachers’ understanding, the materials are implemented in the second teaching. Teaching problems are identified and solved through reflection meeting. The improvement of the teachers’ pedagogical competence is identified through the third teaching.

If an action research in education were conducted, the coaching program might be continued by re-identifying the teachers’ needs if the significant improvement was not made. If the significant improvement had been made but the teachers still expected to continue their professional learning the coaching program might be followed with the mentoring program.

1) The Enhancement of the Teachers’ Competence in Planning an English Lesson
Coaching seems to be instrumental to innovate teachers’ pedagogical competence. Effective coaching facilitates teachers to work more properly. The coaching program which had been done could strengthen almost all aspects of the teachers’ pedagogical competence. The score falls into 5 categories, i.e. excellent (8≥), good (7-8), fair (6-7), bad (5-6), and very bad (≤5).

The average score of the teachers’ competence in planning an English lesson before and after being coached in EFL learning improves 1.073 points from 5.646 (bad) to 6.719 (fair).

The detailed quantitative data below show the difference of the mean score of the teachers’ competence in planning before and after being coached in ELF learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Before Coaching</th>
<th>After Coaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formulating Objectives and/or Indicators</td>
<td>8.217</td>
<td>9.283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing Materials</td>
<td>3.367</td>
<td>7.383</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning the Activities</td>
<td>8.100</td>
<td>9.583</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Determining Learning Sources, Media</td>
<td>4.450</td>
<td>7.533</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 The Score of the Teachers’ Competence in Planning an English Lesson before and after being Coached in EFL Learning
Among the eight aspects of planning, designing assessment and evaluation instrument and allocating time are two aspects with decreasing scores. The former decreases from 6.117 to 5.424 or 0.693 points, the later reduces from 6.333 to 5.333 or 1.000 points. The researcher will only highlight the two aspects.

Four of eleven indicators of designing assessment and evaluation instrument get no improvement (check the shadowed cell of table 3).

The decrease of the scores might be due to the lack of time to prepare a complete written lesson plan before teaching. When the researcher asked them the reasons for not completing the lesson plans, they said that they were busy doing some other school work, i.e. completing the school data, preparing national exam for the ninth-year students. If their previous teachings were always based on lesson plans, they would not have consumed a significant amount of time to prepare lesson plans for the next teachings. They would only have modified the used ones.
Regarding designing instruments for assessing attitudes all the teachers designed the instrument. In term of preparing appropriate scoring rubric for assessing attitude, T1 prepared a rubric for assessing respect, care, self-confidence, T4 prepared it for assessing responsibility and team work but with inappropriate indicator, T5 provided it for assessing seriousness, responsibility, care, team work, and love, which were too many focused characters. All of them used so frequent, frequent, sometimes, ever, and never or always, frequent, sometimes, and never as indicators. They are not indicators but score criteria. They do not show the students’ performance indicating the assessed attitudes.

Dealing with putting questions measuring High Order Thinking skill (HOTs) in assessing knowledge T1 and T4 were the only teachers who covered HOTs questions in their assessment. T1 had his students write a post card telling their holiday to their old friends after reading a text about someone’s holiday to Bogor. T4 got his students to conclude the reasons for bold typing and underlining parts of a song.

Surprisingly, in the lesson plan designed after the coaching program, no teacher prepared an appropriate scoring rubric for assessing knowledge. Scoring rubric for assessing knowledge is the simplest rubric since usually the aspect assessed is the accuracy of students’ answer, either based on text or based on the corresponding meaning or definition. If the questions are considerably difficult to answer teachers may score 2 for the correct answer and score 1 for the wrong answer. If the questions are easy, the score is 1 for the correct answer and 0 for the wrong answer. The common maximum score is 10. Teachers are suggested to inform the rubric to the students doing an assignment.

Four teachers designed assessment for attitude, knowledge, and skill (T1, T3, T4, T5). T2 only planned to assess skill and T6 only prepared an assessment instrument to assess knowledge. Basically, when a teacher assesses skill, he also automatically assess knowledge, which is the prerequisite to perform the assessed skill. But the task scaffolding is unclear if the teacher does not design cognitive assessment implicitly.

Pertaining to time allocation, T4 and T5 did not plan their time, T2 had proportional time allocation, T1, T3, T6 should have 10 minutes for opening activities instead of having 5 minutes.

2) The Enhancement of the Teachers’ Competence in Implementing an English Lesson

The improvement of the teachers’ competence in implementing an English lesson is shown by the mean score of the competence after the program, which reaches 7.129 (good). Before being coached the mean score of the competence is 3.976 (very bad) or it improves 3.153 points.

The scores of all the aspects of implementing competence improve after the coaching program. The most dramatic improvement happens to the aspect of opening a lesson, which increases 4.734 points from 2.683 to 7.417. There are eight activities in the opening stage, i.e. (1) motivating and making students ready to learn, (2) explaining the learning goals, (3) explaining how the presented material is related to the previous one, (4) informing the coverage of the materials, (5) explaining the techniques and the stages of learning, (6) informing the scope of assessment, (7) informing the technique of assessment, and (8) getting information about the level
of students’ understanding of the lesson. All the teachers performed at least six activities or indicators except T5 who performed four indicators only. The score improvement of all aspects of implementing competence is covered in table 4.

Table 4  The Score of the Teachers’ Competence in Implementing an English Lesson before and after being Coached in EFL Learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Before Coaching</th>
<th>After Coaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Implementing</td>
<td>Opening a Lesson</td>
<td>2.683</td>
<td>7.417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizing the Activities</td>
<td>6.050</td>
<td>8.850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using Media</td>
<td>5.467</td>
<td>8.600</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using Communicative Language</td>
<td>5.317</td>
<td>5.767</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Motivating Student</td>
<td>5.833</td>
<td>9.567</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Using Time Effectively</td>
<td>4.167</td>
<td>9.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Closing a Lesson</td>
<td>2.292</td>
<td>7.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Mean</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>3.976</strong></td>
<td><strong>7.129</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Using communicative language gains the least improvement, with only 0.450 points from 5.17 to 5.767. There are some points to ponder in using a language as a medium of instruction. They are (1) using a comprehensible language, (2) using correct word choice, grammar, (3) using appropriate language, and (4) using correct pronunciation, stress, and intonation. Improving the teachers’ language performance needs time, commitment, and consistence in regular learning and practice.

Another aspect needs to be highlighted is using time effectively. This aspect decreases 1.000 point in the planning stage but increases 5.166 points from 4.167 to 9.333 in implementing stage. T1, T2, T3, T4 managed their time effectively. Meanwhile, T1 did not have enough time for reflection and T2 did not cover communicating stage. Overall, the teachers’ time management in implementing stage is better than in the planning stage. This is to say that continues practise makes teachers equip themselves with automatic controlling/managing skills. One of the skills is managing time.

Organizing the activities also reaches considerable enhancement from 6.050 to 8.850 or 2.800 points. Table 5 provides the score of each indicator of organizing the activities.
Table 5 *The Score of each indicator of organizing the activities*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicators of Organizing the Activities</th>
<th>Before Coaching</th>
<th>After Coaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Activities are systematically implemented and facilitate the achievement of learning goals</td>
<td>6.333</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Activities are learner-centered</td>
<td>6.555</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Activities facilitate the learning of knowledge</td>
<td>7.833</td>
<td>8.333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Activities facilitate the learning of a skill</td>
<td>4.000</td>
<td>7.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Activities develop students’ collaboration skill</td>
<td>6.666</td>
<td>9.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Activities develop students’ critical thinking skill</td>
<td>3.833</td>
<td>5.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Activities develop students’ creativity</td>
<td>5.333</td>
<td>9.166</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Activities develop students’ spiritual attitude</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>5.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Activities develop students’ social attitude</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Teacher uses concrete examples and illustration</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Teacher models good behavior</td>
<td>10.000</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. Teacher implements varied kinds of activities and/or interaction patterns</td>
<td>6.166</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. The teacher plays a variety of roles</td>
<td>7.000</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Two indicators make the most significant enhancement, from 5.000 to 10.000 or 5.000 points. They are: (1) teacher uses concrete examples and illustration, (2) activities develop students’ social attitude. Regarding the use of concrete examples and illustration, T1 used the song ‘My Uncle Came’ to model text. The song was translated from an Indonesian song *Paman Datang* ‘My Uncle Came’, which was familiar in the students’ ears. T2 provided some concrete advertisements to visualize advertisement text more clearly. T3 described a student in the class to model descriptive text, T4 exposed profession through a song, T4 and T5 described themselves and one of their students to give examples of describing professions. Concrete examples facilitate students’ understanding since they concretize a concept, bring the concept close to students. Besides, students may also be brought to real-life activities. Some of them can be used to enhance students’ awareness of honesty when they create a genre (Mustikasari, 2013, p. 143).

The twelfth indicator, teacher implements varied kinds of activities and/or interaction pattern, enhances 3.834 points, from 6.166 to 10.000. Varied activities are commonly represented through varied kinds of interaction pattern, i.e. from (1) Teacher-Students (T – Ss), (2) Teacher-Student-Teacher (T – S – T), (3) Teacher-Student-Student (T – S – S), (4) Student-Teacher (S – T), Student-Student (S – S), and Student-Students (S – Ss) pattern. By building interaction in different ways students develop their social attitude. Varied interaction facilitates students to collaborate in different ways. ‘… recognition between being weak or strong in teaching lies behind the way teacher interacts with the student.’ (Cole & Chan as cited in Setiananingrum & Saleh, 2016, p. 12) Through varied kinds of interaction teachers prioritize the process of learning.
3) The Enhancement of the Teachers’ Competence in Assessing and Evaluating an English Lesson

Coaching in EFL learning also enhanced the teachers’ competence in assessing and evaluating competence mainly in implementing stage. It is proven by the mean score of the competence which reaches 8.113 (excellent) from 4.571 (very bad). The score of the competence improves 3.542 points.

Similar to allocating time which decreases in the planning stage but increases in implementing stage, the score of assessment and evaluation also decreases in the planning stage but increases in implementing stage. There was a kind of hidden plan of the teachers’ which were not put in the lesson plans. The difference of score of the teachers’ competence in assessing and evaluating an English lesson before and after coaching is showed through table 6.

Table 6 The Score of the Teachers’ Competence in Assessing and Evaluating an English Lesson before and after being coached in EFL learning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competence</th>
<th>Aspect</th>
<th>Before Coaching</th>
<th>After Coaching</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>assessing and evaluating</td>
<td>Assessing Attitudes, Knowledge, and Skills</td>
<td>3.017</td>
<td>4.667</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Classifying and Processing the Result</td>
<td>5.833</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Making Interpretation, Determining the Correlated Problems</td>
<td>6.667</td>
<td>10.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Identifying the Needs for Follow up</td>
<td>2.767</td>
<td>7.783</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td>4.571</td>
<td>8.113</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Among the four aspects of assessing and evaluating competence, the aspect of identifying the needs for follow up reaches the biggest improvement. It improves 5.016 points from 2.767 to 7.783. The teachers had been aware of the importance of giving remedial or enrichment. All the teachers provided remedial learning only. After being confirmed, they told the same reason for not giving enrichment learning. It was time to give one to one service through correcting and giving feedbacks to the students’ work gradually until the minimum standard was reached. One third of the students in each class commonly needed remedial learning. The teachers prioritized remedial program to facilitate the participants to catch up with those who had met the standardized score.

Assessing attitudes, knowledge, and skills gain the least improvement. It is 1.650 from 3.017 to 4.667. The problem mostly the teachers had was using an appropriate rubric for assessing attitudes. They still did not use appropriate indicators. They used such criteria as always, sometimes, seldom, hardly ever, and never only. Without employing clear indicators, assessment will be subjective. It is very dependent on what is in the assessor’s mind at the time of assessment.
Conclusion

Coachee-centered coaching maximizes the coachees’ participation and activeness in the coaching program. Hence, more time is given to the coachees to learn by doing, which in turn enhances the skill of implementing the coaching materials. The coaching program is proven to enhance the teachers’ pedagogic competence.

Experiencing in taking the benefit of involving in the model of coaching, the coachees inspire to implement learner-centered learning. The learning model is also expected to improve the effectiveness and the efficiency of learning which is proven through the attainment of standardized learning outcomes.

About the Authors:
Siti Tarwiyah is a lecturer of English at Universitas Islam Negeri Walisongo, Indonesia. Her research interest falls within the area of professional development, and methodology in English language teaching and learning. ORCiD ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-3388-9147.

Warsono is a lecturer at Language Education of Post-Graduate Program of Universitas Negeri Semarang. His research interest includes methodology in English language teaching and learning professional development.

Dwi Anggani Linggar Bharati is a lecturer at Language Education of Post-Graduate Program of Universitas Negeri Semarang who has contributed varied kinds of research articles on professional development and English language teaching and learning methodology to some reputable journals.

Djoko Sutopo is a lecturer at Language Education of Post-Graduate Program of Universitas Negeri Semarang who has written a lot of articles on discourse studies for reputable journals.

References


Exploring Academic Writing Needs of Indonesian EFL Undergraduate Students

Ratnawati
English Education Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Galuh University, Ciamis, Indonesia

Didih Faridah
English Education Program, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education
Galuh University, Ciamis, Indonesia

Syafiul Anam
English Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts
Universitas Negeri Surabaya
Surabaya, Indonesia

Pratiwi Retnaningdyah
English Department, Faculty of Languages and Arts
Universitas Negeri Surabaya
Surabaya, Indonesia

Abstract
Academic writing is noteworthy competence to be accomplished for English as a foreign language (EFL) students to fulfill their academic needs at the university. To do so, Indonesian tertiary universities accommodate and foster this competence using academic writing course. The study, therefore, sought to look into: 1. what undergraduate EFL students’ perceptions of the importance of academic writing to their current study and future career, 2. what the students’ perceptions of the difficulties of academic writing, 3. what the students’ attitudes towards their previous and future academic writing courses. The present study investigates students’ needs emerging in academic writing during classroom practices to gain insightful and profound perspectives for forthcoming needs of the course. Data were collected through a five scaled questionnaire of need analysis distributed to thirty-four EFL students from a private university, and a focus group interview involving nine participants. Results indicate 61% (M_difficulties=3.05) of students faced difficulties in both general skills and language problems of academic writing and a new course was expected to provide moves/steps for writing the sections in a research article. The present study then suggests that e-database resources are needed for academic papers models and references hence its efficiency and flexibility in prospective academic writing.

Keywords: academic writing, EFL students, need analysis

Introduction

The Necessity of Academic Writing

Academic writing contributes crucial roles for students’ academic purposes; papers, assignments, exercises and thesis for meeting their academic needs (Aunurrahman, Hamied, & Emilia, 2017; Ariyanti, 2016; Soehadi, 2008; Husin & Nurbayani, 2017; Sriwichai & Inpin, 2018; Yasuda 2014; Gillett, Hammond, & Martala, 2009). The experts agree that academic writing as a skill required for academic context has a significant impact on the scope of students’ written academic papers in a university context to meet their degree. Van de Poel & Gasiorek (2012) note some projects which staked one’s skill of writing in academic discourse essays, projects, lecture notes, theses, and a research paper. Thus, students must have some skills of writing such as organizing words in a sentence, developing ideas in a paragraph, using proper grammar and punctuation to compose their writing. Giridharan (2012) assumes that by mastering academic writing, students will see their academic success since the quality of an individual’s written work determines his/her scholarship and acceptance in university. Similar viewpoint from Bailey (2003) which also elaborates that academic writing is designed to students at English medium colleges and universities for guiding and preparing them to compose academic essays and other written exam assignments with fulfilling conventions in style, referencing and organization of their essay. In an academic setting, written academic works deserve getting priority from practitioners because several students’ projects such as research report, essay, examination questions, dissertation thesis to their practical application are commonly requested upon courses (Sağlamel & Kayaoğlu, 2015). Thus, academic writing influences beneficial roles to the students’ needs so that it should be developed in formal instructional settings at tertiary education.

The Difficulties of Academic Writing

Despite its urgency in an academic context, students might come across difficulties in academic writing. Research has demonstrated the challenges encountered by students in higher education. In the process of writing, they have to generate, outline new ideas and compose them in a proper academic essay with their capability for achieving new situations of educational setting. Van de Poel & Gasiorek (2012) further assert that learning to write primarily in academic context is considered the problematic skill to compete for students both English as a second or foreign language. Ariyanti (2016) argues that the contextual translation competence became troublesome for EFL students in Indonesia when writing an academic essay. Consequently, most of the students’ academic essays do not make sense with addressee language and their writing are unreadable especially for native speakers. Yasuda (2014) contends that writing instruction in Japan has merely focused on decontextualized contents while encouraging students to be a good writer who should transform their meaning into a contextualized essay has been ignored. He further suggests that future directions for EFL writing instruction should help students develop their real-world communication skills. Issues in teaching and learning writing are comparable across East Asian EFL contexts, and writing practitioners in East Asian countries need to cross the border to develop theories and pedagogies that accommodate the unique needs of EFL writers in East Asian contexts. Then, Bian & Wang (2016) argue that undergraduate students experienced process-oriented difficulties throughout the process of academic writing such as generating ideas, outlining, paraphrasing, and summarizing. They also encountered product-related problems such as inappropriate style of writing, referencing, and citation. Gillett, Hammond, & Martala (2009)
claim that complex, formal, objective, hedged, a precise and accurate language which is also considered difficult to be taught to students in academic writing.

Need Analysis of Academic Writing

Needs analysis (NA) is a preliminary step in developing or reforming the existing course. It provides information about what learners already know and what they need to know. Nation & Macalister (2010) and Long (2005) divide need analysis into necessities (what students need to learn), lack (what students’ problems throughout learning) and wants (what students wish to learn). Several studies (Cai and Kong, 2013; Fadda, 2012; Evans & Green, 2007; Al-Saadi & Samuel, 2013) explored the need analysis of academic writing from different contexts. These studies indicated that students faced difficulties on the process of composing their essays starting generating ideas, outlining process, and producing the written work. The language problems such as failing to distinguish spoken and written English, use academic vocabularies, grammar, and style, therefore, impeded to their essay in academic context. Apart from students’ internal problem, these findings pointed out that the style of classroom instructions unguided students to write effectively and academically.

Although several studies have sought to analyze students’ needs of English for Academic Purposes (EAP), none of them has looked specifically into the academic writing of EFL undergraduate students. Evans & Green (2007) and Al-Saadi & Samuel (2013) conducted a large-scale survey on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) for undergraduate students. Both studies analyzed general skills concerning productive skills and acquisition, and the specific problems from a course offered as the most important point were not identified in detail. However, Cai & Kong (2013) conducted a need analysis research on postgraduate students which discussed in detail the students’ language problems especially in writing skill and the quality of academic writing course offered, and specific betterment action from the course was elaborated in general. The present study, therefore, attempted to provide an in-depth exploration of EFL students’ perceptions towards learning academic writing, their current difficulties in academic writing skills, their biggest concerns and wishes in learning academic writing, and their previous and prospective new academic writing courses.

Methods

Participants

The present research involved thirty-four EFL students who took the academic writing course in the fifth semester at a private university in Ciamis, West Java, Indonesia. They were from a heterogenous background including proficiency, gender, and education. They consisted of 24 female and five male students who previously graduated from private and state senior high schools. Moreover, to facilitate students’ need of improving their language proficiency to the expected level, the students ought to attend language practicums. These programs are designed to provide students’ extra need of language practice which they have not met yet in regular classroom meeting and achieve department’s goal setting for average TOEFL score (above 475 for passing grade). Technically, at the end of the semester for every program, the examinations are conducted to let students know their current proficiency. The tests cover listening, speaking, reading, writing, and language with concerning both of macro and micro skills. Also, passing some courses such as
general English writing, writing for functional text, business writing, and creative writing is the prerequisite for taking the academic writing course.

**Need Analysis Questionnaire**

To obtain quantitative data about students’ needs of academic writing, an online questionnaire using Google Form tool was administered to the participants. It used a five-point scale, from the lowest (least important/very difficult/least preferable) to the highest (most important/very easy/most preferable). The questionnaire asked about their personal information (i.e., name, gender, and age) and three parts of sequenced questions. The first part deals with the students’ perceptions of the importance of academic writing (necessities). Besides the information above the questionnaire also elicited data about their interest in learning academic writing and main text types which should be learned in the entire course. In addition, the second part enquires the lack of the course or students’ difficulties faced in learning it throughout one semester. Some questions elicit on the provided classroom activities, applied techniques in writing for academic purposes, and designed materials. The third part asks students’ wants or wishes in learning toward future academic writing. It tapped into students’ choices on the learning activities such as classroom activities (teacher-centered learning, student oral presentation, drills, and soon) and designed materials (textbook, supplementary handbook, e-resources, and digital library). After data were collected, the internal consistency of the reliability of the questionnaire calculated using Cronbach alpha. Cronbach alpha indicated that part 1 (difficulties) had a high level of reliability at $\alpha = .846$, part 2 (students’ preference) pointed out level of reliability at $\alpha = .703$, part 3 (teaching activities frequencies) showed level of reliability at $\alpha = .826$. Likewise, the reliability level for the three parts combined is high, at $\alpha = .792$. Based on these results, it may be assumed that the questionnaire was reliable to be used.

**Focus Group Interview**

A focus group interview was conducted to attain in-depth information about students’ perceptions of academic writing and support the previous responses from the questionnaire. The interview involved nine students who have chosen purposively. Besides, two other senior students were chosen to be moderator and documentary assistant, who was firstly trained and briefed, to lead the interview process in a comfortable and relaxed situation. The interview was also conducted in Indonesian or even Sundanese language and all the interviews were then transcribed to English. The interview lasted about three hours which asked several questions as supported as at NA questionnaire with some follow-up questions for obtaining deeper information. To gain an intended result, the collected data was analyzed thematically which was concerned with highlighting, examining, and classifying the data recorded to proper and decided themes.

**Findings and Discussion**

**Research Question 1: The Importance of Academic Writing for Current Needs and Future Career (students’ needs)**

The first research question aimed to examine how the students perceive the importance of academic writing for current needs and their future career. An analysis of the questionnaire and focus-group interview provided the data to answer this question. The descriptive statistics data from the students’ questionnaire responses were presented first. Next, the qualitative data from the interview were presented to support students’ information from the questionnaire. Turning first to
questionnaire findings, the mean scores for these two items are high (M=4.24 SD=.85) and (M=4.47 SD=.61) respectively, indicating that they strongly agree with the statements on the perceptions of the importance of academic writing both to the current study and future career. However, their high awareness of its importance is not in line with their interest or inner pleasure of academic writing, which is slightly lower than their needs (M=3.29 SD=1.12). Data from group interview supported their perceptions of the academic writing importance for a future career, especially related to the Indonesian government demand for research publication as part of the teacher or lecturer certification and professional development. In addition to educating, teachers are required to do research about their classes and publish academic articles via seminars, workshops, and journals. Even though the government policy on the language used in research article for English teachers in primary to senior high-level education is Indonesian, the skills of academic writing can be implemented well in their papers. On the other hand, students assumed that the teachers did not give much interest in academic writing because it was difficult and needed extra effort, especially dealing with diction, grammar, and technical problems. Also, it was such an unusual activity to be implemented in their daily life.

Generally, the findings agree with the results from previous studies of EFL students (Evans & Green, 2007; Cai & Kong 2013) that academic writing is an important skill for their study, graduation requirements, and future career yet they lacked interest. Moreover, Cai & Kong (2013, p. 9) study highlighted that students’ interest in academic writing was slightly low. Hence most students actually dislike using academic language, as it is “too formal and structured, and has little space for free writing. This is supported by the interview results that academic essay really needs hard work to express the writer’s opinion and ideas in a written form by using appropriate academic vocabulary and styles. They argued that writing an academic essay spent much time and effort throughout the writing process and generally found it difficult to communicate their ideas appropriately.

Regarding the students’ priority in learning text types and materials of an academic writing course, most of the participants chose research papers/report as their main choice (75.6%), followed by paraphrasing articles (63.3 %). All the choices above 50 % indicated that text types and materials of academic writing are important to their academic needs, except stating the facts, statistics, and citation as the lowest option since the previous course provided the similar material, but the review of material is needed. This finding provides similar results from Evans & Green's (2007) study which emphasized that writing research papers/report is one of the most important tasks in academic writing for non-native English undergraduates, but the current course did not provide a literature review and writing for the body section during a semester.

**Research Question 2: Students’ Perceptions of the Difficulties of Academic Writing for Students (Students’ Lack)**

The second research question sought to look into students’ perceptions of the difficulties of academic writing. From the findings, most of the items were rated above 3, meaning that provided academic writing activities are difficult for students. Otherwise, the three items were assumed to be easy activities to do during a course. As presented in Table 1, the most difficult academic activity is students’ experience in using proper grammar, like correct tenses, agreements,
reporting verbs and preposition in item 10 (M=3.48 SD=.99) and the most comfortable item related to writing references/bibliography in academic writing (M=2.67 SD=.87) in item 6.

Turning to the discussion of the items in detail, item 1 asked students’ activities about their academic planning essays (brainstorming, free writing, clustering, and listing), and students rated some natural skills to be implemented in academic writing (M=2.91 SD=0.93). They argued that planning to start writing was a natural skill due to the richness of resources. Dessy (pseudonym) made one comment for this point:

*My favorite activity in writing class is generating ideas, I can apply some techniques such as brainstorming, free writing, listing, and mind mapping. After I got the assignment/project from my lecturers, I directly browse some articles related to my project in Google.* (Dessy, focus group interview, April 2018)

Emili (pseudonym), in particular, added the comment on where she commonly searched some articles to get some ideas:

*Emili: If I did not find a suitable topic in Google, I also tried to find at academia.edu, scribd.com, English journals, other universities digital libraries, and academic websites. Interviewer: How did you get started to download or search your intended topic? Emili: I registered first and logged in to the account, as far as I experienced, these websites are free for limited downloads for each day. Interviewer: Have you ever stuck in generating ideas? What did you do? Emili: Exactly…sometimes I was difficult in getting ideas because there were no articles matched with my project. I went to the campus library and discussed to my classmates about the project.* (Emili, focus group interview, April 2018)

Item 2 enquired students’ difficulties in writing a paragraph in a suitable order. Students assumed that structuring some sentences into a proper order was perceived as an easy activity during the course which was indicated from the rating value (M=2.88 SD=.81). Otherwise, item 3 asked about cohesiveness and coherence in writing a paragraph. The finding indicated that students experienced difficult activities (M=3.18 SD=.76). Another item which queried on activity about statistical style on presenting data also implied difficult activity to be implemented in classroom practices (M=3.15 SD=.74). Likewise, in item 7 ways of expressing ideas in English was considered a difficult skill (M=3.15 SD=.92), indicating that they got problems in communicating their ideas well (item 8, M=3.15SD=.93) since they had academic problems on vocabularies, languages, grammar, and style (item 9, M=3.03 SD=.97). They were stuck in transforming their ideas into a written one. These findings agree with what Hinkel (2003) revealed that students faced lexical and stylistic aspects of academic writing in research from other EAP settings where non-native English speakers were required to write.

In general, the present study gave support to the findings of the previous studies (Evans & Green, 2007; Cai & Kong, 2013; Hinkel, 2003; Al-Saadi & Samuel, 2013; & Fadda, 2012) highlighting students’ language-related problems.
Table 1. **Students’ difficulties in academic writing (easy-difficult)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  The technique of generating ideas (brainstorming, free writing, clustering, and listing.)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Writing the paragraph into suitable order (topic sentence, supporting sentences and concluding sentence.)</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Writing your paragraph coherently and cohesively.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>0.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Summarizing/ Paraphrasing.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>0.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  Presenting data on statistical style.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  References/Bibliography.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>0.87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  Expressing ideas in correct English.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  Linking your sentences smoothly.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9  Using proper academic languages, styles and vocabulary.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.03</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Proper grammar such as correct tenses, agreements, reporting verbs and preposition.</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.48</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Present Course Reflection**

The present study demonstrated lack of academic writing in classroom practices. The output of an academic writing course should be an academic paper and provides students with preparation for writing a research paper. Unfortunately it was not the case. It ignored the technical skills on content and structure of academic research paper such as writing introduction, searching for appropriate literature using databases and library resources, referring to sources, reviewing and critiquing the previous research and creating a research space (gap), designing the research methods, writing the methods section, summarizing and presenting the data, commentaries and discussions on the data, proofreading written assignments. Unlike in Hongkong, Mainland China, and Saudi Arabia, the academic writing course in this study had a different policy related to curriculum. After deepening the understanding of gamut globally academic writing, the current study will deal with some further actions. First, merging the courses will be a further action to be taken in the forthcoming curriculum. The previous curriculum of the subject’s university has a research proposal writing course which aims at preparing students’ research proposal. Otherwise, the current academic writing did not provide skills as global needed. For the prospective course, academic writing should be straightforward on the global needs of preparing students in composing research article/paper and teaching the academic writing skills and its language needs. In parallel with the previous action, the head of study program will add time allotment of the course to accommodate class needs.

**Research Question 3: Students’ Perceptions on Previous and Future Academic Writing Courses**

The third research question focused on students’ experience of the implementation from the previous academic writing course and their expectation of prospective academic writing. The comparison between the frequency ratings of both previous and future academic writing is presented in Table 2 and Table 3. The questionnaire consisted of three sections: academic writing materials preferences, frequencies of teaching activities, and the students’ wants of a new academic writing course. The research results pointed out that throughout classroom practices, the lecturer tended to prefer key text books in academic writing for teaching and learning process (M=3.91 SD=.1) to other resources or supplementary handouts. To support it, focus group interviews also...
revealed that their lecturer often used their textbook during classroom meeting including materials, exercises, and tasks after class-meeting. In a contrast perspective, students experienced boredom to learn different materials delivered in the same and monotonous way.

Table 2. Teaching materials of academic writing (least preferable-most preferable)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  The key textbook used in class</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Other supplementary handouts</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Other supplementary authentic research papers as models</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Supplementary exercises</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>0.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regarding the teaching activities frequencies, as presented in Table 3, teacher-centered lectures were still a dominant method in the current academic writing course (M=3.91 SD=1.16), it was followed by students’ oral presentation and group discussion on tasks (M=3.56 and M=3.50 respectively). Further, most interviewees stated that one of the favourite activities during classroom processes was students’ oral presentation in which they were challenged to prepare materials for presenting it in front of their classmates. The question and answer session during the presentation made them apprehensive since the students in charge of presentation had to respond to their mates’ questions. In addition to the activity’s prevalence in academic writing, academic writing drills and its references were most frequently taught (M=3.85 and M=3.52 respectively). Otherwise, several activities had a lack of academic language activities such as grammar, vocabulary, and proof-reading assignments (M=2.62, M=2.76 and M=2.01 respectively).

Table 3. Teaching activities of academic writing (least frequent-most frequent)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1  Teacher-centred lectures</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2  Student oral presentation</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>1.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3  Group discussions on task</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4  Academic Grammar drills</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.62</td>
<td>0.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5  Academic vocabulary drills</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.76</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6  Academic writing drills</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7  Academic writing references drills</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8  Proof-reading written assignments</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>2.01</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After the discussion of students’ experience of academic writing, this part concerned the students’ expectation toward forthcoming new look of academic writing. As presented in Table 4, regarding teaching materials, the students argued that the use of textbooks was primarily crucial to their learning process because they need to get academic materials from the textbooks. From the finding, it figures out that 60% of research participants expected the use of textbooks to be continued in the future course. In addition, research papers as the supplementary handout were preferred by the participants as they needed a model (53 % out of 100%). The interview data also revealed that by analysing and reading more research papers, students obtained more models as their background knowledge before initiating their paper writing. However, the supplementary exercises did not need to be attached throughout writing class since they have found the textbook. Most of the
participants mentioned that their textbook was full of exercises to be completed in every meeting and their lecturer often gave them tasks related to meeting materials. For them, writing tasks were time consuming and they might not deal with additional tasks or assignment.

An additional comment also came from Sasa (pseudonym), one of the participants:

_The supplementary tasks from other books were not needed anymore because I really need model research papers as my references in writing my academic papers or essay (Sasa, Focus group comment, April 2018)._ 

Related to the students’ expectation of teaching activities in academic writing course, students preferred several activities which will be offered such as student oral presentation, group discussions on task, and drillings to teacher-centred learning. (27 % out of 100% from research participants). Based on the interview comment, teacher-centred learning didn't allow students to participate actively so that they got bored and demotivated during teaching and learning process.

Turning to the language needs for the new academic writing course, all the aspects were needed for their forthcoming course because the result of the current findings from students’ difficulties and their expectation of academic writing was informative. Evans & Green, (2007) and Cai & Kong (2013) also elaborated that undergraduate and masters students faced difficulties. As highlighted in Evans & Green’s (2007, p. 11) study, students found more difficulties related to the language rather than the content or structure of academic texts.

In relation to writing organization and content, academic writing in the previous course did not prepare students for writing a research paper because the subsequent course focused on a research paper. Dealing with the global need of academic writing, the prospective course should equip students with skills to organize the main body which is well-structured in academic papers including some text types: the experiment set up, method, findings/result, case study, and discussion (Bailey, 2003). Moreover, academic writing closely related to scientific articles should introduce students in writing as IMRAD structure: introduction, method, result, and discussion (Hartley, 2008).

Additionally, peer proof-reading assignment had been applied in the previous academic writing course although it was rarely used. The evidence suggests that 69% of the participants needed proof-reading due to the inaccuracy of last proof-reading assignments. As the interview data suggested, the interviewer asked students to proofread their classmates’ essays in terms of punctuation, grammar, and spelling. One of the students confirmed that the proof-reading activity was already done, but the essay still could not be read well. According to Bailey (2003, p.48 ), some common error types were word ending, punctuation, tense, vocabulary, spelling, singular/plural, style, missing words and unnecessary words. The new course of academic writing would be provided with this systematic activity on the call for action.

Finally, searching the information throughout the academic writing course was highly needed by students for gaining optimum information. As the questionnaire data indicated, students responded 81 % and 75 % respectively for finding academic resources and using e-database activities for the forthcoming course. To support this finding, they also wished that the new course would provide them not only with paper-based resources, but also e-resources such as e-books,
links, video, exercises and assignment because of their efficiency and flexibility (Focus group comments).

Table 4. Students’ wants to learn in new academic writing course

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching materials</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The key textbook used in class</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other supplementary handouts</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other supplementary authentic research papers as models</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supplementary exercises</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Teaching activities</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teacher-centered lectures</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Student oral presentation</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group discussions on task</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic grammar drills</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic vocabulary drills</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic writing drills</td>
<td>92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic writing references drills</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Language</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic language</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherence and cohesion</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic style</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Writing and Organization</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing introduction</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing literature review</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing research methodology</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commenting and summarizing findings</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Referring to sources</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing conclusion</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proof-reading written assignments</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Searching for Information</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finding academic resources</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using E-database and exercise</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Call for Actions**

This part focuses on what elements, aspects, and skills must be offered to students which they neither encounter nor apply them optimally in the previous course. First, the proof-reading assignment is considered a crucial activity that should be provided to the students. According to Bailey (2003, p. 48), this activity is important and the final part of the writing process. As the previous data suggested, this activity was rarely conducted in an academic writing class as figured out in Table 3 (M=2.01 SD = .73). For the new academic writing course, proof-reading assignments should be regular and systemic after classroom meeting. This part will be conducted every two weeks consisting of two rounds: the first round is lecturer’s proof reading on content and organization and the second round is peer editing focusing on the mechanics, grammar, and vocabularies. Also, these activities will be monitored well by the lecturer.
Second, writing organization and content are the most crucial skills to be taught to students. On the other hand, the previous course did not teach these skills to the students. Students learned argumentative essay, opinion essay, descriptive essay, statistical (stating the facts, statistics, and graph) essay, and references/bibliography but lecturers did not teach research paper sections such as introduction, method, discussion. After doing this evaluative process, some needed skills and aspects of the prospective new course were incorporated into the new curriculum. The new course of academic writing will accommodate students’ needs of time allotment and research paper output. As the interviewees contended, adding the time allotment might be the solution for the students’ problems. In addition, the new course of academic writing will prepare students for writing a research paper so the overlapping course contents will be eliminated and another course which is integrated to the academic writing such methodological design course will be put in the previous semester or in the sequence of the academic writing course.

Finally, using e-database and exercise will be new for an academic writing course for its efficiency and flexibility. So, students can start their migration from paper-based sources to e-database and practices. Some interviewees claimed that such migration would please them because they did not need to copy textbooks, research journals, and print out their assignments. Besides, regarding efficiency, the interviewees underlined the flexible use of it in completing their assignments and reading materials.

**Conclusion**

The results of the present study implied that certain needs of academic writing include necessities, lack and wants. From the questionnaire and focus group interview data, EFL students’ needs especially in a private university in learning academic writing have been elaborated. In addition to identifying target needs, necessities and difficulties, this present study specifically sought to examine students’ perceptions and attitudes (wants) towards their previous academic writing courses and prospective new courses. The students found difficulties in academic writing because they were not taught the necessary skills in their previous academic writing course. The use of proper grammar such as correct tenses, agreements, reporting verbs, and preposition are perceived as the most difficult throughout the academic writing course. The other difficult activities of writing were expressing ideas correctly and choosing the appropriate academic language. In their previous course, students were not taught how to write each section of a research paper with appropriate moves/steps and infrequently introduced to academic language features and styles. Consequently, in a proposed new course, they would be taught these aspects. In addition, providing e-database and exercises will be the new feature of prospective new course due to the students’ needs of paperless and its flexibility. This present study should be conducted in a wider area of education in Indonesia, so other investigations are recommended to elicit note worthing related to the area of academic writing.

**About the Authors:**

**Ratnawati** is full time lecturer in the English Education Program at Faculty of Teacher Training and Education of Galuh University, Ciamis, Indonesia. Her current research interests include Technology Enhanced Language Learning, English Language Teaching for EFL, and Multiliteracies in Language Learning. ORCid ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-1548-4787.
Didih Faridah is senior lecturer on English Language Teaching for EFL, Technology Enhanced Language Learning and Academic Writing. She holds an MA in ELT from Universitas Sebelas Maret Surakarta. ORCid ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0001-5597-7503.

Syafiu Anam is senior lecturer on English for Specific Purposes (ESP) and language learning strategies. He holds a PhD in TESOL from University of Canberra, Australia with the research topic on self-regulation in L2 learning. ORCid ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-4687-856X

Pratiwi Retnaningdyah is senior lecturer on Media, Identity, and literacy practices. She took a Master’s degree program (M.Hum) in American Studies at Gadjah Mada University, Yogyakarta. Recently she just completed her PhD in Cultural Studies at the School of Culture and Communication, the University of Melbourne. ORCid ID: https://orcid.org/0000-0003-2282-1953

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Foreign Language Learners’ Attitudes and Perceptions of L1 Use in L2 Classroom

Maram S. Almohaimeed
English Language Skills Department
Common First Year Deanship
King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Huda M. Almurshed
Department of English Language and Literature
College of Arts
King Saud University, Riyadh, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
Whether to avoid learners’ first language (L1) or to make use of it in the second language (L2) classes is a controversial issue. Some studies have challenged the effectiveness of the monolingual approach to foreign language learning. This study investigates Saudi university learners’ attitudes and perceptions towards incorporating their L1 (Arabic) in English class. This study also sheds light into the relationship between students’ perceptions and proficiency level in the target language. To this end, Gaebler's questionnaire (2014) was administered to 60 female learners studying in the preparatory year at a Saudi university. They were from three different English proficiency levels. The results showed that advanced learners hold a negative attitude towards the use of L1 in their English classes, whereas elementary and intermediate learners generally perceive the judicious use of their L1 positively.

Keywords: learners’ attitudes, Learning foreign language, L1 use, monolingual approach, role of L1

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Introduction
The issue of how to teach a foreign/second language (L2) has always been debated. The Reform Movement in the 1880s came as an opposing movement to the practices of the grammar-translation method that was dominating foreign language teaching at the time. That teaching method was basically characterized by the excessive use of learners’ first language as the main medium of instruction to master the grammar of the foreign language. Developments in language theories, however, opened new horizons for language teaching methods and approaches. One example of these methods was the direct method, which prohibits the use of learners’ mother tongue and calls for teachers who are native speakers of the L2. The underpinning view of this method was that the L2 is acquired in the same way the first language (L1) is acquired by children (Richards & Rodgers, 2001).

The debate about whether to use learners’ L1 in L2 classes or to avoid it is not new. There is an extensive body of literature that has addressed this issue. Practitioners and researchers are constantly attempting to prove their view of L1 use either as essential or detrimental in foreign language teaching. While some practitioners believe that L1 plays an important role in foreign language classrooms, others argue that using L1 is a hindrance and that it diminishes the learner’s exposure to the target language.

Some educational institutions insist on adopting the monolingual approach to teaching their students; that is, they allow only the use of the target language regardless of their students’ attitudes towards this approach or even the achieved learning outcomes of the students. The aim of this study was to investigate university students’ perceptions of and attitudes towards the use of L1 (Arabic) in L2 (in this case, English) classes and to examine the relationship between students’ attitude toward using Arabic and their proficiency level in English.

Literature Review
Arguments and Counter Arguments for Only-L2 Use in L2 Classes
According to Zhao and Macaro (2014), there are three stances regarding the language used in L2 teaching settings: the total exclusion of L1 in target language instruction, the favored and maximized use of L2 as the medium of instruction, and the use of L2 coupled with judicious use of L1. Advocates of the complete exclusion of L1 in the target language instruction build their belief on a number of assumptions.

Cook (2001) identifies two reasons for those who advocate only L2 use in L2 classes. First, the L2 learning process is similar to the process of L1 learning. This claim seems to be weak, particularly when it comes to comparing children acquiring their L1 with adults learning an L2. Bley-Vroman (1990) challenges the claim of existing similarities between L1 and L2 acquisition by presenting some differences between children’s acquisition of L1 and adults’ L2 learning. He contends that the innate ability that children have to acquire their L1 disappears in adulthood. Additionally, children have zero knowledge about their L1 when they learn it, unlike adults, who depend on their L1 to learn the L2. Moreover, according to Bley-Vroman, the motivation and amount of exposure to the language are higher in children acquiring an L1 than in adults acquiring an L2. The second reason identified by Cook (2001) is that the acquisition processes of L1 and L2
are completely separate. The authors believe that the instances of L1 interference and transfer occurring in the L2 are clear evidence that the learning processes are inseparable.

Zhao and Macaro (2014) point out that the call for L1 avoidance in L2 classrooms can be based on Krashen’s input hypothesis and Long’s interaction hypothesis. Krashen (1992) claims that exposure to comprehensible input increases the learner’s opportunity to acquire the language. He adds that comprehensible input should be accompanied by facilitative affective factors, such as high motivation and self-confidence, for language acquisition to take place. However, Gass (1988), argues that “it is clear that input of some sort is necessary in order for acquisition to take place. What sort of input is necessary is less clear” (p.201). She doubts that students can convert the language used as input to output. This means that increasing the exposure to L2 may not enhance language acquisition because the input is not necessarily going to be intake and that there are other factors besides input that should be considered. Another argument for the exclusive use of L2 is based on Long’s interaction hypothesis, which maintains that the negotiation of meanings in L2 enhances L2 acquisition (Lightbrown & Spada, 2006). However, full application of this hypothesis is not always practical if time constraints and huge classrooms are considered because negotiation of meanings can be time-consuming. Insufficient evidence and lack of clear reasons for avoiding the use of L1 in L2 classrooms has encouraged practitioners and researchers to investigate further the role of L1 in foreign language teaching and how it can be used to facilitate L2 learning (Macaro, 2001).

**L1 Role in L2 Classrooms**

Research has been carried out to observe the different dimensions of the L1 role in L2 learning. It has been found that L1 use has various benefits to offer in the L2 classroom. Atkinson (1987), for example, contends that L1 use is advantageous for three reasons. First, translation is the preference of the majority of learners. Second, L1 use is a technique that gives learners the chance to express their feelings and ideas. Finally, L1 is a useful technique for the best exploitation of class time. McMillan and Rivers (2011) further claim that careful and controlled use of the L1 can be profitable for social, communicative, and cognitive purposes in L2 learning. Cook (2001) believes that teachers can make use of learners’ native language in difficult grammar explanation, new vocabulary teaching, and classroom management. These crucial functions that the L1 has for explaining difficult grammar and new lexical items are reported in a number of studies in addition to L1 use for compensating for lack of comprehension (Edstrom, 2006; Macaro, 2001; Mattioli, 2004; Polio & Duff, 1994). Turnbull (2001), however, argues that taking Cook’s suggested functions for L1 use into consideration leave only limited functions for the target language. As such, Turnbull calls for further research on how and when the L1 should be used. Edstrom (2006), in her analysis of her teaching, finds that L1 was useful in clarification of assignments, grading policies, and classroom strategies. She adds that learners’ cultural misconceptions were only countered by the use of L1.

The facilitating role of L1 goes beyond classroom activities and teaching vocabulary or grammar. Research has further explored the beneficial role of L1 in learning and teaching language skills (Nazary, 2008). For instance, Koren (1997), after observing students listening to the target language and taking notes in the L1, concludes that taking notes in the L1 is a good strategy for understanding. As for writing skills, Hamin and Majid (2006) find improvement in the writing
performance of students who use their mother tongue to generate ideas. Cole (1998), meanwhile, argues that using L1 is seen as inappropriate and unjustifiable when it comes to speaking and listening activities unless instructions need clarification or there are cultural concepts that are crucial for comprehension.

In addition to the aforementioned role of L1, it has been found that learners’ native language plays a primary role in reducing the affective barriers to L2 learning, thereby assisting comprehension and facilitating L2 acquisition (Auerbach, 1993; Meyer, 2008). According to Baily (2005), allowing L1 use can motivate learners and increase their confidence in using L2.

**Teachers’ and Learners’ Perceptions of L1 Use**

The issue of using the mother tongue in L2 classrooms has attracted the attention of researchers investigating teachers’ and learners’ perceptions and attitudes. McMillan and Rivers (2011) in a study they conducted in Japan find that many native English-speaker teachers in a communicative framework perceive the use of the students’ L1, either by the students or by the teachers, beneficial for the enhancement of L2 learning. In another study, Gaebler (2014) investigates graduate students’ and professors’ perceptions of L1 use. He concludes that some students believe that the use of their L1 is a hindrance to their L2 learning, while others feel comfort with the use of L1. As for the professors, they respect the students’ views and attempt to integrate L1 in teaching L2. Nazary (2008) conducts a study in Iran, and he reports that Iranian university students are hesitant to use their L1. However, a recent study in Iran conducted by Sa’d and Qadermazi (2015) that examines the use of L1 from the perspectives of Iranian elementary EFL learners and teachers concludes that there is a positive attitude toward the role and use of L1. They note that only a minority prefer the only-English policy, while the majority favore the limited and judicious use of L1.

In the Saudi EFL classroom context, few studies have investigated the perceptions of teachers and students on the use of L1 in L2 classroom settings. Al-nofaie (2010) investigates the attitudes of teachers and learners in an intermediate school in Jeddah. In her study, she concludes that teachers and learners are in agreement regarding the positive effects of using Arabic, but they hold different perceptions regarding the purposes and functions of the L1. Alshammary (2011) also examines the attitudes of college teachers and students of pre-intermediate level in Madinah. The results show that the majority of teachers and students believe that L1 should be used in English classes. The purposes they deemed Arabic useful for are explaining new vocabulary and explaining difficult ideas and concepts.

Although the literature is filling up with studies that explore the attitudes and perceptions of learners about L1 use in L2 classes, it still lacks studies, especially in the Saudi context, that explicitly investigate the relationship between the learners’ attitudes toward L1 use and their proficiency level in the L2. On these grounds, this study aimed to examine Saudi university EFL learners’ attitudes and perceptions of L1 use in only-English classrooms and the relationship between their attitudes and their proficiency level in English.
Purpose of the Study
One of the important objectives in most Saudi universities is to improve learners’ English language to prepare them for their major studies, which are mostly delivered in English. For this purpose, universities allocate the first year to some basic knowledge courses like mathematics and communication skills in addition to intensive English courses. The only-English approach is implemented strictly in some English programs regardless of learners’ level in English. Based on previous studies like the ones mentioned above and other studies in the literature (Swain & Lapkin, 2000; Khresheh, 2012; Alrabah et al, 2016), and based on the fact that students and teachers, not administrators, are the best ones to decide on what language should be used in the classroom (McMillian & Rivers, 2011), this study aimed to examine university Preparatory Year learners’ perception of L1 use in English classes and the relationship between their perspectives and proficiency level in L2. Thus, the research questions addressed in this study were as follows:

Research Questions
1. What are the attitudes and perceptions of university students toward using their L1 in the foreign language classroom?
2. Is there a relationship between students’ attitudes toward using their L1 and their level of proficiency in the target language?

Methodology
Setting and Participants
The Preparatory Year Program at the university where the study took place offers intensive English courses to equip students with English academic skills which are necessary for students to pursue their future majors at the university. Upon university admission, students sit for a placement test that places them in English courses according to their proficiency level: beginner, intermediate, or advanced. The program follows a strict only-English policy, where neither teachers nor students are allowed to use Arabic in class. In this study, the participants were 60 Saudi female students. The students were from three different proficiency classes, with 20 students from each class selected randomly. The first language of the participants was Arabic, and all of them had studied English for at least six years. All the learners gave their consent to participate in the study.

Instrument
The instrument used in this study was a questionnaire adopted from Gaebler’s study (2014), with only a few modifications related to the names of the languages addressed in the study, Arabic as L1 and English as L2 (see Appendix A). The questionnaire was designed to collect information about students’ opinions about the appropriateness and purposes of using L1 by their teachers, their classmates, and themselves in the L2 class. The questionnaire consisted of 10 multiple-choice questions. Some questions had the choice of ‘other’ where the participants could add their answer if it was not mentioned in the choices that were given. The questionnaire was administered in English for advanced students and in Arabic for a beginner- and intermediate-level students to ensure adequate comprehension of the questionnaire’s items.
Results

Students showed different attitudes toward whether or not Arabic should be used in English classes, question 1. Beginners (level A, hereafter) surprisingly do not seem to be advocating the incorporation of Arabic; 70% of them answered with ‘no’, and only 30% answered affirmatively. Advanced students (level C, hereafter) similarly expressed negative attitudes, with 80% believing that Arabic should not be used. In contrast, the responses of the intermediate students (level B, henceforth) reflected the more neutral position, with 50% accepting and 50% rejecting the use of Arabic (see Figure 1).

![Figure 1. Should Arabic be used in the English classroom?](chart1.png)

For the second question, ‘How often should your teacher use Arabic in the classroom?’ the majority of level C believed that teachers should never use Arabic (75%), and a minority felt that rare and sometimes use would be acceptable (15% and 10% respectively). Level A and level B perspectives were comparable, with 50% and 55% for rare use and 40% and 30% for sometimes use respectively (see Figure 2).

![Figure 2. How often should your teacher use Arabic in the classroom](chart2.png)

In selecting the appropriate purposes for the teacher’s use of Arabic, question 3, the participants could choose more than one answer. The results in Figure 3 show that students at all levels do not face difficulty in understanding teachers’ instructions or see a role for Arabic in...
suggesting learning strategies. As for defining new vocabulary and explaining complex grammar, Level A and B responses were identical, 55% and 65% respectively, whereas explaining difficult concepts and ideas was 70% for level A and 60% for B. In contrast, 25% of level C believed in the importance of Arabic for defining new vocabulary, while 60% thought that teachers should not use Arabic. In the option ‘other’, about 25% of level A and 20% of level C students expressed that teachers should use Arabic to explain difficult vocabulary items that cannot be explained by other means to give advice for exams or in case of an emergency.

\[\text{Figure 3. When do you think it is appropriate for your teacher to use Arabic in the classroom?}\]

Regarding their view of how often their classmates should use Arabic in the English classroom, question 4, the majority of level A supported rare use, 40%, and exclusion of Arabic use, 20%, while 25% responded with ‘sometimes’. Level B students seem to be the most advocators of L1 use by classmates because 55% of the responses were for ‘sometimes’ compared to 25% and 20% responses for ‘rarely’ and ‘never’. In comparison, level C responses showed that 40% preferred exclusion of Arabic, 25% favored rare use, and, surprisingly, 35% believed that classmates could ‘sometimes’ use Arabic (see Figure 4).

\[\text{Figure 4. How often should your classmates use Arabic in the classroom?}\]

Regarding for what purposes classmates can use Arabic, question 5, students in levels A, B, and C responded with 40%, 30%, and 60% respectively that students should not use Arabic. Participants from all levels similarly selected the use of Arabic when speaking to other
classmates, with 25% for level A, 30% for level B, and 20% for level C. The results also showed that using Arabic in taking notes was the choice of levels B and A, with 45% and 20% respectively. Regarding the option ‘other’, 25% of level A specified that Arabic can be used to foster comprehension (see Figure 5).

![Figure 5. When do you think it is appropriate for your classmates to use Arabic in the classroom?](image)

As for question 6, the majority of participants from levels A, B, and C, (60%, 70%, 40% respectively) thought that speaking Arabic with classmates is appropriate for clarifying concepts and ideas. Defining new vocabulary was the second favored function for using Arabic among classmates, with 50% for level A, 40% for level B, and 30% for level C, while explaining grammar came in third place, with 35% for level A and B and only 15% for level C (see Figure 6).

![Figure 6. If you think it is appropriate for students to use Arabic with their classmates, why](image)
The differences among the three levels became clearer in how they perceived the usefulness of Arabic (see Figures 7 and 8). While 40% and 45% of level C believed that Arabic does not help them learn English or helps them just a little, question 7, 70% of level B and 45% of level A thought that Arabic helps them a fair amount. Additionally, 40% of level A believed that Arabic helps a lot in learning English. In expressing in what way Arabic is helping, question 8, the majority of levels A, 60%, and B, 70%, saw Arabic as helpful for understanding difficult concepts and for understanding new and difficult vocabulary, 70% & 55% respectively. Comparable responses were expressed by level C students, with 45% for understanding difficult concepts and 35% for understanding vocabulary. Only a few students, however, expressed that Arabic makes them feel at ease and less stressed.

Figure 7. Do you think the use of Arabic in the classroom helps you learn English?

Figure 8. If you think the use of Arabic is helpful in the English classroom, why?

Students’ perceptions about whether Arabic prevents English learning, question 9, were similar across the three levels (see Figure 9). The majority believed that Arabic prevents them a little to a fair amount of English learning, while 30% of A, 35% of B, and 15% of C thought that Arabic does not prevent their English learning at all.
Figure 9. Do you think the use of Arabic in the classroom prevents you from learning English?

With regard to question 10, the majority of the students in levels A, B, and C expressed that Arabic can be harmful because it limits their exposure to English, 50%, 45%, and 55% respectively, and allows them to avoid speaking in English, 40%, 65%, and 55% respectively. Of level C, 65% added that Arabic might prevent them from thinking in English (see Figure 10).

Discussion
In responding to the two research questions about students’ perceptions and attitudes toward the use of Arabic in the foreign language classroom and their relation to students’ level of proficiency in English, the beginners seemed reluctant to accept the use of Arabic despite their low proficiency. This may be the result of their teachers’ insistence on avoiding Arabic or from the concept that immersion in the target language leads to better learning. In the rest of the questionnaire, however, beginner students felt more comfortable admitting their need for the use of Arabic and expressed the usefulness of Arabic for understanding new vocabulary and difficult grammar. They believed that teachers could use L1 for the mentioned functions, whereas students’ use of L1 should be limited. This reflects students’ positive attitude only toward controlled use of Arabic and that Arabic may be harmful to certain aspects. This result is in alignment with Alnofaie’s (2010) study mentioned above and other relevant studies (Sa’d & Qadermazi, 2015). Intermediate students, in contrast, expressed more freely their preference for Arabic use for functions similar to those mentioned by the beginners. Although the results here comply with Alshammary’s (2011) findings, they contradict what Nazary (2008) found about intermediate learners as being the
most hesitant about L1 use. The only explanation that can be drawn here is that these students are satisfied with their level in English, and so they are not afraid of Arabic preventing their learning; rather, they see it as a shorter way for comprehension. Advanced learners, meanwhile, expressed a negative attitude toward the use of Arabic. The majority believed that Arabic should be avoided by teachers and students. A few believed that Arabic could be helpful for understanding vocabulary and concepts. It is clear that advanced students refrain from using their L1 because they are competent enough to manage negotiation of meanings in the L2. These results seem to be compatible with those of previous studies that investigated students’ perceptions in terms of attitudes and preferred functions of L1 such as Alnofaie’s (2010), Alshammary’s (2011), Gaebler’s (2014), and Sa’d and Qadermazi’s (2015).

**Conclusion and Implications**

From the collected and analyzed data, it is evident that students’ proficiency level plays a role in their attitudes and perceptions about L1 use. The results suggest considering modifications in educational institutions’ policies regarding what language to be allowed in foreign language classrooms in a manner that can contribute to enhancing students’ learning. The findings of the present study, however, show variation in perspectives among students from the same level, and this suggests that proficiency is not the only factor that affects students’ perspectives. Other factors, such as motivation and risk-taking, may influence students’ perceptions and attitudes. Triangulation of data collection could have added to the validity and reliability of the results of this study, but time constraints allowed only for one instrument. Further research that uses triangulated data is suggested for investigating the relationship between proficiency and perceptions of students. Further research can also be carried out to examine the influence of other factors on students’ perceptions of L1 use.

**About the author:**

**Maram S. Almohaimeed** is a Teaching Assistant at King Saud University (KSU). She has obtained her B.A. degree in English Language from College of Languages and Translation at KSU. She then has earned her M.A. degree in Applied Linguistics from KSU. Her research interests revolve around foreign language teaching and learning. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0275-3239

**Huda M. Almurshed** is an Assistant Professor of Applied Linguistics at King Saud University (KSU). She has earned her B.A. degree in Linguistics from University of Montana, Missoula, USA. Then she has earned the M.A. and PhD degrees in Applied Linguistics from KSU. Her research interest is adult second/foreign language acquisition. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3571-0577

**References**


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**Appendix A. Student Questionnaire**

**Using Arabic in the English Classroom**

Name: ---------------------------------  English class level: A  B  C

This questionnaire aims to find out about your attitude toward using Arabic in the English classroom. Your answers will be used for research purposes only. Thank you!

1. **Should Arabic be used in the English classroom?** (circle your answer)
   a. Yes  b. No

2. **How often should your teacher use Arabic in the classroom?**
   a. Never  b. Rarely  c. Sometimes  d. Frequently

3. **When do you think it is appropriate for your teacher to use Arabic in the classroom?**
   (You can choose more than one)
   a. Defining new vocabulary
   b. Explaining complex grammar points
   c. Explaining difficult concepts or ideas
   d. Giving instructions
   e. Suggesting learning strategies
   f. Teachers should never use Arabic
   g. Other. Please specify ____________________________________

4. **How often should your classmates use Arabic in the classroom?**
   a. Never  b. Rarely  c. Sometimes  d. Frequently

5. **When do you think it is appropriate for your classmates to use Arabic in the classroom?**
   (You can choose more than one)
   a. Speaking to the teacher
   b. Speaking to other classmates
   c. Taking notes
6. If you think it is appropriate for students to use Arabic with their classmates, why? (You can choose more than one)

a. Defining vocabulary items
b. Explaining grammar points
c. Clarifying difficult concepts or ideas
d. Other, please specify ____________________________________

7. Do you think the use of Arabic in the classroom helps you learn English? a. No b. A little c. A fair amount d. A lot

8. If you think the use of Arabic is helpful in the English classroom, why? (You can choose more than one)

a. Helps me understand difficult concepts
b. Helps me understand new vocabulary
c. Makes me feel at ease, comfortable, and less stressed
d. Other. Please specify ____________________________________

9. Do you think the use of Arabic in the classroom prevents you from learning English? a. No b. A little c. A fair amount d. A lot

10. If you think the use of Arabic is harmful in the English classroom, why? (You can choose more than one)

a. Prevents me from thinking in English
b. Limits my exposure to English
c. Allows me to avoid speaking in English
d. Other, please specify ____________________________________
An Analysis of the Use of English with Political Correctness: A Case Study of Graduate Students in Thailand

Napat Phumsiri  
Language Institute  
Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand

Supong Tangkiengsirisin  
Language Institute  
Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand

Abstract
This study aims to examine the use of English with political correctness of master’s degree students in a university in Bangkok, Thailand and to identify their attitudes and opinions towards the use of English with political correctness. The subjects of this study were 100 students from different backgrounds who had been exposed to the English language for a significant period of time. They were asked to complete a questionnaire consisting of a test on the use of politically correct English vocabularies and terms, and a survey of their opinions and attitudes towards the use of English with political correctness. Five of the respondents were interviewed about their attitudes. The findings reveal that students are able to identify certain politically correct words and terms regardless of the categories. Respondents also have positive attitudes and they consider this type of language as a formal and respectful language. They also suggest that this type of language is important and it should be implemented in workplaces and certain fields. However, there are few limitations of English with political correctness as it is considered unclear and sometimes it is overused. Moreover, there is no institution or academic initiative to standardize the use of English with political correctness. The findings could be useful to develop the use of English with political correctness in society, to objectify politically correct language, and to promote the importance of politically correct language, which is viewed as formal and respectful language that can reduce conflicts in international communications.

Keywords: political correctness, inclusive language, sexism, racism

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Introduction

In some countries where English is the official language, namely, Canada, Australia, the United Kingdom, and the United States, there is an increasing tendency toward political correctness in terms of language (Marques, 2009) and this tendency is becoming more crucial as the world, where English is considered as a global language, is more globalized and linked than it has ever been. Moreover, politically correct language has become common, not only in the use of the English language but also in pedagogy and in the workplace. As a result, the knowledge of political correctness would improve people’s ability to function better in academic and professional English (Tsehelska, 2006).

According to Cambridge Dictionary, the term political correctness, usually abbreviated as PC, refers to an idea that someone who is politically correct believes that language and actions that could be offensive to others, especially those relating to sex and race, should be avoided. Ely, Meyerson, and Davidson (2006) define political correctness as a situation “where unspoken canons of propriety govern behaviour in cross-cultural interactions—that is, interactions among people of different races, genders, religions, and other potentially charged social identity groups”. (p.1) Consequently, this term, political correctness, has recently been widely discussed as it has a significant impact on people’s perceptions and also the dynamics of the language. As a result, the use of English with political correctness tends to help people to avoid offensiveness in multicultural communication. Moreover, the use of English with political correctness will also raise people’s awareness and gradually change the attitudes towards rights and equality.

Consequently, this study was conducted to analyse the current situation and predict tendencies regarding the use of politically correct language to increase the effectiveness of English use and knowledge of political correctness among different groups of people in the globalized era.

Literature Review

Historical Overview of Political Correctness

The terms political correctness, politically correct or PC had not been commonly used until the end of the 1970s. According to Wilson (1995), in 1973, the U.S Supreme Court firstly mentioned the term politically correct.

However, it is difficult to trace the origin of the meaning of ‘political correctness’ as this term has evolved alongside the trends of political ideologies. For instance, in the late 1940s, the phrase "politically correct" was used in political debates between socialists and members of the communist party in the United States. The term politically correct was used as a reference to person with loyalty to the party. Likewise, the socialists also used this term to go against communism, and were meant to distinguish those who believed in moral ideas of egalitarianism from dogmatic communists who defended party positions regardless of their moral belief (Kohl, 1992).

This term also appears the writings of the former Communist Party leader, namely, Mao Zhedong. Perry (1992) mentions that Mao tried to control the regime by evaluating the terms ‘correct’ and ‘incorrect’ in terms of free speech, contention and mutual criticism.
Political correctness is also used sarcastically. For example, Berman (2011) explains that the term PC was evolved by the Leninist Left into an ironic phrase among ‘wised-up leftists’ to ‘denote someone whose line-toeing fervor was too much to bear’ (Berman, 2011: 5). Also, in the feminist movement, Willis (1992) states that in the early eighties, feminists sarcastically used the term ‘political correctness’ to make a reference on the efforts of the anti-pornography movement.

In 1987, political correctness entered public awareness again when professor Thernstorm gave ‘racially insensitive’ statements in a lecture on ‘the peopling of America’. Those statements caused a lot of complaints from some students, especially African. Finally, this issue became popular an open letter about the warning of racial harassment, written by the dean of the college, was published (Annette, 1994). Three years later, a column in The New York Times claimed that the term ‘political correctness’ was being mentioned increasingly in debates about the contents taught in the universities (Bernstein, 1990).

In modern usage, politically correct language is commonly seen alongside the issue of media bias in the United States and in the United Kingdom (Lea, 2010). Media bias and politically incorrect language could result in unexpected tragedy. There was an incident when a newspaper writer mentioned about the Prophet Mohammed and the beauty queens of the Miss World Beauty Pageant that was to be held in Nigeria. More than 250 people were killed and churches were destroyed in this incident. Few years later, an incident occurred again with more than 50 casualties in Borneo Island because of a cartoon of the Prophet Mohammed in a newspaper (Pinta & Yakubu, 2014).

Pinta and Yakubu (2014) also highlight the implications of political correctness in the education field, asserting the use of English language with political correctness can be beneficial, particularly in second language situations while social and cultural contexts are taken into consideration. In the view of Zabotkina (1989), the teachings of English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as Foreign Language (EFL) should implement political correctness.

Speech Codes and Identity Politics

According to Cameron (1995), a ‘speech code’ can be considered as a kind of linguistic guideline, which makes it 'a disciplinary offense to use certain expressions deemed racist, sexist, anti-Semitic and homophobic'.

This term can refer to norms or regulations that do not explicitly forbid particular vocabularies or sentences. Speech codes are normally used for suppressing hate speech or forms of obnoxious social discourse. As a result, the utilization of many speech codes could be controversial in relation to the meaning and significance of some words and phrases, and about the legitimacy of those who justify the meaning.

Sexist Language and Gender Inclusive Language

Sexist language includes “words, phrases, and expressions that unnecessarily differentiate between women and men or exclude, trivialize, or diminish either gender” (as cited in Na Pattalung, 2008, p. 4). Some terms are inherently sexist, such as "businessman" and "mankind." The terms fail to equalize the female gender in categories that should be gender inclusive.
Moreover, these terms are often considered appropriate in writing (Klein, 1993). The term "gender-inclusive" implies that all genders are explicitly "included". For example, "A teacher should help his students" could be understood as excluding females from being teachers.

There are several aspects of the trend toward gender-inclusive English. A study examined the use of a generic term ‘they’ to refer to all genders by avoiding using the gender-exclusive generic he; for example, "A doctor should keep his patients informed", to gender-inclusive form; "Doctors should keep their patients informed" or "A doctor should keep her or his patients informed" Also, the change from the use of the gender-exclusive generic ‘man’. For example, "Man has lived on the planet for over a million years", to "Humans have lived on the planet for over a million years" (Ong, et al., 1996).

**Previous Related Studies**

Andrews (1996) studied the popular opinions towards the naming of words that were involved in ‘political correctness’ and ‘cultural sensitivity’ based on semiotic and sociolinguistic theory. The study is focused on words about gender, race, disabilities, and ethnicity; for example, Asian vs. Oriental, Black vs. African American. The findings show that naming is determined by concepts and word taboos, but interpreters imposed the meaning of a name. The study also shows that socio-cultural movement affects political correctness and this phenomenon reflects the interplay between linguistic signs and dynamic changes in social contexts.

Banning (2004) analyzes the discourse of political correctness in classrooms designed to examine critical contemporary issues of popular culture and the public sphere. She “was concerned with the impact of social justice and public debate, and more broadly, with the question of what role rhetoric and writing courses could play in preparing students for civic engagement” (Banning, 2004, p.192) The outcome indicated that studying political correctness could foster critical thinking abilities on social issues (Banning, 2004).

Lin (2010) extended both of the above mentioned studies and investigated the difference in the use of politically correct language between native speakers of English and non-native speakers. A total of 21 students, 14 native speakers of English and seven non-native speakers of English (all females) who studied in a U.S mid-western university were asked to complete a questionnaire consisting of 30 multiple choice questions and three open-ended questions. The first part consisted of various PC words in different topics: age, gender, race/ethnicity, physical/mental challenges, taboos, economic status, occupation, cars, prisoners, drunkenness, biological companions and class of airline service and the second part were questions that aimed to get opinions about the phenomenon of PC language. The results showed that native speakers of English, especially whites, have different attitudes toward PC compared with non-native speakers. It could be inferred that the white participants felt it was not necessary to use PC language. However, most participants believed that PC was not temporary but it would continue to develop.

**Research Methodology**

**Participants**

The subjects in the study were 100 students studying in a master’s degree program at a university in Bangkok, Thailand.
The students were enrolled in a master’s degree in English program. They were students interested in English with different ages, occupations, and genders. Thus, the use of English with political correctness will be essential for these students to enhance their ability to communicate in an international environment and develop their careers. Likewise, their attitudes and knowledge about the use of English with political correctness can reflect the reality and tendency of this phenomenon.

**Materials**

The research instrument of this study was a set of questionnaires consisting of three parts: general information, a 30-item multiple-choice test, and a survey. Interviews were also conducted to gain qualitative data from the respondents.

**Questionnaire**

*Part 1: General Information*

This part asked for respondents’ demographic information: gender, age, occupation, previous degree, and English test score. All of the respondents’ information was kept confidential.

*Part 2: Test of the Use of English with Political Correctness.*

The second part consisted of a 30-item test on different types of English vocabulary with political correctness used in diverse situations featuring more than two choices and one blank line for their own version. The types of vocabulary included gender, race/ethnicity, physical/mental challenges, and other types of politically correct language. The choices were adapted from Lin’s (2010) questionnaire.

The choices were not provided in an orderly sequence to prevent respondents from guessing the objectives of the experimental procedure according to Lambert (1967) (as cited in Lin, 2010).

*Part 3: Opinions and Attitudes*

The third part of the test was 25 questions that asked for respondents’ opinions and attitudes towards the use of English with political correctness. The questionnaire was adapted from the Language Attitudes Survey from the Chickasaw Nation (2006), Cherokee Nation (2002), Washoe Tribe of Nevada and California (n.d), Hinton (2001), which has been used to survey the attitudes towards the importance of languages. Thus, in this research, the term ‘language’ in the former survey was modified to ‘politically correct language’ with adapted questions in three main topics: (1) attitudes towards the importance of politically correct language, (2) opinions towards the practical use of politically correct language, and (3) limitations, negative attitudes towards the use of politically correct language. All of the answers were based on a scale of 1–5.

The data, which was analyzed by the SPSS program, showed the degree of opinions through the range of the mean score values. The mean scores were classified into five interval scales based on the study of Srisa-ard (2010).

The criteria for determining the degree of opinions are shown in Table 1.
Table 1. Criteria to Determine the Degree of Opinions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interval Scale</th>
<th>Range of Mean Score</th>
<th>Meaning/Opinion</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.51 - 5.00</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.51 - 4.20</td>
<td>Agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.51 - 3.40</td>
<td>Neutral</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.51 - 2.60</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.00 - 1.50</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Interviews

Semi-structured interviews were conducted, which is a qualitative method of inquiry that combines a pre-determined set of open questions with the opportunity for the interviewer to explore particular themes or further responses. The interviews were conducted anonymously with five respondents.

The questions of the interview were about the definition of politically correct language, opinions about the use of English language with political correctness, opinions about political correctness in English and Thai language, and the use of language with political correctness in real life. The basic questions were adapted from Lin (2010)

Research Procedures

Research Design

The data was collected from five students who were studying in the second year of a master’s degree program as a pilot study to check the quality of the test and questionnaire. These five students were not considered as a population for this study.

Data Collection

After a pilot study and the test enhancement, 100 hard copies of the test and questionnaire were distributed to 100 students and they were asked to return them the same day. The interviews were recorded and transcribed for further data analysis.

Data Analysis

The quantitative data from the questionnaires, i.e., the English with politically correct language test and the opinions and attitudes survey, were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Program (SPSS) to calculate the frequency, percentage, and mean. Frequency and percentage were used to describe participants’ personal data. The test consisted of 30 questions covering three main types of political correctness; (1) Gender (2) Race, Ethnicity (3) Physical, Mental Challenges, and also other types of political correctness. Meanwhile, the questionnaire was constructed based on a Likert-type scale. The researcher adapted the rating format from Gardner’s Attitude/Motivation Test Battery as a five-point Likert-type scale. The qualitative data, i.e., the interviews and opinions, were also interpreted for further results and discussion.
Findings and Discussion

Questionnaire Results

Test on the Use of English with Political Correctness

From 100 respondents, the highest score was 28, the lowest score was 9, and the average score was 18.45.

Gender

It can be seen that most of the respondents used politically correct language in the gender-inclusive sentence (97% in item1) but they used less gender-inclusive versions of words that have -man suffix; such as, ‘artificial’ (69%), ‘police officer’ (68%), ‘businessperson’ (55%), ‘humankind’ (43%), ‘mail carrier’ (33%). Likewise, only 51% of respondents used ‘folks/friends’ to refer to a mixed group instead of using ‘guys’. However, respondents used the more neutral word for occupations such as ‘cabin crew/flight attendant’ (84%).

Race/ Ethnicity

Most respondents used the politically correct version in this category: 96% for ‘Taiwanese/Chinese Taipei’, 84% for ‘American Indian/Native American’ and ‘Asian’, and 71% for ‘African people’. Moreover, the word ‘blacklisted’, which is considered a politically incorrect as the term ‘black’ is used with a negative meaning, was still used more than the alternative version; ‘banned’(42%).

Physical, Mental Challenges

A total of 73% of respondents used the politically correct version of ‘disabled people/physically challenged people’, 68% used ‘differently sized person/larger-than-average person’, 67% used ‘intellectual disability/late developer’, 63% used ‘plain-looking/cosmetically different’, 58% used ‘mature person/senior citizen’ and ‘hearing-impaired/hard-of-hearing’. Meanwhile, only 37% of respondents used the politically correct version of an ‘optically-challenged person’ and ‘vertically-challenged person’.

Others

In this category, the test aimed to examine various types of politically correct language. Most respondents used politically correct versions of the following situations: 98% chose ‘homeless person/displaced homeowner’, 82% used ‘developing country’ 80% used ‘pass away/return to dust’, 64% used ‘economically disadvantaged/low-income’. Notably, only 51% used ‘substandard housing’ instead of ‘slum’.

On the other hand, 43% of respondents would list the names of international leaders in alphabetical order, 40% used ‘undocumented immigrant/undocumented alien’, 28% used ‘lacking a formal education’, while only 13% used the term ‘sex worker’.

Opinions and Attitudes Survey

Table 2. Results on the Opinion/Attitudes Survey: Attitudes towards the importance of politically correct language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>It is important for members of our community to know the politically correct language.</td>
<td>4.20</td>
<td>0.68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

www.awej.org
ISSN: 2229-9327
2. Politically correct language is vital to promote equality among different groups of people. 4.21 0.64
3. Politically correct language is worth using 4.16 0.63
5. Our community should work hard to promote the use of politically correct language 4.06 0.62
6. It would be a good idea to promote the use of politically correct language at home 3.71 0.83
7. Politically correct language actually promotes equality 4.14 0.62
8. It is important that politically correct language is encouraged and used in workplaces 4.22 0.68
9. Politically correct language should be encouraged and used in the media. 4.41 0.55

Table 3. Results on the Opinion/Attitudes Survey: Limitations, negative attitudes towards the use of politically correct language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Politically correct language should be encouraged and used in formal speech</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>0.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Politically correct language should be encouraged and used in government activities</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>0.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I would be willing to promote the use of politically correct language</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I normally use politically correct language</td>
<td>3.24</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Politically correct language should be taught in Schools</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>0.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>Politically correct language can reduce misunderstandings and/or conflicts in cross-cultural communication</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>People who use politically correct language are considered to be more reliable and professional</td>
<td>4.15</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Politically correct language builds good relationships between interlocutors (persons in a conversation)</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. Results on the Opinion/Attitudes Survey: Opinions towards the practical use of politically correct language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>In the future, people will use more politically correct language</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>0.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Politically correct language is influenced by the society</td>
<td>4.09</td>
<td>0.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>Politically correct language is politicized</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>0.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>Politically correct language has been overused</td>
<td>2.42</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Interview Results

There was a total of eight questions that the interviewees were asked to elaborate on their opinions based on four topics:
(1) Definition of Politically correct language
(2) Opinions about the Use of Language with Political Correctness
(3) Opinions about Political Correctness in English and Thai Language
(4) The Use of language with Political Correctness in Real Life

Definition of Politically correct language

The result showed that political correctness and politically correct language are not clearly defined and their meanings seem to be different according to individuals. Participants viewed the use of this kind of language as a tool to avoid conflicts and promote equality. One interviewee said “in my understanding, politically correct language is language that has no discriminate sense whether it is in terms of sex, race or socio-economic status which is basically considered as a liberalist language” and the other’s opinion was “due to my understanding about political correctness, it is the term used to describe avoidance of using offensive languages toward sensitive issues; gender, ethnicity, color discrimination, and etc.” As a result, it can be summarized that the interviewees had basic knowledge about politically correct language as a language for equality and they had positive attitudes towards politically correct language.

However, the interviewees understood and defined the term ‘politically correct language’ as the language used for specific purposes and they viewed politically correct language that it is not a normal method of communication with general people.

Opinions about the Use of Language with Political Correctness

Participants’ opinions towards the use of language with political correctness were, in general, positive. They saw language with political correctness as a tool to promote equality and produce good impacts on individuals and society in relation to the development of critical thinking. However, they still viewed political correctness as a limited phenomenon; only a few groups of people, mostly urban and some educated people, were aware and enthusiastic about promoting and developing this kind of language. Likewise, the use of language with political correctness is viewed as something new for society in general and sometimes it could be overused.

Opinions about Political Correctness in English and Thai Language

In this part, the participants were asked to give opinions about the use of political correctness, specifically in terms of English and Thai languages. In the case of English language, a participant stated that “I think political correctness started in the Western world. Therefore, PC in the English language is pretty clear in itself. We can easily differentiate PC and non-PC terms” However, other interviewees viewed political correctness in English as confusing and unclear language despite having good objectives and some words are not required to be gender-inclusive if we know the gender of the mentioned person already. For example, we can use ‘businesswoman’ if the person is a woman or ‘fireman’ if that person is a man.

In the case of Thai language, the interviewees found it difficult to think about some examples; some interviewees said they could not find any examples about the use of political
correctness in Thai language and Thai people tend not to be interested in developing their language with political correctness. In relation to the society, one interviewer viewed political correctness in the Thai language in a way that “the sense of PC that is originally from Thai language doesn't exist because we didn't have a history of marginalized people who fought for themselves like in the West. Some interviewees also said that it is difficult to find examples because the Thai language is already gender-inclusive and it had no difference between the use of political correctness in Thai and English language as it depends on the intentions and how people are educated about such terms. This interviewee also mentioned that many Thai people were still not aware that the term ‘negro’ is offensive and she also gave an example that “while people of other races cannot call colored people ‘negro’ or ‘nigga’, colored people can call each other with these words without feeling offended.

However, some interviewees said that the media has a lot of influence on the use of language with political correctness. For example, they said that while many in the Western media were aware of politically correct language, some famous Thai media still write their headlines with offensive and non-PC language.

The Use of language with Political Correctness in Real Life

The interviewees stated that the difficulty is that English with political correctness sometimes has unfamiliar terms and vocabulary, which might cause misunderstanding. Moreover, people can eventually ignore the use of such terms as one interviewee said that “it contrasts to the standard of language, so to replace the new set of words into people daily lives will be a problem”. Meanwhile, another interviewee also emphasized the importance of the agenda of the speakers as mentioned in case of the term ‘black’ and ‘colored’ people in the previous topic. The other problem stated by the interviewee is that language with political correctness can sometimes be overused which can be harmful to the speakers themselves as an interviewee said that “listeners might be confusing and eventually lose credibility and interest”.

Lastly, the interviewees were asked whether they would use the English language with political correctness once they had already studied it. All interviewees said that they would use politically correct language if they had knowledge about it. However, they would only use some words that they considered very sensitive and that normal people would understand.

Conclusion

According to the findings, it can be concluded that master’s degree students in a university in Bangkok, Thailand are able to use certain politically correct words and terms correctly. However, the correctness depends on the familiarity of the respondents regardless of the categories of politically correct language, same as the study of Andrews (1996) which shows that political correctness was caused by powerful socio-cultural movements and it reflected the dynamic interplay of linguistic signs within changing social contexts.

Meanwhile, respondents have positive attitudes toward the use of politically correct language and they considered this type of language as a formal and respectful language. Accordingly, their opinions showed that English with political correctness should be implemented in workplaces and certain fields. The result about the attitudes towards the use of English with
political correctness is related to study of Goncalo et al (2015), which mentioned that the political correctness norm, which is often maligned as a threat to free speech, may play an important role in promoting gender parity at work by allowing demographically heterogeneous work groups to more freely exchange creative ideas. In this study, the participants viewed political correctness as a peace maker and it should be promoted in a workplace. However, the threat of political correctness could occur when it is overused. The interview results also showed that if they had studied about politically correct language, the respondents would be willing to use this type of language but limited to certain terms only which relates to the SWOT analysis of the political correctness phenomenon, which holds that political correctness can help people with an awareness of political correctness in career advancement and create a good workplace environment (Marques, 2009).

About the authors:
Napat Phumsiri is a graduate student majoring in Career English for International Communications at Thammasat University, Bangkok, Thailand. His research interest is in the area of intercultural communication. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0686-9212

Associate Professor Supong Tangkiengsirisin, Ph.D. is a full time English instructor at the Language Institute of Thammasat University, Thailand. His research interests involve second language writing, written discourse analysis, and interlanguage pragmatics. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-7364-5294

References


Appendix A
Questionnaire

Research Questionnaire

Title: An Analysis of the Use of English with Political Correctness: A Case Study of Graduate Students in Thailand.

This questionnaire is a part of a thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Master of Arts in Career English for International Communication, Language Institute, Thammasat University.

Directions:
This questionnaire is designed to examine the use of English with Political Correctness of graduate students. Please answer all questions from your own idea. Your participation in this research is considered voluntary. Your information and answers will be kept strictly confidential and will be used for academic purpose only. This questionnaire consists of three parts as follows:

(1) General Information of the respondents
(2) Test of the Use of English with Political Correctness
(3) Opinions and Attitudes Survey
Part 1: General Information of the Respondents

Directions: Please put X in the box in front of the information that matches with you and fill in your information in the provided blanks.

Student ID: _______________________

1. Gender: ______
2. Age
   □ 21-30 □ 31-40 □ 41-50 □ Over 50
3. Occupation _____________________________________________________
4. Previous Degree _________________________________________________
5. TU-GET/ Other English test score (Please specified) ________________
6. Years that you have been learning/using English: ________________

Political Correctness is a term used to describe language or behavior that provides the least offenses to some sensitive issues; for example, racism, sexism, and discrimination (Lin, 2010). In this study, political correctness is the language that is evolved and has dynamics together with social speech codes and political ideas which are inclusive, egalitarian and aimed to reduce conflicts related to some sensitive issues; for example, racism, sexism, and discrimination.

Part 2: Test of the Use of English with Political Correctness

Directions: Please fill out the form on the pages below. Under each number, choose and mark with an “X” for the term you most often use in your daily life. You may choose one or two variations or include your own version.

1) □ Each participant must present his ID badge at the door.
   □ All participants must present their ID badges at the door.
   □ Each participant must present his/her ID badge at the door.
   □ Your version: ____________________________________________

2) □ African people
   □ Black people
   □ Negro people
   □ Your version: ____________________________________________

3) □ Handicapped people
   □ Disabled people
   □ Physically challenged people
   □ Your version: ____________________________________________

4) □ Elderly person
   □ Mature person
   □ Senior citizen
   □ Your version: ____________________________________________

5) □ Businessman
   □ Businessperson
   □ Businesswoman

---

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
</table>
| 6) | □ Red Indian  
□ American Indian  
□ Native American  
□ Your version: |   |
| 7) | □ Differently sized person  
□ Fat person  
□ Larger-than-average person  
□ Your version: |   |
| 8) | □ Policeman  
□ Policewoman  
□ Police officer  
□ Your version: |   |
| 9) | □ His uncle died.  
□ His uncle passed away.  
□ His uncle returned to dust.  
□ Your version: |   |
| 10) | □ Cabin crew  
□ Flight Attendant  
□ Air Hostess/ Steward  
□ Your version: |   |
| 11) | □ Oriental  
□ Asian  
□ Your version: |   |
| 12) | □ Intellectual disability  
□ Retarded person  
□ Late developer  
□ Your version: |   |
| 13) | □ Slum  
□ Substandard housing  
□ Your version: |   |
| 14) | □ Underdeveloped country  
□ Developing country  
□ Your version: |   |
| 15) | □ Mankind  
□ Humankind  
□ Your version: |   |
| 16) | He is from Taipei. He is  
□ Chinese  
□ Taiwanese  
□ Chinese Taipei  
□ Your version: |   |
| 17) | □ Plain-looking  
□ Cosmetically different  
□ Ugly  
□ Your version: |   |
| 18) | □ Blind person  
□ Optically challenged person  
□ Your version: |   |
19) □ Short person
□ Vertically challenged person
□ Your version:___________________________________________
20) □ Poor
□ Economically disadvantaged
□ Low-income
□ Your version:___________________________________________
21) □ Undocumented Immigrant
□ Illegal Immigrant
□ Undocumented Alien
□ Your version:___________________________________________
22) When referring to a mixed group, you say…
□ Guys
□ Folks
□ Friends
□ Your version:___________________________________________
23) □ Artificial
□ Man-made
□ Your version:___________________________________________
24) □ Lacking a formal education
□ Uneducated
□ Your version:___________________________________________
25) □ Prostitute
□ Sex Worker
□ Hooker
□ Your version:___________________________________________
26) □ Mail Carrier
□ Mailman
□ Postman
□ Your version:___________________________________________
27) □ Homeless person
□ Bum
□ Displaced homeowner
□ Your version:___________________________________________
28) If you had to list the names of international leaders, you would list them by
□ Alphabetical order
□ Power order
□ Gender order (either men to women or vice versa)
□ Your version:___________________________________________
29) □ Banned
□ Blacklisted
□ Your version:___________________________________________
30) □ Hearing-impaired
□ Deaf
□ Hard-of-hearing
□ Your version:___________________________________________

Part 3: Politically Correct Language Opinions and Attitudes Survey
Directions: Answer the questions based on a scale of 1–5, each statement applies to you by using the scale below:
1 means you strongly agree with the statement
2 means you agree with the statement
3 means you are neutral to the statement
4 means you disagree with the statement
5 means you strongly disagree with the statement

Politically Correct Language Attitudes Questions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. It is important for members of our community to know politically correct language.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Politically correct language is vital to promote equality among different groups of people.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Politically correct language is worth using</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Politically correct language is difficult to use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Our community should work hard to promote the use of politically correct language</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. It would be a good idea to promote the use of politically correct language at home</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Politically correct language actually promotes equality.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. It is important that politically correct language is encouraged and used in workplaces</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Politically correct language should be encouraged and used in the media.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Politically correct language should be encouraged and used in formal speech.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. Politically correct language should be encouraged and used in government activities.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. It does not matter if the language is written and spoken without being politically correct.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. I would be willing to promote the use of politically correct language.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. Politically correct language should be taught in schools</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. I think politically correct language is not important in my daily life.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I think politically correct language is still not widely used.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I think politically correct language is not important in my workplace.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix B

#### Sample Questions for Interview

1. What is your understanding about politically correct language?
2. How would you define the term ‘Political Correctness’?
3. What is your opinion of the phenomenon of Political Correctness?
4. What influence do you think it has or may have on the people, the language and the society in general?
5. Is it a temporary phenomenon or will it continue to develop in the future?
6. What is your opinion about political correctness in English language?
7. What is your opinion about political correctness in Thai language?
8. What are difficulties and problems of politically correct language?
9. Will you use PC language once you have already studied about it?

--- ☺ End of the questionnaire. Thank you very much for your kind support ☺ ---

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly Agree (5)</th>
<th>Agree (4)</th>
<th>Neutral (3)</th>
<th>Disagree (2)</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree (1)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>19. In the future, people will use more politically correct language.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. Politically correct language is influenced by the society.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21. Politically correct language is politicized.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22. Politically correct language has been overused.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23. Politically correct language can reduce misunderstandings and/or conflicts in cross-cultural communication.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24. People who use politically correct language are considered to be more reliable and professional</td>
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Peculiarities of Ethnic Stereotypes Usage in English Political Discourse

Yulia V. Yuzhakova
assistant professor of the Foreign Languages for Engineering Department,
Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia

Liliya S. Polyakova
assistant professor of the Foreign Languages for Engineering Department,
Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia

Nataliya V. Dyorina
assistant professor of the Foreign Languages for Engineering Department,
Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia

Tatiyana Yu. Zalavina
assistant professor of the Foreign Languages for Engineering Department,
Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia

Abstract
This paper aims to highlight ethnic stereotyping in the English-language mass media political discourse, which is an actual issue since the scope of media texts in English prevails in the global information space, which cannot but affect the viewpoint of an "average" English speaking reader. According to the cognitive linguistic approach, the stereotype is considered to be an element of the cultural and linguistic world view and an integral part of reality categorization mechanism. Ethnic stereotypes are very important in the process of intercultural communication since they can increase its effectiveness and eliminate interethnic problems or they can act vice versa. So auto- and hetero-stereotypes play a significant role in intercultural communication. This fact underlines the relevance of ethnic stereotype studies. The notions of "auto- stereotype" and "hetero-stereotype" are considered in the article, using the examples of English-language political media text headlines. Special attention is given to the headlines of English-language media texts about Russia. Basic features of the stereotype "modern Russia", formed by the English-language media, are defined by the analyzed political media text material.

Keywords: auto- stereotype, cultural and linguistic world-view, ethnic stereotype, political discourse, hetero-stereotype

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**Introduction**

The issue of stereotyping is closely related to the problems of language, mentality and culture interaction, which is the critical question of cognitive linguistics and linguacultural studies. There has been enough research into stereotyping in published materials (Henry, 2013; Shamsuddin, Keong, & Hamid, 2015) but they were mostly devoted to everyday awareness. This paper aims to highlight ethnic stereotyping in English language political media discourse which can be explained by the fact that the scope of media texts in English considerably outnumbers the scope of mass media texts in other languages. English-language media texts dominate the world media not only regarding quantity but also in terms of the impact on the mass reader and the world socio-political processes. A specific term “linguistic imperialism” denoting the state above of things has been coined (Al Hosni, 2015; Phillipson, 1992). In other words stereotypes formed and broadcasted by English-language media affect mass consciousness in the entire world. That is why the study of stereotyping, i.e. the process of formation, storage and functioning of stereotypes in mass consciousness, becomes one of the current topical issues since perception of the stereotyping process can be useful in overcoming problems of intercultural communication, increasing its effectiveness and eliminating interethnic issues. It should be mentioned that stereotyping is rather widespread in the media discourse since its main function is an impact one, i.e., the primary task of the media is to influence public opinion. More obviously, this function is realized in the political discourse, since a specific viewpoint beneficial to the addressee, a politician or a political group, is imposed through it. For this purpose, methods of psychological impact, as well as a variety of linguistic means, are used in the political text. The fact, that in today's political discourse stereotypes play increasingly important or the key role, speaks for the relevance of this research. The study presents an attempt to identify stereotyping in the political media discourse and analyze these phenomena using the examples of the English-language political media text headlines. Particular attention is paid to the headlines of English-language media texts devoted to the image of Russia.

**Literature review**

As it was mentioned above the study is based on the analysis of English language political media texts. The term "media text" appeared at the end of the 20th century in the English-language scientific literature, in the works of Bell (1998), Montgomery (1996), Fairclough (1995) & Fowler (1991). Research into stereotyping has a longer history (Kratz & Braly, 1933; Allport, 1954), but it is still a very active area of research in cognitive and ethno linguistics. It is common knowledge that any language is a way of reflecting the speakers’ world perception. The values expressed with linguistic means form a single system of views, conceptualizing the reality inherent to the particular language. Therefore, due to the peculiarities of the national languages, representatives of different linguocultures are characterized by a specific worldview, which forms stereotypes of consciousness and behavior, characteristic of their mentality (Polyakova, 2013; Yuzhakova & Polyakova, 2018). The term "stereotype" was considered by Lippmann (2004), who described this concept as a model of perception, interpretation, and filtering of information in the process of the world exploration and recognition, based on the previous social experience of the involved community.

According to Krasnykh (2002), the stereotype is a fragment of a worldview that exists in the mind of an individual, i.e., "it is a certain image-representation, a mental picture, a stable,
minimally invariant, nationally and culturally specified view on the subject or situation" (p. 178). Ethnic stereotype is a rather stable idea of mental, moral, physical qualities, characteristic of various ethnic community representatives, which was formed primarily at the level of ordinary consciousness and passed from generation to generation in the form of unequivocal, stereotyped judgments like "greedy", "simple-hearted", "house-proud", etc. As a rule, ethnic stereotypes reflect biased opinion or judgment about these qualities (Prokhorov, 2005).

Belova (2006) distinguishes the following social functions of ethnic stereotypes:

- the manipulating function means that under certain conditions, for political and ideological purposes, stereotypes act as an instrument of influence on the mass consciousness;
- the function of socio-ethnic integration implies that on the one hand, stereotypes can satisfy the mental need for saving cognitive efforts, on the other hand, they can serve the public need to maintain the internal community cohesion and its opposition to other human societies;
- the cognitive function helps form the image of the external world;
- the communicative function is a means of exchanging information between representatives of "one's own" community;
- the protective function implies that stereotypes ensure the preservation of the traditional system of values about “us”, the representatives of "our community" (autostereotypes) and about “them”, "the aliens", the representatives of other communities (heterostereotypes).

According to Nalchadzhyan (2004), the following structural units can be identified in ethnic stereotypes:

- cognitive representation;
- thoughts about the object of cognition; object evaluation and feelings that arise as subjective indicators of this appraisal;
- a particular type of behavior towards the purpose (this component of the stereotype is not always present).

In cognitive and ethno-linguistics, it is customary to subdivide ethnic stereotypes into auto-stereotypes and hetero-stereotypes. The auto-stereotype is a self-concept of the involved ethnic group; the hetero-stereotype is the concept that the group has about another ethnic group". It should be noted that in the political discourse, auto-stereotypes describing "us", i.e., “our country, our nation and our values”, tend to have positive connotations, creating a positive self-concept. Hetero-stereotypes, on the contrary, often form a negative image of "them", “the alien”; the extreme degree of which is the "image of the enemy". The repeated use of auto- and hetero-stereotypes in the same text enhance their impact on the reader, creating a contrasting image of the real world, making the "enemy image" more negative.

Discussion
Since the purpose of our research is the identification and analysis of stereotyping in political media texts, we are to find linguistic and pragmatic means contributing to the creation of a particular referent image which hereafter could be transformed into a stereotype. So the main method of the study is the method of pragmatic analysis implicating identification the addressee’s
intentions and presuppositions (Oualif, 2017). Supplementary methods are: discourse analysis method, the contextual analysis method, the cultural interpretation method, the component semantic analysis method, the stylistic analysis method. In other words, the methodological basis of our study is the complex of linguistic analytical methods. Here we cannot but refer to the works in the field of pragmalinguistics by Grice (1985), Leech (1983), Lakoff (1973), and Brown & Levinson (1987).

Based upon the scope of English-language media-texts about Russia one may say that, currently, the English-language media are forming and developing a negative hetero-stereotype "Modern Russia". The word above combination is a neutral nomination. All the same, it is turning into a stable negative stereotype of today's Russia due to being used repeatedly in a certain negative context, which is probably done purposefully to introduce a certain attitude towards Russia into the worldview of the Western reader (Yuzhakova, 2007). In most media texts, various variants of the nomination “Modern Russia”, such as “Vladimir Putin's Russia”, “post-Soviet Russia”, “Putin's Russia”, “the Russian state”, “Russia” or “Moscow”, are coherent to speech units with negative connotations and thus form a negative context for using the above-mentioned notion, which, in its turn, contributes to the formation of a negative hetero-stereotype of Russia.

An important role in the creation of the stereotype mentioned above is played by the media text headlines, the primary function of which is to attract the attention of a potential reader. In our opinion, headlines can also perform a "secondary" function, i.e., the purpose of forming stereotypes. It can be described in the following way: the readers of any media source, a magazine, a newspaper or a site, even those who are not interested in Russia and do not read articles about this country, look through all the headlines of all the articles (including articles about Russia) in search of an interesting material and unconsciously perceive the information contained in the headlines of the articles about Russia. As a result, a certain stereotype about this country is formed. In this case, unlike the texts of articles, headlines can affect almost every reader of the media source, since readers view all the headlines, but not all the articles.

Recently, the English media texts on events in Russia, or in some way related to Russia, are dominated by headings of the following type:

*How Did Putin's Russia Descend into Lawlessness?* (http://www.newsweek.com/vladimir-putin-russia-history-opinion-joseph-stalin-851837). The title contains a proposition: "Russia has reached lawlessness," which can be interpreted as the absence of the rule of law in Russia; a lexeme “lawlessness” has negative connotations.

*If You Talk about Russian Propaganda, Remember: Britain Has Myths Too* (https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2018/mar/21/russia-propaganda-skripal-britain-churchill). This heading creates the false impression that the author seeks to understand and justify Russia, comparing it with Britain. In fact it creates a contrast between hetero-stereotype “Russia” and auto-stereotype “Britain”. Judging by this heading, Russia is characterized by propaganda (Russian propaganda). Propaganda is a lexeme with negative connotations denoting the spread of deliberately distorted information. In other words, in the headline, the intentional distortion of information supposedly inherent to Russia (propaganda) is contrasted with the sincere delusion of...
Britain (*myth*); the lexeme *myth* has no negative connotations. So this headline is another contribution to the formation and development of a negative hetero-stereotype “Russia”.


The second part of the headline *How Organized Crime Took over Russia* explains the metaphor of the first part of *Gangster's Paradise* and contains a proposition: *organized crime has swallowed Russia*. Thus, the negative context is created by using the metaphor *gangster's paradise*, and the word combination *organized crime*, which has negative connotations and falls into the proposition “*organized crime has swallowed Russia*”.

*Europe Needs a Collective Defense Strategy to Counter Russia* (https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2018/mar/22/europe-collective-defence-strategy-counter-russia-putin). This heading is based on the presupposition: *Russia is dangerous*. So Europe should collectively resist this country and defend from it.

In many headlines, the personification of Russia is its president:


The author uses some homogeneous parts of the sentence: *Aleppo, Ukraine, Cyber Attacks, Baltic Threats*, thus listing the "crimes" of Russia and emphasizing their multiplicity. This part of the headline is a kind of allusion to all the previous articles about Russia where these “crimes” are described. Such an evaluation of the actions of Russia prevails in the Western media. Obviously, having been repeated multiple times, this attitude is introduced into the minds of the Western readers. The enumeration of Russia’s “crimes” is summed up by the rhetorical question: *What Should We Do about Putin?* Presupposition of this question can be formulated as follows: 1) the president of Russia does wrong things; 2) Western countries have the right to judge and adjust the actions of other countries, and, if necessary, "punish" them.

So, we have considered several headlines from English-language media texts devoted to Russia. All of them create a negative image of this country. On the basis of the headings discussed above, the reader can form the following view of modern Russia: a paradise for gangsters, a country that does not respect the law; a country that creates many problems in the world; a country where propaganda is widely used; a dangerous country, which the united West must resist and defend from. It should be noted that at present such headlines prevail in the English-language media. The quantity, as you know, goes into quality. So, by the ideas mentioned above, sooner or later, the negative hetero-stereotype *Modern Russia* will be formed, or it may already have been formed in the English language worldview.

Separate headings, of course, cannot form a stereotype. This process requires more information and time. However, a sufficiently vast array of media texts of the complying content and tonality can affect the reader's worldview.
As an example, consider the article *Europe Needs a Collective Defense Strategy to Counter Russia* (https://www.theguardian.com/commentisfree/2018/mar/22/europe-collective-defence-strategy-counter-russia-putin). The title of this article was analyzed above. Let's move on to the text itself. The introduction to the article is rather eloquent: *We need to stand together against Putin. If we don’t, he will become emboldened in his war with our liberal democracies.* This introduction contains an appeal to the collective West (*we, our liberal democracies*) based on the presupposition: *“Putin is at war with Western liberal democracies”* (*his war with our liberal democracies*).

Further, as in many other English-language media texts devoted to Russia, we have a whole list of accusations against Russia, beginning with the war mentioned *with liberal democracies*:

1) _the deployment of Russian-made chemical weapons in Salisbury_: this information is introduced with ascertaining the fact modality, demonstrating the author's confidence in Russia's guilt, although the results of the investigation are still unknown.

2) _the so-called “election”_: The use of the quotes and the word combination so-called implies the idea that the election cannot be considered legal. The author also offers supposedly arguments for this point of view: *no "real choice" for voters; the main opposition leader Alexei Navalny was banned from standing._ Arguable issues are presented with ascertaining the fact modality again.

3) _... the Russian bear mauls our liberal democracies, corrupts our political systems, hacks our political parties, pollutes our online ecosystems, and seeks to drag European countries back to a violent and divided past_: claims against Russia are gathering like a snowball in this extract. To produce such an effect, the author uses a rather long series of homogeneous predicates (_mauls, corrupts, hacks, pollutes, seeks to drag European countries back to a violent and divided past_) describing negatively evaluated actions of Russia, personified by _the Russian bear_. The word combination _the Russian bear_ representing Russia is a kind of allusion to the old European views on Russia. Using this technique the author seeks to arouse old European fears about that vast country. Enumerating ascribed negative actions the author demonstrates that the heart of _the Russian bear_ has not changed. He uses ascertaining the fact modality to represent the listed activities as a matter of fact and in such a way to form a desired attitude of the readers.

The analyzed sentence, on the one hand, describes the reported actions of _the Russian bear_, allegedly, aimed at destroying the foundations of European society, such as _liberal democracies, political systems, political parties, online ecosystems_; on the other hand, it contains a hint of a possible solution to this problem. The salvation of Europe lies in the rallying of European countries united by common values. The enumeration of the above values is accompanied by the repeated use of possessive pronoun _our_, emphasizing the unity of these countries (*our liberal democracies, our political systems, our political parties, our online ecosystems*). This enumeration: 1) underlines the unity of the European countries based on the common values; 2) creates and develops the opposition of the negatively evaluated _Russian bear_ and positively evaluated European countries; 3) points out that the only way to oppose _the Russian bear_ reportedly trying to destroy European values is the unity of European countries.

In most of the analyzed articles, the list of Russia's guilt is usually followed by considering the ways to solve problems related to this country: *With this new strategy we should show to Mr Putin that his violations of international law have clear consequences, but also open up the
perspective of cooperation and engagement, provided Russia starts delivering on its commitments under international law and beginning with the implementation of the Minsk agreements. Looking through this extract it would seem that the author is constructive, i.e., he looks for the ways out of a problematic situation in international relations. But in fact, he continues to impress the reader with the negative image of Russia and its president. For this purpose, presuppositions are used. It is common knowledge that presupposition is information which is not expressed, but implied by the statement. The presupposition is perceived in speech as "true", and is not subjected to discussion or questioning. It is often used to introduce the desired viewpoint to the reader. The passage under consideration contains the following presuppositions: “Putin violates international law” (we should show to Mr Putin that his violations of international law…), “Russia does not fulfill its obligations under international law and the Minsk Agreements” (provided Russia starts delivering on its commitments under international law and starting with the implementation of the Minsk agreements).

The conclusion of the article does not differ either in content or in tone from the previous parts of the text under consideration: Many don’t want to accept the truth because it means hard choices have to be made, but the reality is that the Kremlin is again at war with our liberal democracies. If we don’t respond with a new long-term strategy, Putin will be emboldened. Summarizing the information stated in the article, the author makes two main conclusions:

1) The Kremlin again fights with liberal democracies (the Kremlin is again at war with our liberal democracies)

2) It is necessary to use a new long-term strategy to counter Putin (If we don’t respond with a new long-term strategy, Putin will be emboldened).

So, the following image of Russia is created in the considered article: a country that uses chemical weapons; holds pseudo-elections; tears liberal democracies; corrupts European political systems, interferes with the work of European parties; pollutes online ecosystems; seeks to return European countries to the past; violates international law; does not fulfill its obligations under the Minsk Agreements; is at war with liberal democracies. The enumerated features could or are supposed to create an image of the enemy. The above list of "atrocities" of Russia in different variations is repeated time and time in various English-language media texts, which cannot but affect the reader's worldview and contribute to the development of a negative hetero-stereotype “Modern Russia” in mass consciousness.

Conclusion

In conclusion, it should be said that stereotypes are widely used in mass media political discourse; their main objective is to manage public consciousness, to form a certain attitude, a viewpoint on the particular topical issue. Since stereotypes are characterized by stability and fixed emotional coloring, a single use of a stereotype in the text allows impressing the reader with the desired attitude towards the referent. However, the authors of political media texts often increase the impact effect by using auto-stereotypes and hetero-stereotypes simultaneously, creating in such a way the impact of opposition. Currently, mass media play the leading role in the formation and development of ethnic stereotypes. The effective use of stereotyped ideas increases the pragmatic impact of the political media texts and is able to have a significant effect on the reader’s worldview.
About the authors

Yulia V. Yuzhakova, PhD (Philology), Assoc. Prof. of Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Institute for the Humanities, Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia. Research interests include English language, discourse analysis, political discourse, cognitive linguistics, etc. https://orcid.org/0000-0001-6790-044X

Liliya S. Polyakova, PhD (Philology), Assoc. Prof. of Foreign Languages for Engineering, Institute of Humanities, Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia. Research interests include the English language, discourse, gender linguistics, political discourse, etc. http://orcid.org/0000-0002-9990-7694

Dyorina Natalya V., Ph. D. (Philology), Assoc. Prof. of Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Education in the Humanities Institute, Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia. Research interests include the English language, English and Russian literature, education, etc. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-0613-0864

Zalavina Tatyana Yu., Ph. D. (Philology), Assoc. Prof. of Foreign Languages in Engineering Department, Education in the Humanities Institute, Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University, Magnitogorsk, Russia. Research interests include the French language, the German language, cognitive linguistics, etc. https://orcid.org/0000-0003-0210-7963

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Book Review

An Introduction to Sociolinguistics

Authors: Janet Holmes and Nick Wilson
Title of the Book: An Introduction to Sociolinguistics
Year of Publications: 2017 (5th ed.)
Publisher: London and New York: Routledge
Number of Pages: 538 pp.
Reviewer: Ms. Jutharat Jitpranee

An introduction to Sociolinguistics has much value for sociologists, educators, and researchers, particularly in respect to the relationship between language and society and the differences in using language in different social communities and situations. Holmes and Wilson greatly contribute their knowledge to sociolinguistics novices, researchers, teacher practitioners, and students. The book is very practical for teaching and self-learning in language classes. The resources of the book are available online to facilitate readers’ learning and understanding of the materials. The language is generally simple and understandable to the new learner to sociolinguistics, yet there is still a need for further study of some materials found in the book for richer information.
In terms of the content outlines, the book contains four main parts: 1) general knowledge about sociolinguistics study; 2) multilingual speech communities; 3) language variation: focus on users; and 4) language variation: focus on uses. The first part consists of the definition of sociolinguists, reasons underlying language use differently, and factors related to this particular field. The second part has four focuses, including choices in language use in the multilingual society, changes in language use, varieties of language use, and standard language in the national context. The third part has four factors concerning users’ variation in language use. These factors are region, dialects, sex, age, ethnicity, social networks, and language change. The last part concerns the variables affecting the differences in language use through applications and authentic uses. The variables refer to “style, context, register, speech functions, politeness, cross-cultural communication, sex, politeness, stereotypes, attitudes, applications, and conclusion” (p. VII - IX).

Apart from the theories in the book, two outstanding points are taken into consideration: exercises in the book and the use of multimodalities and glossary. In terms of the book exercises, the overall content is based on four features. Firstly, they are linked with theories and examples provided in the book. For example, exercise 5 is instructed as “using the information provided in example 1, draw a diagram like that in figure 2.1 summarizing the factors relevant to code choice for Kalala in Bukavu” (p. 26). Secondly, there are many types of questions used in the exercises, including Yes-No questions, Wh-questions, and How-questions. For example, exercise 9 was assigned as “How can the following three dimensions be used to distinguish between H and L varieties in a diglossic speech community?” (p. 34). Thirdly, the exercises are mostly designed based on case studies in the examples and theoretical concepts in order to reflect the understanding of the readers. For instance, “In 1855, Dean Trench, a leading architect of the Oxford English Dictionary, expressed …What do you think of the claims of these men that studying standard English will develop a sense of national pride in England?” (p. 110). Lastly, the authors apply a project-based approach for readers to practice and research by themselves. The example is taken from exercise 15 in the chapter 13, “show the set of pictures below to a friend or family member and ask them to tell you the story portrayed by the pictures. Record what they say on tape. Identify the number of nouns they used and the number of pronouns they used in telling you the story” (p. 378). These four features of the exercises help readers to reflect on their understanding about the texts in the book and practice them in order to apply the theoretical concepts of sociolinguistics to their own contexts. Also, the readers will be able to understand the nature of language use and enable them to describe the situations correctly and appropriately.

In addition to another outstanding point, it concerns about the use of multimodalities and glossary. The book consists of a number of multimodalities such as maps, cartoons, figures (e.g. pie graph, bar graphs), pictures, text boxes, tables, videos, and audios. Also, a number of words are provided in the glossary. Both multimodalities and glossary will support well for learning. If students do not understand the theories, they can figure them out from the multimodalities provided in the book. Also, if they do not understand the technical words, explanations are provided in the
glossary section. These sources can lead students to learning autonomously and independently which are matched with the current situation of education that tries to promote self-learning or learner-centered approach.

Overall, this textbook is valuable for those who are interested in studying language use in the world society. It is also practical to apply in the language teaching classroom because learners will be able to understand the text and context of that particular language easily. The textbook helps readers to be aware of the important social factors of language use. That is to say, language will not be functioned correctly if the language user does not know how to use it meaningfully and appropriately. Social factors influence the way we talk and live. I highly recommend this textbook to others because it is very practical and valuable in applying our real-life situation and providing important fundamental concepts of sociolinguistics theories. The book is also understandable because Holmes and Wilson use simple language, provide many examples across countries, create a lot of exercises, offer many relevant references for further readings, and use multimodalities to help readers to understand the texts easily, including cartoons, bar graphs, scatter graphs, pictures, maps, flowcharts, and tables. Audio voices and videos are also available on the website of Routledge (www.routledge.com/cw/holmes).

Even though there are many good points found in the book, there is still a need for further study of some materials found in the book for richer information. Two limitations are taken into consideration: exemplifying contexts and using the web-site. The book covers many different situations and contexts to understand the theoretical phenomena in the field of sociolinguistics. However, the examples from the Southeast Asian context are still limited. Readers in the sociolinguistics field should contribute theories and concepts founded in the book to their own contexts and understanding in order to generalize the effectiveness of the book applications and contributions. Even though technology has been taken to support the contents in the book including both audios and visual materials, there is still a limitation to the access to websites. It would be easier and a less technical process to have CDs available. Another point is the possibility to guide toward trendy topics for those who are interested in doing research in the field of sociolinguistics.

Reviewer: Ms. Jutharat Jitpranee
Ph.D. student at College of Foreign Languages and Cultures, Xiamen University, The People’s Republic of China (PRC)

Reference