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When Arabic speakers read English words

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Abstract
Despite the widespread consensus among researchers that readers whose first language is Arabic frequently experience major difficulties with word recognition when reading in English, there is little research into the strategic behaviour of first language (L1) Arabic readers when encountering unknown vocabulary in texts written in English. This paper reports a study designed to contribute to our understanding of the types of reading strategy employed by L1 Arabic speakers when reading in English and in particular the types of knowledge sources and contextual clues they rely on when encountering unfamiliar English words. The following research questions were addressed: 1. What are the principle lexical processing strategies employed by Arabic-speaking university students when encountering unfamiliar vocabulary in academic English texts? 2. To what extent does the employment of these lexical processing strategies result in successful identification of the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary? A pre-test was conducted to provide a measure of the participants’ overall reading proficiency and to ensure the unfamiliarity of the target words. Subsequently, individual reading tasks with concurrent think-aloud sessions were conducted to enable the identification of lexical processing strategies. Two main findings emerged: first, the participants in this study made use of three strategies when dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary; second, these strategies were frequently employed in a noticeably ineffective manner and, in consequence, many of the participants’ attempts at inferencing were conspicuously unsuccessful. The pedagogical implications of these findings are briefly discussed.

Keywords Arabic-speakers, lexical processing strategies, L2 English reading, think-aloud protocol

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When Arabic Speakers Read English Words

It is widely accepted that success in reading in a second language (L2) is related to frequent and varied use of reading strategies (Afflerbach, Pearson, & Paris, 2008; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004; Sheorey & Mokhtari, 2001) and that a common characteristic of the most successful L2 readers is an awareness of and capacity to effectively employ a range of strategies in order to facilitate and enhance reading comprehension (Baker, 2002; Erler & Finkbainer, 2007; Pressley, 2002; Pressley & Gaskins, 2006).

Although reading strategy research is a firmly established field within the second language acquisition research community, there have been few studies conducted with L2 readers whose first language is Arabic. This is surprising given the widespread consensus that Arabic speakers often experience difficulties when reading in English, especially with regard to word recognition (e.g., Endley, 2016; Hayes-Harb, 2006; Ryan & Meara, 1991). Partially replicating Paribakht and Wesche (1999), the study reported here was designed to contribute to our understanding of the types of reading strategy employed by L1 Arabic speakers when reading in English and in particular the types of knowledge sources and contextual clues they rely on when encountering unfamiliar English words.

Literature Review

Investigations of Arabic-speakers as English readers has tended to focus on two key questions: (a) What are the key challenges faced by Arabic-speakers when reading in English? and (b) What kinds of strategic behavior do Arabic-speakers engage in to overcome these challenges?

A small number of studies have investigated the challenges that L1 Arabic speakers face when reading in English. One issue that has attracted some attention is the difficulties Arabic-speaking readers of English appear to experience with relatively low-level processes, such as letter and word identification, that underpin higher level reading processes. A working hypothesis shared by various researchers is that these difficulties are related to “L1-L2 orthographic distance” (Barcroft, 2015, p. 73); that is, that the difference in the orthographic representation of Arabic and English renders recognition of English lexical items especially problematic for readers whose first language is Arabic. This section provides a brief summary of some of the more salient findings.

In a relatively early investigation, Ryan and Meara (1991) refer to the tendency for Arabic-speaking learners of English to produce errors that are “more dramatic and outlandish” (p. 531) than those produced by speakers of other L1s. Ryan and Meara’s study took the form of a modified word-matching task involving 100 high frequency 10-letter words. Initially all of the words presented to the participants were correctly spelled. After a short delay the words were presented again. In the second presentation 40% of the items were spelled correctly whereas in the other 60% of cases a vowel had been removed. The task faced by the participants was simple: for each word they had to decide whether or not the two presentations were identical. Three groups of participants were tested: 10 L1 Arabic speakers of lower intermediate to intermediate English proficiency; 10 non-Arabic speakers of comparable proficiency; and 10 adult native speakers of English. Ryan and Meara report that the Arabic-speaking participants were both less accurate and slower in performing this task than the other non-natives and the native-speaking control group. They
interpret this finding as providing “very strong support for the view that Arabic speakers have
great difficulty in processing English words” (p. 538).

Similar conclusions have been reached by other researchers. For example, Fender (2003)
investigated the performance of two groups of English learners of comparable proficiency on a
lexical decision task. One group consisted of native speakers of Arabic; the other comprised native
speakers of Japanese. (There was also a control group of English native speakers). The participants
were presented with strings of letters. Their task was to decide whether or not a string formed a
word. Fender reports that the Arabic speakers were significantly slower and less accurate in their
performance of this task than were Japanese speakers when the words were presented in isolation.
However, this disadvantage was not apparent when the words were presented in sentence context
and, in fact, the Arabic-speaking participants were significantly more accurate in integrating words
into larger phrase and clause units and comprehending them than the Japanese-speakers.

In a subsequent study, Fender (2008) investigated the relationship between spelling
knowledge and general language processing and comprehension skills (i.e., listening and reading)
among two groups: a group of intermediate-level Arab learners of English and a group of non-
Arabic learners of comparable proficiency. Fender found that the Arab group slightly
outperformed the non-Arab group in the listening test; however, the non-Arab group greatly
outperformed the Arab group in both the reading test and the spelling test.

Hayes-Harb (2006) presents evidence from two experiments. Both were designed to test
the general hypothesis that “native speakers of Arabic transfer word identification strategies from
Arabic to English reading” (p. 325) and, more specifically, that

native Arabic speakers’ pattern of attention to vowel and consonant letters will differ
from the other native language groups and that the difference will reflect the relative
prominence of consonants compared to vowels in native Arabic speakers’ written word
identification strategies (p. 325).

As with Ryan and Meara, the participants in Hayes-Harb’s (2006) experiments comprised three
groups: 10 native Arabic speakers of intermediate English proficiency, 10 non-native intermediate-
level English learners from different L1 backgrounds and 10 native speakers of English. Hayes-
Harb’s first experiment was a modified replication of Ryan and Meara’s earlier work. The main
modification Hayes-Harb introduced was to include an additional condition in which consonants
were deleted to serve as a control. The second experiment took the form of a letter-detection task
in which participants were asked to identify all instances of a target letter while reading a text for
comprehension. Hayes-Harb reports that Experiment 2 (but not Experiment 1) supported the above
hypothesis insofar as a higher rate of vowel detection errors relative to consonants appeared to be
specific to the Arabic-speakers.

A few studies have sought to investigate the specific kinds of strategic behavior engaged
in by Arabic-speaking readers when reading in English. Shmais (2002) reports a mixed methods
study, including a think-aloud, interviews, a multiple choice comprehension test and a
questionnaire. The participants, two English majors at a Palestinian university, were both “very
good learners of English” (p. 637). According to the researcher, both made use of a range of
strategies during their reading, including repetition, translating, paraphrasing and questioning. Shmais notes, however, that their use of strategies was “haphazard, and limited” (p. 648). This was confirmed by the participants’ responses to the comprehension test, which suggested that they had not successfully understood the texts they read. Thus, Shmais concluded that even “good” learners are not necessarily good and proficient readers (p. 648).

A similar conclusion is reached by Abbott (2010), who reports a study in which a think-aloud procedure was employed to investigate the strategies used by two groups of participants while taking a reading test. The two groups were made up of L1 Arabic and L1 Mandarin speakers. All were intermediate level English as a second language (ESL) learners. According to Abbott, the Arabic-speakers made considerably more use of “top-down” strategies such as skimming for gist, linking information presented in various parts of the text, and using background knowledge to speculate beyond the text than did the Mandarin-speakers. Nonetheless, the extent to which these strategies were used effectively was open to question. As with Shmais, Abbott reports that there was a tendency for these strategies to be over-used (especially reliance on background knowledge). She suggests that “successful” reading is not directly related to frequency of strategy use but to appropriate selection and use of strategies.

A few recent studies of the strategic behavior of Arabic-speaking subjects have employed self-reports, most often using the Survey of Reading Strategies (SORS) developed by Mokhtari and Sheorey (2002)\(^1\). A common pattern to emerge from several of these studies is the tendency for Arabic-speaking subjects to favor so-called “problem-solving” strategies, defined as “localized, focused techniques used when problems develop in understanding textual information” (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4). Examples of such strategies are: adjusting one’s reading speed if the material becomes more difficult (or easy), guessing the meaning of unfamiliar words or phrases from context, and rereading the text to improve comprehension\(^2\).

Mokhtari and Reichard (2004) made use of the SORS instrument to compare reading strategies used by L1 English speakers and L1 Arabic-speakers while reading in English. Information concerning the language proficiency of the participants is not given. Nonetheless, the researchers note that all the participants were attending college and so could be regarded as having achieved comparable levels of education. A key finding to emerge was that all the participants reported awareness of reading strategies, and that there was a tendency to favor problem-solving strategies. As we shall see, this tendency reappears in several other SORS-based studies involving Arabic-speakers\(^3\).

The participants investigated by Malcolm (2009) were students studying medicine in Bahrain, from various countries of the Middle East. Again, the study took the form of a self-report, using the SORS instrument. Based on English proficiency, Malcolm divided her participants into two groups. As with Mokhtari and Reichard above, Malcolm reports that both groups showed high levels of awareness and use of strategies. Again, Malcolm also found a clear tendency to favor problem-solving strategies rather than global and support strategies.

Another study of L1 Arabic-speakers making use of SORS is Alsheikh and Mokhtari (2011). The participants were “advanced proficiency ESL readers” (Alsheikh & Mokhtari, 2011, p. 151). The SORS data indicated that the participants “used all of the strategies in the SORS” (p.
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Perhaps not surprisingly, the participants reported using more problem-solving, as well as support-reading, strategies when reading in English than they did when reading in Arabic. This finding was confirmed by data gathered by means of a think-aloud.

Another study of Arabic-speakers that likewise used SORS is reported by Elhoweris, Alsheikh and Haq (2011). In this case the participants were high school students in the United Arab Emirates (UAE). No details regarding the participants’ proficiency is given, but the participants had been identified by their teachers as having learning disabilities. The SORS data indicated that the participants used problem-solving strategies the most, followed by the global and support strategies. It should be noted, however, that think-aloud protocol (TAP) data indicated that the participants actually failed to employ more than half of the strategies included in SORS.

Al-Sobhani (2013) used SORS to conduct a study of English majors at a university in Yemen. All the participants had received approximately ten years of English instruction at school and university. Again Al-Sobhani found that participants were aware of a range of reading strategies with all the SORS strategies being used with “high and moderate frequency” (Al-Sobhani, 2013, p. 130). Once again there was a slight tendency to favor problem-solving strategies over global strategies and support strategies. Al-Sobhani reports that the use of problem-solving as well as that of global strategies correlated with scores in reading skills; however, no correlation was found between reading skills and use of support strategies.

Another study of Arabic-speakers involving the SORS is reported in Alsheikh (2014). The participants were high school students in the UAE. Once again, no details regarding the participants’ proficiency is given. As with Alsheikh and Mokhtari (2011), the study compared the participants’ use of strategies in their L1 Arabic and in L2 English. Unlike the earlier study, however, Alsheikh reports the participants used more strategies when reading in Arabic than in English.

Recently, Endley (2015) also reported a SORS-based investigation of the awareness and use of reading strategies among Arabic-speaking undergraduates at a major university in the UAE. The participants were students majoring in three separate colleges: Business and Economics, Engineering and Humanities and Social Sciences. The results were consistent with those found in several of the studies already noted: first, participants from all three colleges had a high level of awareness of reading strategies; second, there was a general preference for using problem-solving strategies rather than global strategies or support strategies.

A follow-up study (Endley 2016) investigated the reading strategies actually used by twelve Arabic-speaking undergraduates in the UAE when reading texts in English. The procedure employed was a think-aloud protocol followed by a semi-structured interview. Endley reports that both higher-proficiency and lower-proficiency readers were already in possession of a repertoire of strategies, but that they often failed to use them effectively. This was especially the case with the lower-proficiency readers. As we have seen, this finding is consistent with those reported by Shmais (2002) and Abbott (2010).

To sum up so far, based on self-reporting, researchers have found that Arabic-speakers...
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A second common finding is that Arabic-speakers tend to display a preference for so-called “problem-solving” strategies such as adjusting reading speed, guessing meanings and rereading (e.g. Alsheikh & Mokhtari, 2011; Al-Sobhani, 2013; Endley, 2015). At the same time, some researchers have found that often the strategies that Arabic-speakers choose to use are employed in a markedly ineffective manner (e.g., Abbott, 2010; Endley, 2016; Shmais, 2002).

In reviewing the research on Arabic-speakers as readers of L2 English, one other study merits more detailed discussion. The study is noteworthy both for its design and for the findings that emerged. Paribakht and Wesche (1999) report a cross-linguistic study involving 10 intermediate-level ESL students in a university setting. The participants came from a variety of L1 backgrounds, including Arabic. A think-aloud procedure was used to investigate the behavior of the participants when faced specifically with unfamiliar English vocabulary. An initial pretest was conducted in which the participants read a text in English and circled any words they did not know. Several weeks later, individual reading sessions were conducted, comprising think-aloud protocols. The reading session involved two comprehension tasks—a question task and a summary task. The question task required the participants to answer questions based on the text, while continuing to think aloud. Following each question, they were asked if they had encountered unfamiliar words while doing the task and, if so, how they had dealt with each of them. Paribakht and Wesche refer to this as an “immediate retrospective protocol”). The summary task required the participants to pause in their reading at the end of each paragraph to give a summary of its content. Again, they were asked to verbalize their thoughts while completing this task. Once more, after summarizing each paragraph, they were asked to indicate if they had encountered unknown words and how they had dealt with each word. Following each reading session, informal discussions took place. The discussions focused on the participants’ responses to and handling of the vocabulary in the text.

A number of key findings emerged from Paribakht and Wesche’s (1999) analysis of their data. First, they report that way in the participants responded to the vocabulary differed depending on the task in which they were engaged. Collectively, they identified an average of 10.6 words as unknown in the pretest, 15.2 in the summary task and 9.3 in the question task. Thus, “the summary task . . . appears to have generally made more unfamiliar words salient to these L2 readers than did the pretest or question task” (pp. 203 – 204). Second, in completing the question task and the summary task, the participants disregarded “approximately half” (p. 204) the words they previously identified as unknown during the pretest. Third, Paribakht and Wesche found that their participants used three distinct strategies in dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary in the text: “attempts at word retrieval”, “appeals for assistance” and, most importantly, “inferencing”, with the last-mentioned strategy comprising a number of subtypes. They observe that:

For these advanced learners in a university setting, sentence-level grammatical knowledge was the type of knowledge most often used in lexical inferencing . . . which suggests the importance of such knowledge in lexical processing for learners and conditions such as those in the study (p. 214)
In addition, other important knowledge sources were “word morphology, punctuation, and world knowledge” (p. 214). Finally, Paribakht and Wesche comment that “in spite of the overall patterns”, “there were notable individual differences in the knowledge sources used. These differences appeared to be related to individuals’ previous L2 learning experience, their L1⁴, and their familiarity with the text topic” (p. 214).

**Research Questions**

Despite the widespread consensus that Arabic speakers experience difficulties with word recognition when reading in English (e.g., Endley, 2016; Hayes-Harb, 2006; Ryan & Meara, 1991), there has been surprisingly little research into strategic behavior of L1 Arabic speakers when encountering unknown lexical items in texts written in English. This paper reports a study designed to address this gap. Specifically, it focused on the following two research questions:

1. What are the principle lexical processing strategies employed by Arabic-speaking university students when encountering unfamiliar vocabulary in academic English texts?

2. To what extent does the employment of these lexical processing strategies result in successful identification of the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary?

**Methodology**

The text used for the reading task was selected from an IELTS practice exam. The chosen text dealt with the topic “Light Pollution”, which it was hoped would be of general interest and relevance to all the participants. It consisted of 45 sentences, which were divided into 10 paragraphs. The total word count was 913, with an average sentence length of 20 words. The total number of words in the text (i.e., word tokens) was 848; there were 429 different lexical items (i.e., word types). Of the word tokens, 73% were content words (nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs); the remaining 27% were function words (prepositions, determiners, conjunctions etc.). The text had a Flesch Reading Ease Rating of 60.5 and was ranked as Flesch-Kinkaid Level 9.9. Thus, it was anticipated that while falling within their general reading level, the text would present the participants with a comprehension challenge, and so elicit reading strategies.

The study involved several stages:

Stage 1. Identification of unfamiliar lexical items.

Stage 2. Vocabulary knowledge scale.

Stage 3. Reading task with concurrent think-aloud protocol.

Stage 4. Semi-structured interview.

These stages require further comment. As with Paribakht and Wesche (1999), the identification of unfamiliar vocabulary (Stage 1) was conducted by having participants read the text and mark any words that they either did not know or were unsure about. Collectively, the participants identified 77 word tokens as unknown/unfamiliar. From the words thus identified, 15 were randomly chosen to comprise the target words for the remainder of the study.
To further investigate participants' knowledge of these words, a version of the Vocabulary Knowledge Scale (VKS), developed by Wesche and Paribakht (1996), was administered (Stage 2) one week later. The VKS is a widely used instrument designed to measure receptive and productive knowledge of targeted lexical items from L2 reading. The rationale for administering the VKS was to gain more detailed information regarding the depth of knowledge possessed by the participants for the target words. In the version used here, participants were presented with 15 target words and asked to rank each word using the following scale: 1. I don’t remember having seen this word before; 2. I have seen this word before but I don’t know what it means; 3. I know this word; it means . . . ; 4. I know this word and I can use it in a sentence.

For each word that she ranked 3, the participant was required to write the word and the meaning she thought it had on the line provided. For each word she ranked 4, the participant was asked to write a sentence containing the word.

The reading task (Stage 3) involved a think-aloud protocol (TAP). In a TAP, participants are required to provide “an ongoing report of his or her thought processes while performing some task” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 77). While the validity of this procedure has been much discussed (Bowles, 2010; Konieczna, 2011; Leow & Morgan-Short, 2004; Morgan-Short, Heil, Botero-Moriarty & Ebert, 2012; Yoshida, 2008), it is generally accepted that, TAPs can provide “rich data concerning the flow of information through working memory . . . without intruding significantly on the comprehension process itself” (Yoshida, 2008, p. 207). TAPs may be concurrent (i.e., the participant articulates his/her thought process while engaged in a reading activity) or retrospective (i.e., the participant recalls her thought processes after completing the reading). It is generally agreed that concurrent TAPs are to be preferred. Again, TAPs may be metalinguistic (i.e., the participant attempts some explanation of his/her thought processes) or non-metalinguistic (i.e., the participant simply reports without explanation). The current study involved a concurrent non-metalinguistic TAP.

Each reading session was conducted on an individual basis. The sessions took place in the Department of Linguistics Phonetic Laboratory at United Arab Emirates University (UAEU). At the beginning of the session the purpose of the study was explained, together with the underlying rationale of think-aloud research. Participants were also invited to ask questions prior to beginning of the session. The researcher did not model the think-aloud process on the grounds that such modeling might bias the participants’ subsequent behavior (Pressley & Afflerbach, 1995). However, prior to beginning to record, participants were given a picture description task to accustom them to verbalizing their thoughts. Following this, participants were reminded to pay particular attention to vocabulary as they read and that they should verbalize all their thoughts, in English, while reading. They were told that they were free to consult a dictionary, and that they were allowed to mark the paper. They were also told that they would be asked to summarize their understanding of the text after completing each paragraph. The rationale for including a spoken summary was that it would necessitate greater mental effort to understand the target items than would be the case from a passive reading of the text, which might result in only a minimal level of lexical processing. There was no time limit set for completion of the reading.

Once the participant indicated that she was ready, the recorder was switched on and the reading session began. The researcher remained in the Laboratory during TAP sessions, seated
behind the participant, observing and taking notes for use in the follow-up interview. Researcher intervention was kept to a minimum; however, occasional verbal prompts (e.g., “What makes you think that?” and “Please keep talking”) were used.

The semi-structured interviews (Stage 4) were also recorded. The purpose of the interviews was to clarify the participant’s thought processes while reading and to explore in greater depth their handling of the target words.

Setting/Participants
The study was conducted at UAEU, a major university in the Gulf region, and the national university of United Arab Emirates. Established in 1976, UAEU consists of nine colleges, each of which is subdivided into several departments. The language of instruction is English. The student population is predominantly made up of UAE nationals (circa 95%). The university is gender-segregated, with an internal 70/30% female/male demographic.

The participants were female Arabic undergraduates (n=10), all L1 Arabic speakers, aged from 19 – 21 years. They were selected by means of nonrandom purposive sampling from a range of colleges and were majoring in a range of academic disciplines, including biochemistry, chemical engineering, chemistry, finance, political science, translation, and veterinary medicine). In order to enter the college of their choice, UAEU students are required to pass an IELTS exam. The participants’ IELTS scores ranged from Bands 5 to 6.

Results
Analysis of VKS data
Participants initially identified 77 words as unknown or unfamiliar, all of them content words. Of these, 15 were randomly selected as the target words for the remainder of the study. The following table presents participants’ responses to each of the target words presented in the VKS:

Table 1. Individual responses to target words presented in VKS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TARGET</th>
<th>P1</th>
<th>P2</th>
<th>P3</th>
<th>P4</th>
<th>P5</th>
<th>P6</th>
<th>P7</th>
<th>P8</th>
<th>P9</th>
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<td>2.9</td>
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</table>
When Arabic speakers read English words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Key: 1. I don’t remember having seen this word before; 2. I have seen this word before but I don’t know what it means; 3. I know this word; it means . . . ; 4. I know this word and I can use it in a sentence.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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<tr>
<th></th>
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</table>

As the data in table 1 shows, the participants’ responses to the target words presented in the VKS were quite varied. The average ranking for individual words ranged from a high of 3.8 out of 4 (hazard), with all but one participant claiming that they knew the word and could use it in a sentence, to a low of 2.0 out of 4 (trespassing). In terms of individual responses, one participant, (P6), claimed to know and be able to use all 15 target words; the sentences she produced to illustrate her knowledge did indeed indicate familiarity with all the words. This individual should be seen as an outlier. No other participant displayed the same depth of vocabulary knowledge. Most participants accorded several of the words a rank of 1 or 2. In fact, P3 accorded no less than 10 of the target words a ranking of 1, indicating that she did not recognize the item at all.

Closer analysis of the responses to the VKS reveals a more nuanced picture. Consider first of all some of those words ranked as 3, a ranking that means the participant believed she knew the word and could provide a synonym or an explanation. In some cases, the participant was able to provide a synonym or explanation that was acceptable:

Example 1. **Hazy**: Foggy, cloudy, making it hard to see (P2)

Example 2. **Suburbs**: In the city, lots of houses (P5)

Example 3. **Illuminates**: Turn on a light, make it bright (P6)

But consider the following cases:

Example 4. **Cadre**: Make it better (P1)

Example 5. **Fatally**: Slowly with being careful (P5)

In both these cases, the participant offers an inaccurate response, indicating that the word is not genuinely known at all, despite what she had initially claimed.
Turning to those items ranked 4, we again see that in some cases knowledge of the word was in evidence with a participant able to produce an appropriate sentence containing the word in question:

Example 6. **Dazzle**: It’s a little bit dazzling here and I cannot see properly (P8)

Here the participant not only has a firm grasp of the meaning of the noun, but has correctly modified it to an adjective. This contrasts with the following instance:

Example 7. **Hazard**: Never play with chemical substance because it is hazard (P1)

Here it seems that although the participant understands the meaning of the target word, her knowledge is only partial since she has failed to use the appropriate part of speech (i.e., *hazardous*).

In other cases, despite according a word a ranking of 4, it was clear that a participant had no understanding of the word at all. Consider the following:

Example 8. **Emphatic**: The emphatic of the presentation was positive (P9)

**Analysis of TAP data**

Analysis of the TAP data revealed that the participants made use of three main types of strategy. These may be designated as follows: (a) repetition of a target word and/or rereading a phrase or clause containing an unknown word, (b) consulting a dictionary to verify the meaning of an unknown word, and (c) attempting to infer the meaning of a word by means of various linguistic and extra-linguistic cues.

Of these three broad types of strategy, two (repetition/rereading and inferencing) were employed by all participants, albeit with varying degrees of effectiveness. The other strategy, consulting a dictionary, was also very widely used, with all but one participant making some use of this. Illustrations of these various reading strategies, drawn from the transcripts of the TAP sessions, are provided below.

**Repetition/Rereading**

Paribakht and Wesche (1999) construe strategic behavior of this sort as an attempt at word retrieval. All ten participants made some use of this type of strategy, either by repeating problematic words in isolation, or by rereading phrases and clauses that contained some problematic lexical item. In some cases (but not all) use of this strategy resulted in successful retrieval of the meaning of the word from memory:

Example 9. **Suburbs**: in the suburbs . . . sub [partial repetition] . . . suburbs [repetition] . . . I know this . . . it’s . . . I think it related to city or town . . . it’s like an area outside the city (P5)

In the above extract, the participant indicates that she has met the target item previously (“I know this”); her repetition enables her to successfully retrieve the meaning of the word from memory.

**Consulting a dictionary**
Nine out of ten participants sought to verify the meaning of one or more lexical item in a dictionary. The exception was P6 who, as we noted above in discussing the VKS data, apparently knew all the words and was able to use them appropriately. However, as will be discussed below, there was considerable variation with regard to the effectiveness of participants’ dictionary use. It is worth noting that for Paribakht and Wesche (1999) looking up a word in a dictionary is one form of a strategy they refer to as “appeal for assistance”. The other form is directly asking the researcher for help. In the present study, none of the participants made use of this latter strategy.

**Inferencing**

Inferencing was the most commonly used strategy among the participants, accounting for almost 90% of strategy use overall. This is strikingly consistent with the findings of Paribakht and Wesche (1999), who reported that inferencing accounted for almost 80% of overall strategy use. In the present study, all ten participants made some use of inferencing (albeit not always successfully). As with Paribakht and Wesche’s participants, their efforts at inferencing made use of a range of linguistic knowledge sources and contextual cues, often in combination:

- Morphosyntactic knowledge
- Phonological clues
- Intra-textual evidence
- Extra-textual knowledge

All participants made efforts to use morphosyntactic knowledge to infer the meaning of target words, focusing on sentence-level grammatical functions and relationships (lexical category, word order) and word morphology (the presence of derivational or inflectional affixes). Illustrations are given in the following excerpts from the TAP data:

**Example 10. Emphatic**: an emphatic no . . . I don’t know this . . . emph [partial repetition] . . . it’s an adjective I think because of the an . . but I don’t know what it means . . I’ve no idea (P3)

In the excerpt above the participant correctly identifies the target word as an adjective (even though the reasoning she employs is not strictly to the point since, obviously, the article ‘an’ could be followed by a noun rather than an adjective). In any case, her effort to infer the meaning of *emphatic* is conspicuously unsuccessful. She is unable to offer any suggestion with regard to the word’s meaning.

In the next two excerpts, we can see participants drawing upon their knowledge of English morphology (the derivational morpheme -tion and grammatical inflection -ing). Once again, however, in both cases their efforts are unsuccessful:

**Example 11. Legislation**: legis . . legislation . . ok . . that’s a noun because of the ending but I don’t know the meaning (P7)

**Example 12. Emanating**: emanating . . I don’t know . . emanating [repetition] . . I think it must be a verb because of ing . . I think maybe it’s like strong or something (P5)
In the next excerpt the participant uses her morphological knowledge to correctly identify the category of the word, recognizing that the inflectional morpheme -ing marks a verb; she then confirms her understanding by considering the syntactic context in which the word is used.

Example 13. **Emanating**: I’m not sure about this word . . . emanating . . . but it’s a verb I think because it has ing . . . and . . . it says the light emanating from street lamps . . . so the light comes from the lamps . . . it means comes (P4)

The TAP data also contains examples of inferencing based on a phonological clue rather than morphosyntax. Note the use of expressions such “it sounds like” and “it sounds the same” in the following examples:

Example 14. **Norm**: the norm . . . what is that? . . . I’ve never seen . . . it sounds like normal . . . that’s what it make me think of . . . maybe . . . it says over-lit shopping mall parking lots are the norm . . so they’re normal . . I think that’s it . . norm means normal (P10)

Example 15. **Emphatic**: an emphatic no . . . maybe . . . this is like emphasis . . . it sounds the same . . when you . . . emphasize . . that’s to make it more clear . . stronger . . an emphatic no [repetition] . . like a strong no . . is that right? (P1)

The next example is especially noteworthy in that we again see the participant making use of a phonetic similarity between the target word and a word already held in her mental lexicon but, in this case, she draws on her L1 phonological knowledge:

Example 16. **Cadre**: cadre of astronomers . . . cadre [repetition] . . is . . it sounds like . . . in Arabic we have kawaadir . . it’s a team . . does that . . it could be this . . a team of astronomers . . . yes that works . . . but it’s Arabic not English . . I’m not sure (P7)

In the interview following the TAP, this participant confirmed that it was the phonetic similarity between the English and Arabic words that stood out for her, alerting her to the possible similarity in meaning.

Another type of inferencing strategy that emerges from the TAP data is the use of intra-textual clues, that is, using information from beyond the immediate sentence boundary to help make sense of some item. A particularly clear example of this is given below:

Example 17. **Legislation**: legislation . . . I think it’s related to law because here [pointing to lines above] they talk about passing a law . . . it’s like making laws . . . putting rules (P1)

Another type of inferencing strategy, making use of extra-textual knowledge, was much less commonly used, with only two participants explicitly employing it on one occasion each. In the first case below, the participant draws upon her prior knowledge of terminology used in her major (Chemistry) to arrive at a reasonable understanding of the target:
Example 18. **Emanating**: it’s like release . . . in chemistry we use this word when heat or energy is released . . . so here the light is emanating from the lamps . . . it’s released . . . it’s the same (P1)

In the next example the participant recalls hearing the word used in a very different context but again is able to use this to make a reasoned guess as to the meaning of the word in the passage:

Example 19. **Trespassing**: ok I know . . . I’ve heard this word used . . . when I watched . . . movies . . . trespassing . . . it’s like . . . going into someone’s house . . . not allowed . . . but here it says low-sodium lights that block light from trespassing into unwanted areas . . . it’s light that’s trespassing . . how is that? . . . I think people . . oh it says unwanted . . so the light is going into houses and people don’t want it . . . it’s trespassing in their houses [laughing] . . . I didn’t know you could say that (P10)

**Discussion**

This study was designed to answer the following two research questions:

1. What are the principle lexical processing strategies employed by Arabic-speaking university students when encountering unfamiliar vocabulary in academic English texts?
2. To what extent does the employment of these lexical processing strategies result in successful identification of the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary?

With regard to the first question, concerning the types of strategy employed, we saw in the previous section that participants used three principle strategies during the reading task: repeating and rereading, consulting a dictionary, and inferencing. The last of these involved participants making use of four types of knowledge: morphosyntactic knowledge, phonological clues, intra-textual evidence and extra-textual (background) knowledge. Overall, the participants showed a marked preference for inferencing, with attempts to infer the meaning of a word accounting for almost 90% of the total number of strategies used. As already noted, this figure is consistent with the findings of the earlier study by Paribakht and Wesche (1999), who reported that inferencing accounted for 80% of their participant’s strategy use. The tendency to favor inferencing is likewise consistent with those reported in several of the SORS-based investigations which, as we noted above, found a preference for problem-solving strategies (Alsheikh & Mokhtari, 2011; Al-Sobhani, 2013; Elhoweris, Alsheikh & Haq, 2011; Endley, 2015; Malcolm, 2009; Mokhtari & Reichard, 2004). Dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary is a significant problem that all L2 readers inevitably face. The ability to infer word meanings is one of the central cognitive processes required of “good” L2 readers (Nassaji, 2004; Nation, 2013).

Accordingly, the fact that some of the participants in this study were able to successfully infer the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary is encouraging. As we have noted, drawing upon their morphosyntax knowledge was the means the participants employed most frequently in their attempts to infer the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary. This is not entirely surprising. In the interviews, several participants recalled that as high school students of English they had been taught to make use of syntactic and morphological cues when encountering difficult vocabulary. The data gathered here would suggest that most of the participants were aware of the potential usefulness of such cues, even if they were not always able to apply this strategy successfully.
In addition to their knowledge of morphosyntax, some of the participants attempted to use phonological clues, intra-textual evidence and extra-textual knowledge to infer word meanings. Given that use of these cues was less in evidence in the data, further strategy-training might focus on developing such awareness. For example, students might be taught the value of being alert to the sounds of words while reading (i.e., to consider whether a problem word ‘sounds like’ any other word they already know). Again, texts will invariably contain intra-textual clues that can assist the reader in making sense of a word that they are not sure of. Thus, as L2 readers students might be shown the importance of searching the surrounding text for clues that indicate the meaning of the target word. Contrary to what Abbott (2010) reports with regard to her Arabic-speaking subjects, there was no evidence here that participants were overusing extra-textual (or background) knowledge when reading in English. As already noted, only two participants made explicit use of background knowledge in an effort to figure out the meaning of particular words. Indeed, the findings presented here suggest that students might make greater use of this strategy, being encouraged to think about possible connections between an unfamiliar word and any relevant prior knowledge they have.

The second question focused on the extent to which the use of these various strategies resulted in successful identification of the meaning of unfamiliar vocabulary. In other words, it was concerned with the effectiveness of the participants’ strategy use. As we have seen, many of the participants’ attempts to use a particular strategy were unsuccessful, or at best only partially successful. This is in line with the findings of several other investigations which have reported a tendency for Arabic-speakers to make ineffective use of strategies (Abbott, 2010; Endley, 2016; Shmais, 2002). Instances of such ineffective use were especially noticeable when a participant relied on knowledge of word morphology as her main strategy. Consider again two of the illustrative examples given above:

**Legislation**: legis . . legislation . . ok . . that’s a noun because of the ending but I don’t know the meaning

**Emanating**: emanating . . I don’t know . . emanating . . I think it must be a verb because of ing . . . I think maybe it’s like strong or something

In both these cases the participant has used her knowledge of word morphology to correctly identify the lexical category of the target word. However, in neither case has the participant been able to go on to successfully infer the meaning of the item. Identifying the part of speech of an unknown word may be a crucial first step, but reliance on morphology alone can only take one so far and does not automatically result in a correct understanding of word meaning. Examples such those above provide support for the somewhat pessimistic conclusion arrived at by Shmais (2002), namely, that even good L2 learners are not necessarily proficient L2 readers. At the very least, they would seem to indicate the need for more extensive training in how to employ morphological knowledge in combination with other lexical processing strategies.

Other types of strategy were also utilized in a somewhat haphazard manner. This was especially the case with dictionary use. As we have seen, all but one participant (P6) consulted a dictionary for one or more of the target words. Again, however, the extent to which participants used their dictionaries effectively is open to doubt. Successful use of a dictionary as a reading
strategy involves several steps (Nation, 2013), in particular it necessitates being able to identify
the most appropriate sub-entry, relating this to the context and deciding whether it makes sense.
In most cases was no evidence of an attempt to evaluate different potential meanings of the target
word and to consider which meaning was most suitable in the context of the reading passage.
Rather, the tendency was apparently to simply accept the first definition found in the dictionary.
During interviews, several participants indicated that they consciously kept a dictionary close by
when reading in English, and turned to it regularly. Nonetheless, the evidence from the present
study is that there is a need for more training in the appropriate use of dictionaries. This finding is
consistent with that reported by Endley (2015) in which ineffective dictionary use was reported as
a common characteristic of lower-proficiency readers.

Another common tendency noted during the reading sessions was for participants to mark
by underlining or circling some of the target words. Where this occurred, it is reasonable to
interpret it as evidence that a participant was paying particular attention to the word. It is worth
noting that in both the unsuccessful instances of using word morphology above, the participants
had first circled the word in question.

Related to this, while underlining and circling words was a common action it was
noticeable that when summarizing some of the participants failed to attend to a word they had
marked, or simply passed over it with a brief comment such as “I don’t know this word” or “I’m
not sure about this word”. That participants attempted to negotiate the summarizing task without
explicitly engaging with problematic vocabulary is especially noteworthy. As noted above, it was
anticipated that the requirement to provide a spoken summary would necessitate greater mental
effort to understand the target words (i.e., deeper processing) than would be the case from a passive
reading of the text, which might result in only minimal lexical processing. Clearly, however, this
expectation was only partially fulfilled.

This tendency for learners to disregard some target words, even when asked to summarize
their reading, is striking. On being asked about this during the interview, some of the participants
explained that they deliberately marked words that “looked important”. At the same time, some
evidence emerged during the interviews that perception of word difficulty had a bearing on how
particular words were treated. Two participants confessed that they chose to ignore a word during
the summary because it was “too long” or “looked difficult”. Once again, this is consistent with
the findings of Paribakht and Wesche (1999) who reported that in their study “avoidance remained
a frequent response” (p. 213).

Conclusion
The findings reported above throw further light on the kind of processing that Arabic speakers
engage in when reading in English. In particular, they indicate some of the specific strategies such
readers employ when encountering unknown or unfamiliar English vocabulary items. The
participants in this study made use of three strategies when dealing with unfamiliar vocabulary.
These three strategies were repeating and rereading, consulting a dictionary and inferencing.
Inferencing was the most commonly used strategy. In their attempts to infer word meanings the
participants drew upon a range of knowledge sources and made use of various cues: morphosyntactic knowledge, phonological clues, intra-textual evidence and extra-textual knowledge. At the same time, these strategies were frequently employed in a noticeably ineffective
When Arabic speakers read English words

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manner and, in consequence, many of the participants’ attempts at inferencing were conspicuously unsuccessful.

Notes
1. This self-report instrument, which has become widely used, is designed specifically to measure the awareness and use of strategies among readers of L2 English. It divides strategies into three subcategories.
2. In addition to problem-solving strategies, there are “global” and “support” strategies. Global strategies are “intentional, carefully planned techniques by which learners monitor or manage their reading” (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4), such as identifying a clear purpose for reading and maintaining this purpose in mind while reading, previewing the text in terms of length and organization, and making use of typographical aids, tables and figures. Support strategies are “basic support mechanisms” (Mokhtari & Sheorey, 2002, p. 4) such as consulting a dictionary, note-taking, and underlining or highlighting of key words and phrases.
3. There is no suggestion that this tendency is unique to Arabic-speakers. Several studies involving participants with a range of L1 backgrounds have reported the same finding. See, for example, Magogwe, (2013); Tabatabaei & Assari (2011); Temur and Bahar (2011); Yuksel and Yuksel (2012).
4. Unfortunately, Paribakht and Wesche do not pursue this hint, restricting themselves instead to a general discussion of their findings. It would have been interesting to know of any possible correlations between particular L1 backgrounds and the use of specific strategies.
5. The question of whether to provide participants with a model is somewhat contentious. For discussion see Bowles (2010). In the present case, a decision was taken to not provide a model in order to avoid the risk of influencing the participants’ choice of strategies.
6. Interestingly, Paribakht and Wesche (1999) also found that the words which their subjects identified as unknown were all content words. The reason for this is, as they suggest, that function words tend to be high frequency, and therefore already somewhat familiar—at least in form—to L2 readers. As a result, they are not identified as unknown.

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References


The Impact of WhatsApp on EFL students' Vocabulary Learning

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Abstract
Social networking applications have emerged as potential new tools for enhancing second language vocabulary learning. The current study explores the development of academic vocabulary knowledge of English as a foreign language (EFL) students using WhatsApp compared to the traditional method of vocabulary instruction. It also aims at investigating students’ perceptions about the use WhatsApp in learning vocabulary. Forty Arab EFL students at the elementary level enrolled at a public university in the Arabian Gulf region participated in the study. Twenty one participants belonging to the same class were randomly assigned to the experimental group. They completed and submitted their vocabulary assignments which consisted of looking up the meanings of new words in a dictionary and building a sentence using each word and submitting their sentences via WhatsApp. Nineteen students from another class were assigned to the control group. They had to submit the same homework assignment using the paper and pencil method. Data were collected using pretest-posttest design. Results of t-test scores indicated that WhatsApp group significantly outperformed the traditional group on a vocabulary test. Furthermore, results of a questionnaire that gauged participants’ perception of the use of WhatsApp in learning vocabulary show that generally participants have positive attitudes towards learning new vocabulary items via WhatsApp. Implications for teaching and future research are discussed.

Keywords: EFL Saudi students, mobile learning, vocabulary learning, WhatsApp

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Introduction

There is a growing support among researchers and practitioners for the use of mobile devices in the teaching-learning environment because of their versatility, adaptability and the ability to help foster individual learning experiences (Moreira, Ferreira, Pereira, & Durão, 2016). Mobile devices may enhance productive learning “where learners show responsibility for and initiate their own learning, share learning with experts and peers” (Vavoula & Sharples, 2008, p. 297). Mobile devices can also help students enjoy an autonomous learning environment (Sharples, Taylor & Vavoula, 2005; Fisher & Baird, 2007; Petersen, Divitini, & Chabert, 2008; Benson & Chik, 2010) that is personalized (Harley, Winn, Pemberton, & Wilcox, 2007; Hayati, Jalilifar, & Mashhadi, 2013). As such, mobile learning is aligned with the learner-centered approach to learning.

The widespread of wireless networks and mobile devices has led to the proliferation of social-networking applications, which are designed to run on mobile devices, including smartphones and tablets (Karpisek, Baggili, & Breitinger, 2015). As of January 2017, WhatsApp is the most popular mobile messenger app worldwide with over 1.2 billion monthly active users ("Most popular mobile messaging apps," 2017). It is an application used for free texting and calls as well as content sharing namely audio, video, images, location, and contacts. It is available on different mobile platforms including Android, Apple, and Blackberry.

The popularity of such apps has raised the interest of many language educators in exploring the potential of using WhatsApp in teaching certain aspects of second language learning. One of the areas of language teaching that can benefit from WhatsApp is vocabulary, which is the single most important aspect of second-language learning (Knight, 1994). Some researchers argue that second-language (L2) readers must be familiar with more than 90% of the words used in order to achieve an adequate understanding of academic texts (Groot, 1994; Hazenberg & Hulstijn, 1996; Hirsh & Nation, 1992; Laufer, 1989). However, teaching a large amount of vocabulary in class is not feasible as it takes away the time needed for students to learn other language skills (Groot, 2000). Furthermore, the instructor can only teach a limited number of words at a time (Nation, 2005). Hence, WhatsApp can be used as a tool to help learners explicitly acquire the needed vocabulary, which is an important element of an effective vocabulary program (Nation, 2001). However, this potential powerful tool is an educational resource yet to be exploited by L2 language practitioners (Andújar-Vaca & Cruz-Martínez, 2017). Therefore, this study sets out to examine whether instruction via WhatsApp can help enhance students' vocabulary learning in comparison with the traditional method of vocabulary instruction.

Literature review

Theoretical framework

This study is grounded in the tenets of the constructivist learning theory. According to constructivism, knowledge is actively constructed by the learners from within based on their previous and current knowledge (Bruner, 1966). Learners are not seen as passive recipients but rather active constructors of knowledge. As such, learners should be provided with a learning environment where they can actively participate in the learning process. Vygotsky (1978) argues that such environment should foster interaction between learners and their peers as well as their instructor. Constructivists assert that the instructor should establish a learning environment where he/she acts as a facilitator rather than being the source of knowledge. In other words, the burden
of learning should fall on the students’ shoulders. Vygotsky (1978) maintains that learners should be provided with tools to help them build their knowledge. One of these tools is social-networking applications such as WhatsApp which can be used as a medium to enhance the learning process. It can help create a learner-centered environment outside the classroom and create ample opportunities for collaboration between students and their peers.

**Smartphones as learning tools**

The rapid growth of mobile technologies such as mobile phones and hand-held computers has helped MALL Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) reach new heights (George, 2014). Mobile phones are the most commonly used devices in MALL projects funded by the European Union since 2001 (Pęcherzewska & Knot, 2007). Smartphones as new platforms for language learning have replaced personal computers since they are more user-friendly (Sharples, Taylor, & Vavoula, 2007) and easy to access. Smartphones have turned into effective tools for delivering learning content to students (Thornton & Houser, 2005). The early attempts to use mobile phones in teaching were not particularly successful due to major drawbacks related to mobile devices technology. Learners complained about mobile phone's screen size (Hayati et al, 2013), drain on the battery as well as a complicated keyboard (Kim, Rueckert, Kim, & Seo, 2013), and limited storage capacity (Zhang, Song, & Burston, 2011). However, with the thriving of smartphones which have largely replaced mobile phones, those issues have been solved. Today's smartphones have bigger screens with a high resolution and are equipped with an onscreen keyboard. They have fast processing capability, which make navigation easy and smooth.

Smartphones as learning tools have gained popularity among many educators who believe that they offer flexibility in terms of time and location (Demouy & Kukulska-Hulme, 2010; Kukulska-Hulme, 2012) and allow students to enjoy a personalized learning environment (Harley, Winn, Pemberton, & Wilcox, 2007; Hayati, et al., 2013). Students tend to enjoy using their smartphones because they can easily access the learning materials and can practice the language anytime and anywhere (Chen, Hsieh, & Kinshuk, 2008) and continue their learning even after class time (Laurillard, 2007). White and Mills (2011) have reported that learners generally have positive attitudes towards using smartphones for language learning.

Research involving the use of mobile devices in L2 learning has focused on language skills such as reading comprehension (Chen & Hsu, 2008; Plana, Gimeno, & Appel, 2013); listening (Edirisingha, Rizzi, Nic, & Rothwell, 2007; Huang & Sun, 2010), speaking (Ducate & Lomicka, 2009; Han & Keskin, 2016; Mahmoud, 2013), and writing (Allagui, 2014; Andujar, 2015). Some studies have also examined the impact of mobile devices on other aspects of language learning namely grammar (Baleghizadeh & Oladrostam, 2010) and vocabulary (Chen & Chung, 2008; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; Lu, 2008; Stockwell, 2010; Thornton & Houser, 2005).

**WhatsApp as a language learning platform**

WhatsApp has become the most commonly used social-networking applications on mobile phones and computers (Yeboah & Ewur, 2014). This cross-platform application can be installed on different types of smart phones such as iPhone, Android, Blackberry, and Nokia. It allows users to send free messages to each other via Internet. Users can also share pictures, audio files, and videos. WhatsApp offers the option to create a group of users who can communicate among each
other. The creator of the WhatsApp group is also its manager. The group creator can add and delete users. Participants receive an alert for each message sent by any user.

Many instructors have opted for the use of WhatsApp as a platform through which students receive and submit their vocabulary learning assignments. WhatsApp helps instructors save time (Lauricella & Kay, 2013) and better manage the classroom as well as keeping students up-to-date with classroom activities (Awada, 2016). WhatsApp encourages active learning and develop high communicative expectations (Desai & Graves, 2006; Farmer, 2003; Rambe & Bere, 2013). Other functions of WhatsApp include communication with peers (Bouhnik & Deshen, 2014); and fostering interaction between students and instructors (Cifuentes & Lents, 2011). This will give students a sense of belonging to a learning community (Doering, Lewis, Veletsianos, & Nichols-Besel, 2008; Sweeny, 2010). Students may take assignments more seriously as their contributions in a WhatsApp group are public (Sweeny, 2010).

Undoubtedly, WhatsApp has a potential for learning enhancement (Smit, 2012). In the field of L2 learning, WhatsApp has become a powerful tool in L2 development (Andújar-Vaca & Cruz-Martínez, 2017) that can improve learners’ language skills (Rambe & Chipunza, 2013) and help students become actively involved in a language class (Baffour-Awuah, 2015; Cifuentes & Lents, 2011).

**WhatsApp and vocabulary learning**

Before the widespread of smartphones and the rapid use of social networking applications such as WhatsApp, many studies explored the impact of Short Message Service (SMS), which is the basic feature of mobile phones, on vocabulary learning. Specifically, these studies examined different aspects of vocabulary such as idioms (Hayati, et al., 2013) and English collocations (Motallebzadeh, Beh-Afarin & Daliry Rad, 2011). Most of the studies that examined the use of SMS in learning vocabulary compared to traditional methods reported positive results (e.g., Alemi & Lari, 2012; Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009; Lu, 2008; Song, 2008; Thornton & Houser, 2001; Zhang, et al., 2011). However, there was a concern about the cost of SMS which could be quite expensive. Therefore, WhatsApp has positioned itself as a superior alternative since it is a free application and it is easy to use (Barhoumi, 2015).

In spite of the growing popularity of WhatsApp, the impact of this application as a platform through which students improve their second language skills has not been researched enough (Church & De Oliveria, 2013). One of the early studies was carried out by Fageeh (2013) who explored the impact of using WhatsApp to learn vocabulary among ESL students over the course of one semester at a Saudi university. The experimental group (N=27) received a list of words using WhatsApp 3 times a week after each class. Participants of the experimental group were instructed to define the words they received using an Online Dictionary application, use the words in sentences of their own and send those sentences to their peers and instructors for correction. Participants of the control group (N=31) were handed the same word lists in class. They were instructed to complete the same homework assignment and turn in their sentences on paper each class period. Results showed significant differences in posttest scores between the experimental and control groups. The WhatsApp group achieved higher vocabulary scores.
In a second study that involved South African students, Lawrence (2014) also used WhatsApp in order to introduce vocabulary items before reading texts to a group of five undergraduate learners of Afrikaans. Over the course of seven weeks, the researchers sent messages to the group that introduced target words with translations and different types of media such as sound or image. Results showed that WhatsApp is an effective tool for providing outside-the-classroom opportunities to practice vocabulary especially for weak students.

The impact of WhatsApp was also examined in the Turkish context. Basal, Yılmaz, Tanriverdi and Sari (2016) examined the effectiveness of WhatsApp in learning idioms from the Michigan Corpus of Academic Spoken English compared to traditional classroom activities. The participants were 50 first-year students from a university in Turkey. Results indicated that participants in the experimental group achieved higher scores than the control group in the posttest. The researchers concluded that WhatsApp has a positive impact on learning idioms.

A recent study conducted by Dehghan, Rezvani and Fazeli (2017), however, does not lend support for the use of WhatsApp to teach vocabulary. The researchers explored the impact of using WhatsApp to learn new vocabulary items among 32 EFL Iranian teenage students. The experimental group received instruction of the list of new vocabulary from their textbook via WhatsApp, while the control group was taught the same list of new words through the traditional face-to-face instruction in the classroom. The results of the independent samples $t$-test showed no significant difference between the WhatsApp group and the traditional group. The authors attributed the results to distraction among the WhatsApp group who did not focus on learning the target vocabulary items. The instructors did not establish rules of conduct during the experiment, which could have prevented participants from spending time on chatting and listening to music instead of focusing on the task in hand. They also argued that the small number of participants and the limited number of vocabulary items did not yield any significant differences between the two groups.

The limited number of studies that have examined the impact of WhatsApp on vocabulary learning have not yielded conclusive results. Hence, there is a need to further explore the potential of social-networking applications, and conduct more studies on vocabulary acquisition through WhatsApp.

**Rationale and research questions**

The efficacy of learning vocabulary via WhatsApp has not yet been researched thoroughly especially among Arab EFL students who are part of an educational setting where the importance of reading to increase vocabulary knowledge is taken lightly (George, 2014). To the author's best knowledge, only one single study involving EFL students in the US has examined the impact of WhatsApp on L2 vocabulary learning. Therefore, this study contributes to further elucidate the impact of learning vocabulary via WhatsApp. Specifically, the present research aims at comparing the development of vocabulary knowledge of EFL students using WhatsApp to the traditional method of teaching L2 vocabulary. It also aims at investigating students’ perceptions of the use of WhatsApp in learning vocabulary. The findings of this study will contribute to the growing body of literature available on MALL.
This study seeks to address the following questions:
1. Is there a significant difference between university EFL students’ learning of vocabulary items provided via WhatsApp and those learnt using traditional face-to-face instruction in the classroom.
2. How do learners perceive the use of WhatsApp for learning vocabulary?

Methods

Participants

The participants in this study were 40 Arab EFL learners at a public university in the Arabian Gulf region. They were enrolled in a compulsory elementary level English language course. They were all aged between 18 and 23, and were placed at elementary level classes by the English department. All participants were taught by the same instructor to maintain consistency across all classes in terms of teaching methodology and number of activities conducted for each class. Twenty one participants belonging to the same class were randomly assigned to the experimental group. They built sentences using new vocabulary and submitted their vocabulary assignments via WhatsApp. Nineteen students from another class were assigned to the control group. They completed the same vocabulary assignments on paper. Each participant of the experimental group owned a smartphone with WhatsApp installed. They were very familiar with the application as they used it on a daily basis.

Materials

Vocabulary Test

A vocabulary test was developed to measure students’ knowledge. The test consisted of 40 multiple-choice items and 10 fill-in-the-blanks items. The total fifty items were taken from the vocabulary lists that students had to learn over the course of the semester. The test content and face validity of the questions as well as the difficulty level were checked by experienced ESL professors who suggested some changes to the original test draft. The test was piloted with a group of 11 students who took the same English course in a different class. Necessary adjustments were made to the test. The test reliability was calculated using Cronbach Alpha. The alpha value was .87. The test length was similar to tests used in previous studies (ex. Hayati et. al., 2013; Suwantarathip & Uwantarathip, 2015). The vocabulary test was administrated as a pretest prior to the treatment to measure participants’ vocabulary knowledge and again after the completion of all homework assignments to measure participants’ vocabulary gain. However, the questions were shuffled.

Questionnaire

Participants of the experimental group completed a questionnaire consisting of six items. Each item is rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The questionnaire was translated into Arabic by a professional translator. The aim of the questionnaire was to elicit students’ perceptions of using WhatsApp to learn new vocabulary.

Procedures

Prior to the beginning of the experiment, participants were briefed about the purpose of the study. All participants took a vocabulary pretest before receiving their first list of vocabulary test items. They were assured that their test scores would not count towards their final grade. They were informed that the purpose of the test was to check their knowledge about some vocabulary. Both the experimental and control groups were given the same list of 120 words over the course
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of six weeks with an average of 20 words per week. Classes were held once a week for 100 minutes a week. The experimental group received word lists via WhatsApp after the instructor created a chat group and each participant was added to the group after obtaining their consent. The control group were handed printed copies of the same word lists in class. The recurrence of delivering vocabulary lists was governed by the frequency of class periods: once per week. Students had one week to complete each vocabulary assignment in order to receive full credit. The assignment consisted of looking up the meaning of new words in a dictionary and building a sentence using each word. The experimental group had the choice between using a monolingual dictionary app such as Longman mobile dictionary or visit an online dictionary following Fageeh’s (2013) design to learn the meaning of target words. They had to build sentences using the target words and send them via WhatsApp for correction. Participants of the control group were permitted to use any monolingual English dictionary. After the completion of all homework assignments, participants took an unannounced vocabulary posttest during the day on which they had submitted their last homework assignment. The purpose of the posttest was to measure learners’ vocabulary improvement. This helped determine the efficiency of each method of instruction in enhancing students’ ability to learn new vocabulary. The pretest and the posttest were identical. The researcher had to reshuman the items to avoid students memorizing the correct responses rather than answering the questions out of knowledge. At the end of the experiment, participants of the experimental group completed a questionnaire about their perception of learning vocabulary using WhatsApp.

Data Analysis

A t-test was performed on the data gathered from the pretests and posttests for both groups. First of all, a t-test was used to determine whether difference in means of pretests between the two groups was insignificant prior to the treatment. A second t-test was performed after the treatment to determine if there was a significant difference between the means of the posttest scores of the experimental group and control group. The significance level of the p-value was set at .05 in all statistical analyses. Data obtained from the post study questionnaire regarding participants’ perceptions of using WhatsApp to learn vocabulary were calculated using descriptive statistics including means and standard deviations. A mean score of 3.51 to 5 implies a positive attitude, and a mean score of 2.51 and 3.5 signifies a neutral attitude. A score of 0 to 2.5 suggests a negative attitude.

Results

Findings on the effect of WhatsApp on vocabulary learning

As Table 1 shows, the WhatsApp group (M = 20.10, SD = 7.50) outscored the paper based (M = 17.32, SD = 5.73) on the pretest. To determine whether the control and experimental groups differed in their knowledge of the vocabulary items, a t-test was applied to their pretest scores (see Table 1). The assumption of homogeneity was tested and satisfied based on Levene’s F test, F(38) = 3.45, p = .071. The independent samples t-test was associated with a statistically non-significant effect, t(38) = 1.31, p = .199, d = 0.42. These findings suggest that the experimental group and control group were not different in their knowledge of the vocabulary items before the experiment.
The Impact of WhatsApp on EFL students' Vocabulary Learning

Table 1. Comparison of Pre-test Scores between WhatsApp Group and Paper-based Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WhatsApp</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20.10</td>
<td>7.50</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>.199</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper-based</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>17.32</td>
<td>5.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To examine whether there was an improvement in scores from pretest to posttest for the experimental group and the control group, a t-test was conducted. As Table 2 shows, the independent-samples t-test indicated that scores were significantly higher for the experimental group ($M = 43.14$, $SD = 5.44$) than for the control group ($M = 21.21$, $SD = 8.60$), $t(38) = 4.30$, $p < .000$, $d = 3.04$. These results suggest the experimental group significantly learned more new words than the control group.

Table 2. Comparison of Post-test Scores between WhatsApp Group and Paper-based Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SMS-based</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>43.14</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>9.74</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paper-based</td>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>21.21</td>
<td>8.60</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Findings on perceptions of WhatsApp learning experience

Means and standard deviations for participants’ responses to each item of the questionnaire regarding perceptions of using WhatsApp to learn new vocabulary are reported in Table 3. Results show that the overwhelming majority of students who participated in the survey (participants of the experimental group) had positive attitudes towards the use of WhatsApp in learning vocabulary. In fact, 90% of the participants thought that learning new words using WhatsApp was an interesting method of learning. Eighty one percent of the respondents enjoyed learning new vocabulary using WhatsApp.

Students’ positive impressions of WhatsApp as a vocabulary learning tool have increased their motivation to complete course assignments. In fact, 76% of students indicated that WhatsApp motivated them to complete their vocabulary assignments because they found the app convenient; they could complete the assignments utilizing the convenience of flexibility of time and place available to complete their assignments at their own pace. No single student voiced concerns against the convenience of using WhatsApp.

When asked if given the choice between using WhatsApp and paper-and-pencil method of learning new words in future courses, the majority of students said they would choose WhatsApp. Only three students did not think they would like to renew the experience of learning new vocabulary using WhatsApp in future courses.
The Impact of WhatsApp on EFL students' Vocabulary Learning

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for participants’ perception about the use of WhatsApp

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item Statement</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Learning new words using WhatsApp is an interesting method of learning.</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>.805</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I feel more motivated to complete my vocabulary assignments using WhatsApp because it is convenient: I can complete it anytime anywhere.</td>
<td>4.19</td>
<td>.814</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I enjoyed learning new vocabulary using WhatsApp.</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.768</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. If given the choice between using WhatsApp and paper-and-pencil method of learning new words in future courses I would choose using WhatsApp.</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.111</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Using WhatsApp helped me remember the new words.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Writing sentences including the new words and sending them to the instructor via WhatsApp is a useful activity.</td>
<td>4.24</td>
<td>.831</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Discussion
The present study is designed to determine if the use of WhatsApp mediation helps improve students’ vocabulary learning compared to the traditional method. The results underscore that using WhatsApp mediation is more effective than traditional instruction in enhancing learners’ vocabulary learning. This study lends support to the constructivist theory since WhatsApp has helped students construct their vocabulary knowledge. The evidence for the usefulness of WhatsApp corroborates the findings of Fageeh (2013) who conducted his study in a similar educational setting and other researchers (Lawrence, 2014; Basal et al., 2016). However, it does not support the findings of Dehghan, et. al. (2017) whose participants did not benefit from WhatsApp to boost their vocabulary learning. The researchers argued that the results were affected by the participants’ lack of commitment to the tasks rather than by the usefulness of WhatsApp as a learning tool.

The findings of the current study also highlight the positive attitudes of the participants toward the use of WhatsApp in learning new vocabulary. These results are in line with the findings reported by previous studies such as Alhadhrami (2016) who surveyed Arab EFL students in Oman. His participants believed that the most useful app for English language learning was WhatsApp. The same results were reported by Gutiérrez-Colon, Gibert, Triana, Gimeno, Appel and Hopkins (2013) who studied the benefits of using WhatsApp to improve English reading skills of Spanish college students. The results of their study demonstrated that almost all participants acknowledged that the application of WhatsApp enhanced their motivation to read in English.

The effectiveness of WhatsApp in enhancing the learners’ vocabulary that is reported in the current study can be attributed to different factors. First of all, the novelty of the experience of using a smartphone app to complete classroom assignments has intrigued students and got them
more involved in the learning process. They particularly liked the sense of immediacy as they were able to send and receive messages instantly. A second possible factor could be the sense of virtual community that has been created between students and their instructor, on one part, and among students themselves through the use of the WhatsApp group chat. In such an environment, a special bond could have been created between the different members as it was the case of Awada’s (2016) experiment. She argued that participants’ sense of belonging to a community of learning has prompted them to complete their assignments with more diligence.

Another plausible reason for the positive outcomes of the current study is that the use of WhatsApp has somehow liberated students who lack confidence to participate in class. As many studies have reported (e.g. Alrabai, 2014; Al-Saraj 2014) Arab students typically experience high levels of anxiety while speaking foreign languages in class. Using WhatsApp may have helped participants feel less inhibited and thus has boosted their confidence to be actively involved in the learning process as reported also by Awada (2016) and felt that it positively impacted their language performance. The same perception was shared by Turkish EFL learners who thought that using WhatsApp significantly impacted the students’ language acquisition by lowering EFL speaking anxiety (Han & Keskin, 2016).

Conclusions and implications

This study sought to explore the efficiency of WhatsApp vocabulary learning among EFL students. Results show that using WhatsApp has significantly increased learners’ vocabulary learning compared to the traditional method. Furthermore, using WhatsApp as a learning tool has been a positive experience for most participants as it has increased their motivation for learning.

In light of these findings, it is recommended that language instructors consider using WhatsApp in teaching vocabulary and integrate it in the curriculum. WhatsApp allows instructors to teach a larger number of vocabulary items given the fact that they may not have enough time to do that in class. It helps them also reach all students through virtual communication especially shy students who may not participate in a face-to-face interaction. However, instructors need to ensure the success of using WhatsApp by establishing some rules to keep students focused on task. Students tend to spend considerable time chatting and lose track of the purpose of using WhatsApp. Therefore, it is crucial that instructors monitor their students to maximize the gains of virtual learning.

Since students tend to constantly use their smartphones, it is recommended that instructors consider using WhatsApp to send and receive homework assignments. Over 90% of the participants of the current study completed and submitted all their homework assignments, while most students of the control group tended to submit only partial homework assignments.

Limitations

he present study has a number of limitations that need to be addressed. First, the researcher used a relatively small sample size with only one proficiency level (elementary). Therefore, the outcomes of the study should be interpreted with caution. Second, the focus of the study was only on general vocabulary. Incorporating idioms and other vocabulary categories may have yielded different results. Third, the researcher could not control the amount of time spent by...
each group to work on the vocabulary activities during the study. Extra practice on the part of some students could have influenced the results of the study.

**Future research**

More studies are needed to further examine the impact of WhatsApp on vocabulary learning across different levels of proficiency. It will be useful to focus on more than one category of vocabulary to include technical English, for example. Furthermore, future research should examine the effect of WhatsApp on students’ vocabulary retention. Specifically, students should be tested a few weeks after the completion of the experiment to measure their ability to remember the words they learnt over the course of the experiment.

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**References**


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Scholastic Achievement and Computer Attitudes among Moroccan University Students

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Kenitra, Morocco

Abstract

In Morocco, like any other parts of the world, the government has enormously been an enthusiastic supporter of technology to uplift the education quality. However, without students' positive computer attitudes, students will not be successful nor will be prepared to acquire new knowledge to achieve good results. To this end, the present study (1) identifies the potential relationship between computer enjoyment (CE) and students' English achievement (EA), (2) explores the type of relationship between computer anxiety (CA) and achievement in English, (3) examines the nature of relationship between computer utility (CU) and English achievement (EA), and finally investigates the type of relationship between computer familiarity (CF) and English achievement among Moroccan university students. Therefore, the main instruments, questionnaires and achievement tests, are analyzed and interpreted quantitatively; whereas the semi-structured interviews are treated qualitatively. The statistical tools used in order to help analyze and interpret data make use of percentages, frequencies, and Correlation tests. Following what has been hypothesized, the quantitative findings reveal that there is no statistically significant correlation between CE, CA, CU, CF and EA. Likewise, the qualitative data results confirm the quantitative findings.

Keywords: computer anxiety, computer attitudes, computer enjoyment, computer familiarity, computer utility, English achievement

1. Introduction

Computer technology has contributed, largely led by using various media, to the learning process. It can range from using software like e-mails, to hardware like computers. These technologies can enhance the student’s learning in higher education since they afford rich graphics that aid in visualization. Simultaneously, they provide students with richer audio activities, records for future replay, and potential listening, reading, writing and speaking initiatives. Briefly stated, computer-based software helps learners create and interact with the learning context (Hamilton & O’Duffy, 2009). It is, therefore, significant to perceive the diffusion of information and communication technology (ICT) together with learners’ attitudes to make learning more pertinent and effective (Gülşen, 2010).

Technology has become a significant means for the uplifting of educational quality. In Morocco, like any other parts of the world, the government invested efforts to establish policy frameworks that would help Morocco to be capable of managing its moves into knowledge-based society. The country tries to institutionalize a reliable policy to benefit from the opportunities offered by technological advancements for the purpose of restructuring the objectives, and content of education. Otherwise stated, researchers like Alexander and McKenzie (1998) pinpoint that while implementing the new technology into the process of teaching and learning, educators stress the paramount importance of how this new technology can influence learning. To be clear, exploring students’ computer attitudes, namely computer enjoyment, computer anxiety, computer utility, and computer familiarity, helps students to learn in different ways. In such types of learning, ICT is considered as the glue that binds the learning achievement.

2. Related Review of Literature

Students’ attitude is a critical factor in enhancing the acceptance of computers in the field of educational technology. In their cross-cultural technology training and education program, Chisholm, Irwin and Carey (1998) explore computer training preferences, computer attitudes, and computer access among Chinese, Ghanaian, and American college students. The results exhibit that the Chinese and Ghanaian students have positive attitudes towards computers, though they have no prior computer experience, and training. Along the same line of thought, Staehr, Martin and Byrne (2001) examine attitudes to computers among students enrolled in an introductory computing course. The results reveal that ownership of a computer at home has a positive impact on computer attitude subscales as anxiety and computer confidence.

Shaw and Marlow (1999) assess students’ initial attitudes towards the use of technology in which about ninety-nine university science students participated. Learning style questionnaire (Honey & Mumford, 1986) and attitude questionnaire including six dimensions as ‘comfort’, ‘interactivity’, ‘self-satisfaction’, ‘value new technology’, ‘experience’ and ‘context’ are used. The findings reveal that the participants exhibit low scores in their attitude dimensions of ‘value new technology’, ‘interactivity’ and ‘context’ indicating discomfort with computers, and lack of personal contact. The results also report a significant correlation between the ‘theorist’, the ‘interactivity’, and ‘context’ attitudes. In the same vein, Shaw et al. (1999) evidence that first year students show more positive attitudes towards ICT-based learning than second or third year students. The researchers conclude that technology-aided learning may be limited by negative attitudes toward a style of teaching which is not consistent with students’ past learning experiences.
In the same way, Teo’s (2006) study demonstrates that computer attitudes have a crucial role in determining the extent to which students accept the computer as a learning tool. A sample of 183 post-secondary students is examined for their computer attitudes using a likert-type questionnaire with three subscales: Computer importance, computer enjoyment, and computer anxiety. The MANOVA results reveal that there are no significant differences in computer attitudes by gender, though males report more positive attitudes towards computers than their female counterparts. Significant differences in computer attitudes are found among participants who have computers at home and those who do not. Respondents owning a computer at home report a lower level of computer anxiety compared to their counterparts.

In other studies, investigations have been conducted to examine students’ attitudes toward computers and the four language skills. For example, Gunn and Brussino’s (1997) study investigates participants’ attitudes towards technology-supported learning for specific language skills. First, the findings demonstrate that students exhibit positive attitudes toward technology-based learning in general, but computers in specific are found to be preferred, namely for listening and reading. This is followed by speaking and writing skills. Similar findings have been revealed by Lasagabaster and Sierra (2003) when they discover that participants favor computer software for listening purposes. In addition to listening, Ayres (2002) reports that participants also prefer computers for writing activities.

According to Cunningham’s (2000) study, 88% of the students report that computer technology enhances their writing skill in particular, and that students who make use of multimedia enhancement excel significantly compared to the traditional ways of learning. However, Cunningham (2000) examines the correlation between students’ attitude to technology for specific language skills and their level of achievement. The researcher does not find a significant correlation between students’ attitude for any of the language skills researched and the achievement scores. This has been confirmed by Bulut and AbuSeileek’s (2009) whose study reveals that there is no correlation between students’ attitude toward using computers and the language performance in the four language skills among participants.

Within an Arab context, Al-Jabri and Al-Khaldi (1995) investigate the effect of demographic variables on computer attitudes among 238 Saudi Arabian business students. Computer Attitude Scale (CAS) is mainly used to measure students’ components of computer attitudes such as anxiety, confidence, liking, and usefulness. The findings demonstrate that respondents’ computer usefulness is more positive than their computer anxiety, confidence, and liking. More importantly, the findings display that computer experience, degree of access, and computer ownership have significant effects on computer anxiety, computer confidence, computer liking, computer usefulness, and overall computer attitude, while age and class standing are found to be ineffective on any of the computer attitude scales. The number of computer courses and higher-grade point average significantly affect computer confidence, computer usefulness, and overall attitude scales. The researchers conclude that computer attitudes are a very significant factor in educational technology.

3. Research Methodology
The present study primarily has the purposes to explore students’ computer attitudes within a
Moroccan institution of higher education. Inspired by computer attitudes as highlighted in the review of the literature, the present study is designed to address the following hypotheses:

**Research Hypothesis 1:** There is a significant correlation between computer enjoyment and respondents’ achievement scores in English.

**Research Hypothesis 2:** There is a significant correlation between computer anxiety and achievement scores in English among the participants.

**Research Hypothesis 3:** There is a significant correlation between the type of computer utility and respondents’ achievement scores in English.

**Research Hypothesis 4:** There is a significant correlation between respondents’ existing types of computer familiarity adopted and their achievement scores in English.

As a matter of fact, the sequential mixed method research design is adopted in this study. It is sequentially quantitative and qualitative through the use of two quantitative data collection instruments, the scored questionnaire and language tests, and one qualitative data collection tool, the semi-structured interview. A sequential triangulation strategy is adopted on the ground that exploratory procedures begin with quantitative data, followed by the sequential collection of qualitative data across two phases (Teddlie & Tashakkori, 2006). In details, the two methods are integrated in the analysis and the interpretation phases with a focus on how the results from both methods are similar or different, and a primary purpose to allow for a validity cross-check of data through multiple modes of inquiry. Essentially, the purpose of using sequential triangulation strategy is to understand the inconsistencies that might be produced by different data sources and inquiry approaches and to offer “opportunities for deeper insight into the relationship between inquiry approach and the phenomenon under study” (Patton, 2002, p. 248).

The respondents of the current investigation are non-randomly sampled 81semester six university students within the Department of English Studies, Meknes. They are targeted on the basis of: 1) their availability and willingness, and 2) the researcher of the present study has a specific group of students in mind with the expectation that they will give unique and rich information of value to the study.

The main instruments incorporated are questionnaires, English achievement tests, and follow-up interviews. Based on the existing literature in the field of educational technology (Christensen & Knezek, 2000; Agnaou, 2009), the Computer Attitude Questionnaire (CAQ) is reported to be a sound, efficient and outstanding theoretical tool to explore students’ computer attitudes. Therefore, the questionnaire is used to measure four dimensions: (a) Computer Enjoyment (CE), (b) Computer Anxiety (CA), (c) Computer Utility (CU), and (d) Computer Familiarity. Furthermore, the questionnaire also allows the participants to choose from 1 to 5 point on a scale which ranges from “strongly disagree”, one point, to “strongly agree”, five point. Apart from the follow-up interviews, the adapted English tests are administered as part of the present study. They are meant to collect data on English achievement (EA). Four constructed achievement tests are used: (a) listening, (b) reading, (c) writing, and (d) speaking.

To achieve the research purposes in terms of interpretation of the data obtained, two different types of data analysis are used. As a case in point, both the questionnaire and achievement tests are analyzed quantitatively using different statistical tools assisted by the Statistical Package of the...
IBM statistics program (SPSS), version 22. First, Cronbach Alpha Coefficient (α) is calculated to ensure the reliability of the questionnaire and test constructs. Descriptive statistics such as frequencies, means, and standard deviations are also calculated for all scales, statements and tests parts. Second, inferential statistics, namely Spearman rank-order Correlation Coefficient tests are employed to determine the strength of associations as well as level of significance between two variables: Types of computer attitude (IV) and English achievement dimensions (DV). For ordinal scales, Spearman's rho Correlation is commonly appropriate, and serves the purposes of the current research analysis. The values of the Correlation test range from +1 to -1 with positive numbers representing a positive correlation, and negative numbers representing a negative correlation (Walker & Jackson, 2011). There needs to be a monotonic relationship between the two variables. That is to say, when both variables increase in value together, or as one variable value increases, the other variable value decreases (Pallant, 2007). A statistically significant correlation is shown by a probability “Sig.” value which is less than .05 to show that the relationship between the two variables is not due to chance (Hayes, 2005).

4. Research Findings

Apart from the follow-up interviews, the computer attitude questionnaire (CAQ) has been used to measure students’ attitudes towards computers while achievement tests have been used to test students’ ability in English, namely listening, reading, writing and speaking abilities. In order to draw a detailed profile of students’ attitude towards computer, it is essential to pinpoint their position on the basis of the four major categories. The responses are scored and calculated after having reversed the negatively worded items. The findings refer to the number of responses to each of the five options of every item in the Likert scale.

4.1.1. Findings of the Computer Attitude Questionnaire

Worth noting is that Cronbach alpha is the most commonly used measure when there are multiple Likert questions in a questionnaire, and the desire is to determine if the scale is reliable. Computer attitude scale consists of four dimensions: CE, CA, CU and CF (Items ≠1 through ≠20). The result of the Cronbach’s reliability test for the computer attitude scale is reported in Table 1.1. The findings of the Cronbach alpha range from the highest α=.78 to the lowest reliability α=.70 (rounded up from α=.65), with CE dimension demonstrating the highest reliability α=.78, and the CA scale representing the lowest α=.65. This is followed by both the CF and CU scales with α=.73 and α=.76, respectively.

Table 1.1: Internal Consistency/Reliability for CA Scale

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Computer Attitude Scale</th>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Alpha Coefficient (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer Enjoyment</td>
<td>Item 1 to Item 5</td>
<td>78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Anxiety</td>
<td>Item 6 to Item 10</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Utility</td>
<td>Item 11 to Item 15</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Familiarity</td>
<td>Item 16 to Item 20</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Items 20</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Overall, $\alpha=.70$ for overall computer attitude, there is a generally sufficient consistency of the CA scales $\alpha=78$. Therefore, the twenty items $\#1$ through $\#20$ are retained as variables demonstrating acceptable internal consistency in this analysis.

As previously stated, the CAQ is designed to assess four computer attitude dimensions. Therefore, the scores from the five point likert scale are interpreted in the following manner: The Maximum mean score is 30.00, the average mean score is 12.00, and the minimum mean score is 4.00.

Table 1.2: Descriptive Statistics for Each CA Scale: CE, CA, CU and CF

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Computer Attitude Scale</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Computer Enjoyment (CE)</td>
<td>5,00</td>
<td>25,00</td>
<td>18,11</td>
<td>3.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Anxiety (CA)</td>
<td>4,00</td>
<td>20,00</td>
<td>10,86</td>
<td>2.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Utility (CU)</td>
<td>8,00</td>
<td>30,00</td>
<td>23,29</td>
<td>4.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Familiarity (CF)</td>
<td>6,00</td>
<td>18,00</td>
<td>11,33</td>
<td>2.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As suggested by Table 1.2, the respondents' mean scores on the four scales range from the highest, CU (M=23.29, SD=4.19) to the lowest, CA with (M=10.86, SD=2.91). The fact that CU (M=23.29) registers the highest could be attributed to students’ awareness and their level of computer mastery. However, CA with the lowest score (M=10.86) might be related to the lack of students’ confidence. The means of CE (M=18.11), and CF (M=11.33) are scored by the same sample with a spread of data around the means (SD=3.96) and (SD=2.88) in the respected order.

The results of the analysis demonstrate that the majority of the respondents express their satisfaction on overall items of CU (M=23.29, SD=4.19). CU refers to the level of awareness among participants of the computer potentials and their importance for educational purposes. For the respondents, computers are highly important and useful. Additionally, the elicitation of information about students’ CE (M=18.11, SD=3.96) reveals that the participants are motivated to engage in computer-based learning. The lower mean scores of both CF (M=11.33, SD=2.88), and CA (M=10.86, SD=2.91) registered by the sample may be related to the lack of students’ computer skills, and confidence in the various learning purposes of computers as well as the feelings of discomfort computers may make.

4.1.2. Findings of the English Tests

A four-section achievement test is designed to examine the relationship between students’ computer attitude (CA) and their level of listening, reading, writing, and speaking achievements. Listening and reading sections consist of multiple choice questions, while writing section deals with a short argumentative essay. In speaking section, however, participants are invited to introduce themselves and discuss randomly selected topics. To understand whether all the sections in the test parts consistently measure the same variables, and how reliably the test sections actually
measure the constructs they are meant to measure, a Cronbach alpha test (α) is performed on a sample size of 81 respondents (see Table 1.3).

Table 1.3: Reliability Evidence for Proficiency Tests

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Alpha Coefficient (α)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening Test</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Test</td>
<td>.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing Test</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking Test</td>
<td>.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>.69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Crucially important, reliability evidence for all the four test sections ranges from α=.66 to α=.72, with speaking test indicating the highest reliability α=.72, and listening the lowest α=.70 (rounded up from α=.66). Writing and reading have α=.71 and α=.70, respectively. The overall reliability for language tests has an alpha coefficient of α=.69 indicating, therefore, a sufficient internal consistency of the tests constructs.

The total score of the English achievement tests in the present investigation is 40, ten out of ten for each of the four language skills: Listening, reading, writing, and speaking. As suggested by Table 1.4, the achievement scores obtained through the English tests are grouped as the minimum (10.00), and maximum (32.50). The overall English achievement is identified as (M=22.11) with (SD= 5.16). Specifically, the mean scores for the four language skills are reported in the following table:

Table 1.4: Descriptive Statistics for English Achievement

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language Skills</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Listening (L)</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>2.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading (R)</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td>6.32</td>
<td>2.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing (W)</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>4.90</td>
<td>1.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking (S)</td>
<td>2,00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
<td>4.94</td>
<td>1.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>OverallAchievement</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td>32,50</td>
<td>22.11</td>
<td>5.16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The mean scores of the four language skills range from the lowest (M=4.90, SD=1.45) to the highest (M=6.32, SD=2.15). Overall, the highest mean score is reading (M=6.32, SD=2.15). This is followed by listening (M=5.95, SD=2.21), speaking (M=4.94, SD=1.22), and finally writing with (M=4.90, SD=1.45).

4.2. CA Relationship with EA
Initially, the Spearman's rank-order Correlation Coefficient is calculated to examine the relationship between computer attitude (CA) and language achievement. Among the four computer attitude dimensions, there are computer enjoyment (CE), computer anxiety (CA), computer utility (CU), and computer familiarity (CF). Noteworthy is that English achievement (EP) is computed by the scores of language skills, namely listening, reading, writing, speaking and overall EA.

4.2.1. CE Relationship with EP

The Spearman's rank-order Correlation to determine the relationship between CE and EA implies that there is a weak, negative and non-significant correlation between CE score, and both reading with \( \rho (81) = -0.093, p=0.41 \), and writing score with \( \rho (81) = -0.048, p=0.67 \), and a small, negative and non-significant correlation \( \rho (81) = -0.144, p=0.20 \) between CE and speaking. However, the correlation between CE and listening is very weak, positive, and non-significant \( \rho (81) = 0.010, p=0.92 \).

Table 1.5: Correlations between CE and EA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spearman's rho</th>
<th>Listening Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.093</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.41</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reading Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.048</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.67</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Writing Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.144</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.20</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Speaking Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.118</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Overall EA Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.118</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Spearman Correlation result, Table 1.5, also reveals that there is a small, negative strength correlation \( \rho (81) = -0.118 \). On the other hand, the level of statistical significance (\( p \)-value) of the Correlation is \( p=0.29 \), which is statistically non-significant. Hence, following what has been hypothesized, the test results do not support the research hypothesis. Given the fact that the relationship, in this example, is statistically non-significant, we accept the null hypothesis, claiming that that the two variables are not related.
4.2.2. CA Relationship with EA

It has been hypothesized that there is a significant relationship between CA score and EA score. However, Table 1.6 shows that the Correlation Coefficients for the relationship between computer anxiety (CA) and listening \([\rho (81) = 0.013, \ p = 0.91]\), reading \([\rho (81) = -0.109, \ p = 0.33]\), writing \([\rho (81) = -0.203, \ p = 0.06]\), and speaking \([\rho (81) = 0.029, \ p = 0.79]\) is not significant. In other words, there is a small negative and non-significant correlation between CA and both reading and writing, and weak positive non-significant correlation with both listening and speaking.

Table 1.6: Correlations between CA and EA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spearman's rho</th>
<th>Listening</th>
<th>Correlation Coefficient</th>
<th>(\rho)</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>(N)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>0.013</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.109</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.33</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.203</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>0.029</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall EA</td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-0.061</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>0.58</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(N)</td>
<td>81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Correlation result between CA and overall EA \([\rho (81) = -0.061, \ p = 0.58]\) is weak and negative with \([\rho (81) = -0.061]\). Because the Sig value \((p = 0.58)\) is higher than the \(p = value 0.05\), the
correlation between the two variables is statistically non-significant. That is to say, the two variables are not associated with each other. Therefore, we accept the null hypothesis, and can conclude that the data do not support the research hypothesis.

4.2.3. CU Relationship with EA

A Correlation test is conducted to explore the relationship between CU and EA score. From the Table 1.7, it is clearly stated that there is a very weak negative and non-significant relationship between CU and both reading \( \rho (81) = -.014, p = .90 \), and speaking \( \rho (81) = -.058, p = .60 \). However, the relationship is very weak positive, and non-significant with writing \( \rho = .025, p = .82 \), and listening \( \rho (81) = .006, p = .95 \).

Table 1.7: Correlations between CU and EA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Computer Utility</th>
<th>Spearman's rho Listening</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-.014</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.025</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-.058</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>-.021</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As far as the correlation between respondents’ CU and their overall EA is concerned, the results show a weak, negative non-significant correlation with \( \rho (81) = -.021, p = .85 \). Contrary
to what we have hypothesized, the correlation between the two variables is statistically non-significant. Thus, it is concluded that the data do not support the research hypothesis three that there is a link between the two variables, CU and EP.

4.2.4. CF Relationship with EA

The findings, Table 1.8, of the Correlation results explain the relationship of the respondents’ CF on their achievement in the four language skills. In other words, there is a very weak, positive and non-significant association between CF and listening with \( \rho (81) = .083, p = .46 \), reading with \( \rho (81) = .071, p = .52 \), writing with \( \rho (81) = .080, p = .48 \), and speaking with \( \rho (81) = .011, p = .92 \).

Table 1.8: Correlations between CF and EA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Spearman's rho</th>
<th>Listening</th>
<th>Computer Familiarity</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.083</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.071</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.080</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Correlation Coefficient</td>
<td>.120</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings of the Correlation also suggest a small positive strength correlation \( \rho = 0.120 \). However, the significance level (\( p \)-value) of the correlation is statistically non-significant at \( p = 0.28 \), which is higher than theoretical value \( p = 0.05 \). Based on these results, there is a statistically non-significant relationship between the two variables: CF and overall EA. Following what has been hypothesized in the research hypothesis four, the test results support the null hypothesis as opposed to the research alternative.

4.3. The Semi-Structured Interview

The semi-structured interviews are conducted to collect qualitative data. Therefore, the purpose of the triangulation perspective is to reveal other features that the quantitative data tools, the questionnaire and language tests, are unable to unveil (Mitchell & Jolley, 2012). They are meant to explore in depth the aspects related to the present variables under study: CE, CA, CU, CF and their relationship to EA.

The findings of the semi-structured interview where ten interviewees (N=10) within the Department of English Studies participated in the present study, five females and five males, are backing up the same quantitative results with minor exceptions. In other words, though most of the participants believe that their CE is associated with positive feelings while using computers, the same respondents think that the relationship of their perception of CE has nothing to do with their level of language skills. Their reason is that they are more likely to use technology when its use is beneficial. The qualitative findings, therefore, have revealed that though all the interviewees have positive CE, five out of ten interviewees think that computer enjoyment has no significant effect on their level of English skills.

The second research hypothesis basically investigates the participants’ opinions of the type of computer anxiety experienced. The focus is also put on the questions reflecting whether there is a significant relationship between this CA and EA. When asked about the potential link between the two variables, four respondents out of ten say that there might be a significant link between the two variables, but they are not sure how to confirm the link.

For the third research hypothesis, (70%) out of the N=10 interviewed respondents perceive that computers are very helpful and useful as they facilitate communication, listening, reading, and writing. According to them, “there are other factors that affect language development: The type of motivation and the specific language course have their say in developing the targeted language skills”.

The fourth research hypothesis which is investigated in relation to the four language skills is CF. It is worth noting that all interviewees report having positive attitudes towards CF, and that they are more likely to be computer literate. Still, there is no association between the two target variables.

5. Discussion of the Results

It has been stated in the review of the literature that by computer enjoyment (CE) we mean the pleasure, and joy derived by the participants using computers for learning purposes. Not surprisingly, the choice of the item “computers are essential in my life” has registered the highest mean score among the participants. The second rated item is “enjoy doing things on a computer”. The results of quantitative data also display that the mean scores of “enjoy doing school tasks on
the computer”, and “feel comfortable working with a computer” are somewhat identical. Undoubtedly, it can be concluded that the use of CE in relation to students’ level of EA involves students’ motivation. Therefore, the scale of CE is significant given the fact that it is associated with motivation which largely affects computer attitudes. Thus, positive attitudes are attributed to high levels of motivation and negative attitudes are associated with lack or low levels of motivation.

It is acknowledged by several scholars (Teo, 2008) that CE plays a key role in influencing students' acceptance of computers, and their willingness to use them for future learning. This is supported by research studies (Cybinski & Selvanathan, 2005) where learning with technology has positive effects on students’ motivation and enjoyment. CE is also reported as one of the central features in educational software (Kerawalla & Crook, 2005), and contributes to students’ experience in any technology learning environment (Finneran & Zhang, 2005).

When looking into the field of educational technology, students with higher levels of CE may have higher levels of EA. This is evidenced by Greenfield (2003) who reports that the majority of the students who enjoy computer technology gain confidence in their learning process. They feel that the computer helps them improve the productive as well as receptive skills, i.e., writing/speaking, and reading/listening, through developing their way of thinking and motivating them for more interaction.

The findings of the present study reveal similar results to a few previous studies. In that, Cázares (2010) finds no significant relationship between proficiency and attitude towards computer technology concluding that achievement level is not predicted by attitude, be it negative or positive. Nevertheless, students’ positive attitude towards computers motivates them to approve of learning and teaching strategies exploited, and thus achieve more in the exams. Smith, Caputi and Rawstorne (2000) examine students’ positive or negative responses to computers as a language learning approach. They conclude that there is a significant relationship between students’ attitude toward the type of teaching/learning and their attitude toward a particular computer-based activity.

The present study has demonstrated that the majority of the students show low levels of computer anxiety (CA). As expected, not only are the respondents aware that computers cannot replace the teacher’s job or face-to-face interaction, but they are also determined not to let the computer spoil their traditional learning, “computer is addictive and enslaving”. This is also confirmed by the second rated item, “feel threatened when others talk about computers”, and third rated item, “studying with computers makes me nervous”. However, “computers do not scare me at all” is the last rated item.

Notwithstanding, the fear of computer technology, which is accompanied by anxiety, negative feelings, lack of confidence and hostility, can lead to computer technology resistance (Yaghi & Abu-Saba, 1998). Findings by Chang (2005) prove that students with high CA may hinder their learning of language, and decrease their learning achievement. To be clear enough, according to Fuller, Vician and Brown (2006), students with high CA are likely to remain in that state of high computer anxiety in the future, and experience high levels of anxiety with repeated exposure to computers. They are at risk for “resisting the use of computer technology” and “an inability to gain learning benefits over the anxiety cost of an e-Learning environment” (Fuller et
To reduce the level of computer anxiety, many researchers focus on the effect of providing computer knowledge and experience. Nonetheless, Leso and Peck (1992) find out that some computer courses help reduce students’ computer anxiety, but others have no effect.

It is important to note that the highest mean score is demonstrated by the respondents who “know that computers give me opportunities to learn many new things”. The scores registered for this item reveal that the respondents are aware of the utility of the computer in their current practices. Therefore, there is awareness among Moroccan university students that the computer has been invented to make education easier, by relieving them of some routine, time-consuming learning duties. By the positive responses registered, we can also say that computers can be a source of impetus to double students’ efforts in learning.

It is no doubt that the respondents have positive attitude towards computers due to technology utility and its usefulness. The finding goes in line with EFL learners in other studies who have positive computer attitudes. Thus, according to Garcia (2001), students prefer to use computers in language learning because computer tools can help them search information related to their studies. Learners can also develop their listening, speaking, reading and writing English through real-world situations (Yang & Chen, 2007).

Nevertheless, the data findings to determine the relationship between computer utility (CU) and listening, reading, writing and speaking among Moroccan university students have been found to be non-significant. Likewise, the same findings have been found by the qualitative data results. In other words, though computers play a very useful part of language learning at different language levels, they have no potential effect on students’ achievement. As a result, the only factors which could possibly be explanations for such non-significance appear to be linked to the lack of exposure to ICT tools in students’ language learning experiences. Besides, the most important criterion for students to yield positive achievement results is assessing technology according to its pedagogical use and integrating it successfully in the curriculum (Gousseva, 1998), rather than limiting such educational technology tools to entertainment purpose.

It has been discovered that a great number of the students favour “word-processing” because it “is less time consuming than other tools of writing”. This means that the respondents save time when they type rather than hand-write, which might mean that the respondents are familiar with typing skills. This is further confirmed by the second rated item among respondents, “I cannot learn more from books than from computers”. This illustrates that the respondents can learn more from computers than from books, which is a restatement of the positive attitude to computers as a major competitor of the book. The third scored item is “I will do as little work with computers as possible” while the last used item concerns “It takes me a long time to finish when I use a computer”. Plainly put, computer familiarity (CF) for this last rated item is essentially shaped by the respondents’ low levels of computer mastery. That is to say, when one is a computer illiterate, there might be a kind of frustration, or computer anxiety.

Following what has been found, the qualitative data results complement the quantitative data. That is to say, though equipped with computer skills, the majority of the respondents emphasize the fact that there is no link between CF and their development of EA. However, the findings of the present study seem to contradict some research studies, though limited in number.
Taylor, Kirsch, Eignor & Jamieson (1999) investigate the relationship between CF and achievement in English and find a positive significant relationship between the two variables, supporting that language and computer knowledge are much related. Similarly, Goldberg and Pedulla (2002) reveal that CF and the examinees’ achievement in computer-based versions of the writing exam are related.

6. Conclusions

The ultimate purpose of the present investigation is to examine the nature of relationship between students’ computer attitude and their level of scholastic achievement in ICT-based environment. By addressing our research hypotheses, it has been proven that there is no statistically significant relationship between the four types of CA, and EA as reflected in the four-skill scores. The present study is, therefore, an attempt to explain and make a better use of respondents’ existing types of CA and fix any flaws affecting their EA. Among its top implications, attitude towards computers constitutes an important factor in determining the failure or success of ICT use in education. Thus, students who hold negative attitudes should renounce their previous perceptions of ICT by gaining more knowledge about the computer potentials. The relatively low computer familiarity and the increasing levels of computer anxiety registered by some respondents are in large part attributed to the lack of use of computers. For these respondents to overcome their negative attitudinal perceptions, they need needs-based training. Furthermore, it would be a major concern for teachers to be aware of the unique specificities of ICT tools. Just transferring traditional practices undermines efforts to take advantage of this promising medium of instruction, be it school use or domestic. Finally, ICT is not an independent technological tool; rather it integrates a number of technologies that can be incorporated in a discrete or integrative manner. Multimedia, for instance, has major implications for learners who have learning problems in a print environment. Simulation software, hypermedia, video, and voice services offer alternative modes of learning.

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References

Scholastic Achievement and Computer Attitudes

El Ghouati & Koumachi


Correlation between Self-Efficacy Perception and Teaching Performance: The Case of Mexican Preschool and Primary School Teachers

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Abstract:  
Self-efficacy (SE) is a key factor of the teaching-learning process success. While literature on SE and its dimensions is rich in the field of education, still there is a lack of studies aiming to explore teachers’ SE in contrast with their actual teaching skills and their characteristics. For this reason, this study aims to respond to the following research questions: are there differences between perceived SE and actual teaching performance in preschool and primary school teachers? Which sources of SE can be considered as significant predictors of teachers’ SE? This work employs a quantitative approach based on the observational method. Teacher Sense of Efficacy Scale and classroom observation frameworks were used to collect data from a sample of 24 teachers. Results show that there are high inconsistencies between self-judgments and actual teaching performance ($p > .05$). Experienced and medium experienced teachers show higher scores than novice teachers in several dimensions of SE ($p < .05$). However, teachers’ educational background is not significantly correlated with their SE ($p > .05$). Resource support is found as the only significant predictor of SE in our sample of teachers ($p < .001$; $\hat{\eta}^2 = .733$). Our research suggests that teachers may have a distorted perception of their in-class performance, which could drive to lower quality of the teaching-learning process. Therefore, in the future, professional training programs should focus on promoting a more realistic understanding and awareness of teachers’ actions in the classroom as the first step of any intervention aiming to increase teaching quality.  

**Key words:** assessment, classroom observation, teacher behavior, teachers’ self-efficacy, teaching performance

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1. Introduction

Globalization and free flow of people have allowed for rapidly increasing economic competitiveness amongst countries both at the national and international level. This competitiveness is being mainly reflected on educational reforms as governments are trying to keep abreast with the changing demands of educational and socio-economic realities and challenges by creating new policies and strategies. Mexico has been no exception to these global calls for educational transformation across different levels. Following the general consumption that teachers are the most important determinants of a qualified educational environment, the Mexican Ministry of Public Education (SEP) implemented a rigorous evaluation policy with its primary focus on assessing and improving teachers’ quality by introducing brand new National Teaching Standards (SEP, 2015). Matching other international teaching standards, SEP has identified five key profile areas – competencies, which describe pedagogical, interpersonal, methodological, organization, and relational knowledge, skills, and/or behavior that a good teacher should possess. As a consequence of these requirements, school teachers face a new and difficult challenge, since they are required to fulfill stricter criteria and maintain their teaching standards at a higher level than in previous years. For this reason, they should adopt new strategies that can help them increase the quality of the teaching-learning process in their classes. In order to answer the demands of the 21st century, as well as to cope with the new standards of the education reform, Mexican teachers, hence, need to keep improving their performance, as well as their efficacy.

2. Teachers’ self-efficacy

In the light of education, teachers’ beliefs and perception of their own teaching abilities make an essential and integral part of their practice. Owing to that, many researchers have studied self-efficacy (SE), as it is believed to be one of the crucial variables that influence pre-service and in-service teachers’ commitment, willingness to adapt to new reforms, implement new teaching strategies, and improve the overall teaching-learning process (Brighton, 2003).

According to Bandura’s (1977) Social-Cognitive Theory (SCT), the concept of SE is defined as “people’s beliefs in their capabilities to produce desired effects by their own actions” (p. vii). These beliefs function as a determinant of people’s feelings, motivation, behavior, as well as they influence their cognitive processes. After a comprehensive literature review, Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk Hoy, and Hoy (1998) refined the definition, applying it to a teaching context and identifying teachers’ self-efficacy (TSE) as a belief in one’s capabilities to manage and perform actions in a way to master established teaching tasks. According to Tschannen-Moran et al. (1998), the extent to which teachers perceive their skills and abilities to be efficacious is highly correlated with specific and contextual requirements of any teaching practicum. Thus, the measure for one’s success also comes from the perception of context-related resources (community support, leadership style) and constraints such as material support, or students’ motivation and abilities. Yet, due to the vast concept of teaching, the interpretation and conceptualization of a successfully performed teaching task might be problematic (Klassen, Durksen, & Tze, 2014).

Owing to that, Tschannen-Moran and colleagues (1998) suggest that the perception of one’s success varies depending on different TSE domains. As a consequence, the authors have proposed a three-dimension model that underpin the complexity of the teaching-learning environment in the areas of instructional strategies, classroom management, and student motivation. The first domain,
Efficacy of Instructional Strategies (EIS) addresses to the strategies teachers use in order to help their students learn a specific material. Efficacy of Classroom Management (ECM) refers to teachers’ perception of their abilities to run a smooth class, which in fact underlines the effectiveness of the instructional strategies applied. The third domain, Efficacy for Student Engagement (ESE), refers to how well a teacher can motivate students and create an appropriate learning environment in which its participants would be present both physically and psychologically. This domain is believed to be one of the most important pathways to influence students’ academic and cognitive development (Bandura, 1997).

2.1. Sources of Teachers’ Self-Efficacy
In order to manipulate and/or influence one’s level of self-efficacy, four sources should be taken into account: mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and physiological arousal (Bandura, 1997). Owing to the nature of teaching, of the four SE sources, mastery experience, which comes from the actual successful interaction between teachers and students, contributes the most to the complexity of the picture (Morris & Usher, 2011). Verbal persuasion is based on a verbal interaction that a teacher receives from others involved in the teaching-learning process (administrators, colleagues, observers, parents, etc.) on his/her teaching performance. Vicarious experiences are those connected to the observation of others. However, the effect of this type of experience relies strongly on the extent to which we identify ourselves with the model (Mills, 2011). As pointed out by Tschanne-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2007), when certain features, such as level of experience, training, or gender of the model, seem to be too far from the observer, the observation will not have any real impact on increasing self-efficacy regardless of the quality of the witnessed performance. Nevertheless, even the best seen activity will not make teachers as efficacious as when the performance is directly lived and/or experienced (Bandura, 1997). The last source, psychological and emotional arousal, also adds to this construct. In fact, the joy or pleasure that results from a successfully taught class may increase one’s sense of SE (Tschanne-Moran et al., 1998). On the other hand, high levels of anxiety and stress, often related to the inability to control the educational environment, may have a negative impact on TSE (Schunk & Pajares, 2009). As suggested within the SCT, the expectation of success in teaching reflects on the effort that teachers put into preparation and instructional delivery. Regardless of the knowledge on correct strategies teachers possess, if their SE beliefs are low, they tend to give up easily when facing a difficult situation (Bandura, 1997).

2.2. Profession-related characteristics and its effect on TSE
With regard to understanding the effect of the aforementioned variables on teachers’ behavior in both personal and professional settings, SE theory has triggered a rich line of research, studying different domains of TSE (Tschanne-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001, 2007), and teachers’ profiles (Klassen & Chiu, 2010). Although Fackler and Malmberg (2016) point out that most of the research on TSE has focused on investigating the level of teachers’ experience and its relation to SE, there seem to be an inconsistent evidence about how teachers’ beliefs change over the course of time (Tschanne-Moran et al., 1998). For instance, some authors such as Bent, Bakx, and den Brok (2016) suggest that there exists a relation between age and prior work experience and high levels of SE. An opposite effect is found in Klassen and Chiu’s study (2010), revealing a decline in SE related to teachers’ experience. Different findings are presented by Woolfolk Hoy and Spero (2005), suggesting that once teachers establish a certain belief in their competence, SE remains
relatively stable. Studies involving novice, medium experienced, and experienced teachers show a significant difference between different stages of service and SE, indicating that the more experience teachers have, the higher their SE beliefs are (Wilson & Tan, 2004). As research further suggests, the grade level that teachers teach also seems to have an impact on TSE. For instance, a study conducted by Ryan, Kuusinen and Bedoya-Skoog (2015) examines different domains of TSE in primary and middle school teachers, reporting lower SE for classroom management in the latter sample. As regards to teachers’ former education background, authors such as Raudenbush, Rowan and Cheong (1992) suggest that teaching courses that match one’s field of expertise represent a significant predictor of TSE. However, these results were contradicted in other studies, as no correlation was found between the type of degree obtained and high scores of TSE (Pas, Bradshaw, & Hershfeldt, 2012). Yet, such findings could have been a result of relatively small samples in all the mentioned studies. Although there exists a vast number of studies investigating teachers’ characteristics in relation to their SE beliefs, yet there are many differences between individual results. Thus, more research is required in order to investigate these contradictions.

2.3. Internal beliefs vs. teaching performance

There is an extensive body of literature investigating TSE from many different angles, from understanding its relation with teachers’ actions and achieved outcomes, teachers’ pedagogy, and/or with students’ engagement and achievement (Christophersen, Elstad, Turmo, & Solhaug, 2016; Tschannen-Moran et al., 1998). Nonetheless, very little is known about the relation between SE and actual teaching performance (Tschannen-Moran & Hoy, 2007). In fact, Klassen and Tze (2014) point to the lack of studies focusing on both the internal and external measures of teaching competence. As the authors indicate, over 99% of papers deal with teacher outcomes such as job satisfaction or engagement rather than with evaluations of teaching performance. The lack of studies related to this issue might be due to the difficulty with data collection (Klassen & Chiu, 2011), as well as due to TSE being an individual judgment of one’s competence (i.e. what I can do), rather than its current level.

Even though there is a general consensus that teachers should be able to evaluate the administered teaching tasks and context in a critical way (Bandura, 1997; Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2001), research has demonstrated that this is not always true. For instance, as pointed out by Bandura (1997), teachers are more likely to slightly overestimate their skills. Çakir (2010) shares his experience with language teachers stating that the majority of them claimed to be the best; yet, being unable to accept any shortcomings in their teaching practice. Due to that, the evaluation of TSE might have contradictory results compared to the external assessment of actual teaching skills (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). The difference between actual and perceived performance might be even more apparent in novice and experienced teachers, as noted by the authors. This bias can appear due to the high hopes and expectancies that novice teachers start their career with and the harsh face of the reality they encounter (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). For that reason, observation and evaluation of the actual teaching performance is suggested as the most appropriate method to gain insight into the quality of one’s teaching.

As a matter of fact, many prominent researchers have centered their studies on displayed effective teachers’ behaviors, i.e. teaching performance that can be observed in everyday lessons (Van de Grift, 2007). Amongst them, scholars have identified several domains such as Learning
climate, Classroom management, Instructions, and/or Teaching strategies. Ambrose, Bridges, DiPietro and Lovett (2010) define learning climate as intellectual, social, emotional, and physical environments in which students learn. As already mentioned, classroom management refers to methods and strategies that teachers use in order to prevent misbehavior and assure that a class runs smoothly. Instructions are considered as an important tool that meaningfully directs students’ learning; being provided with experiences that allow them to increase the current level of skills or knowledge (Huitt, 2007). Teaching strategies is a set of different methods, structures, or techniques that a teacher employs during instructions in order to enhance students’ learning. Authors such as Van den Hurk, Houtveen and Van de Grift (2016) argue that these teaching domains reflect what is considered as effective teacher behavior. Thus, in order to establish, whether a teaching behavior facilitates students’ learning, i.e. is effective, the above-mentioned variables should be evaluated.

2.4. Rationale for the study

Due to the new requirements established by SEP, not only school principals, but also teachers themselves, are looking for different means of professional growth. Owing to that, one of the researcher was asked to prepare a professional training program (PTP) focusing on empowering teaching competencies and skills of English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers. Yet, in order to plan an appropriate PTP, it was essential to understand both the initial level of teachers’ SE and the actual state of their teaching skills, as it can provide teacher trainers with an important insight on teachers’ perceived and assessed weak points. At the same time, it can demonstrate the strength of one’s actions and beliefs about his/her abilities. Considering the educational reforms taken place in Mexico, this is a very important factor, as it can explain teachers’ resistance to change due to their satisfaction and belief of perfection. This phenomenon is underlined by the results of Woolfolk Hoy and Spero’s (2005) study, indicating that once teachers established their efficacy beliefs, they were less likely to change. Similarly, Brighton (2003) suggests that the level of TSE may explain the extent to which teachers accept school reforms, as well as their willingness to change. Thus, in the light of the education changes established across Mexican public sector, diagnostic evaluations of TSE levels represent a necessary step before planning any training program. For this reason, the main aim of this study was to carry out a diagnostic assessment of teachers’ self-efficacy beliefs in contrast with the actual state of their teaching skills in a sample of ESL teachers from 7 bilingual schools. Furthermore, relationship between the two variables and teachers’ characteristics (age, teaching experience, education level) was also explored.

Considering the fact that there is a lack of studies aiming to explore teachers’ SE, their actual teaching skills, and their relation to teachers’ characteristics, this investigation aims to answer the following research questions:

- Is there any difference between self-efficacy in novice, medium experienced, and experienced teachers?
- Is there any difference in teachers’ self-efficacy in relation to their education background?
- Is there any difference in teachers’ self-efficacy in relation to the level they teach?
- Is there any difference in teachers’ performance in relation to their experience, education background, or level they teach?
- Is there any correlation between teacher’s self-efficacy and their actual teaching skills?
- Which sources of self-efficacy better predict it in our sample?
3. Methods

The study is based on an observational design using a quantitative approach to investigate the level of self-efficacy and its correlation to the actual state of teaching skills, and its relation to teachers’ characteristics.

3.1. Sample

Due to the nature and characteristics of this study, the sampling technique was founded on a non-probabilistic approach based on convenience. As above mentioned, seven schools from the urban area of Monterrey (Mexico) requested a PTP from one of our researchers, with the aim to empower ESL teachers’ skills. Therefore, all ESL teachers working in those schools were included in the study. The final sample consisted of 26 ESL female teachers (14 teaching at a primary level, whereas 12 at a preschool level) aged 22 to 47 years ($M_{\text{age}} = 32.21, SD = 6.45$), as shown in table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive data of the teachers included in the study, by grade and education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Experience (years)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school</td>
<td>No education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>25.00 ± 2.65</td>
<td>3.67 ± 3.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BA Language</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>33.67 ± 6.94</td>
<td>12.17 ± 8.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BA other</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>29.67 ± 3.21</td>
<td>6.33 ± 6.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>30.50 ± 6.24</td>
<td>8.58 ± 7.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>No Education</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>35.67 ± 10.59</td>
<td>12.00 ± 9.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BA Language</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30.20 ± 3.56</td>
<td>8.80 ± 3.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BA other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>36.00 ± 5.62</td>
<td>8.83 ± 4.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>33.86 ± 6.43</td>
<td>9.50 ± 5.18</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: BA = Bachelor degree

The teachers were successively divided into three categories depending on their experience, which ranged from 1 to 23 years of service ($M = 9.08, SD = 6.27$).

3.2. Instruments

Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale

Considering the complexity of teaching, we used the long 24-item form of the Teachers’ Sense of Efficacy Scale (TSES) developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001), as it has been proposed as the most suitable instrument to assess this multi-facet construct (Klassen, Tze, Betts & Gordon, 2011). The TSES is based on Banduras’ (1977) model of self-efficacy factors, evaluating three major components: 1) Efficacy for Instructional Strategies (EIS); 2) Efficacy for Classroom Management (ECM); and 3) Efficacy for Student Engagement (ESE) through a 9-point Likert scale, ranging from 1 = ‘Nothing’ to 9 = ‘A Great Deal’. Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy (2001) reported an overall Cronbach’s alpha for the TSES of .94; and .87, .91, and .90 of the ESE, EIS, and ECM respective subscales. In the current study, the overall reliability of this sample population was Cronbach’s $\alpha = .889$. Considering each subscale separately, Cronbach’s $\alpha$s = .735, .692 and .774 for ESE, EIS, and ECM respectively.
In addition to TSES, the participants were also asked to answer questions related to teaching context and demographics, including age, education background, number of years of experience, and the level at which they taught. Teachers’ education background was then coded according to the degree awarded (0 = no university education, 1 = BA in teaching ESL, and 2 = BA in other field). The level at which they taught was coded as 1 (preschool), and 2 (primary school). Based on the years of teaching experience, the teachers were consequently divided into three groups: (1) novice – up to 5 years of experience; (2) medium experienced – from 6 to 10 years of experience; and (3) experienced teachers – from 11 years of teaching practice onward.

In line with Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk Hoy’s study (2007), the participants further rated the resources (materials) provided by their school, as well as verbal persuasion, addressing the quality of support and involvement provided by: (1) school administrators; (2) colleagues; (3) parents; and (4) community they had received. Mastery experience was assessed by means of rating one’s satisfaction with professional performance of the current academic year. All variables were measured on an anchored 9-point scale ranging as follows: 1 – Nonexistent; 3 – Poor; 5 – Good; to 9 – Excellent.

Observational measures
An observational sheet adapted from the University of Pennsylvania (http://ccat.sas.upenn.edu/~haroldfs/pedagog/evaluation/evaluate.html) was used to evaluate the current state of teaching skill in the participants of this study. The instrument assesses six dimensions (preparation, language use, lesson presentation, classroom management, classroom atmosphere, and the use of technology) on a 4-point Likert scale, ranging from 4=outstanding, 3=good, 2=fair, to 1=poor. In order to affirm the objectivity of the assessment, each class was observed and evaluated by two independent observers. Prior to the study the observers were asked to evaluate several sample classes with the aim to reach the maximum agreement. The training stopped when the observers reached an Intrarater Correlation Coefficient (ICC) of .87, which, in line with Portney and Watkins (2000), shows high reliability and homogeneity of the observation.

3.3. Procedure
The study was conducted in the beginning of the 2016 spring semester. As the seven schools belong to one owner, all the participating teachers were summoned at the main headquarters and administered the TSES form. Consequently, in the following week, the trained observers entered each teacher’s class and evaluated the current state of mastery teaching.

3.4. Data analysis
Analyses were run using the statistical package SPSS v.21 for Macintosh. Prior to analyzing the data, descriptive and frequency analyses were run in order to detect any possible mistakes that could have occurred during the process of data transfer. Successively, data were examined employing standardized scores and Mahalanobis $D^2$ techniques in order to detect potential outliers. Once the data set was ready for analysis, we firstly confirmed the reliability of our instruments by calculating Cronbach’s alphas. Following, we employed Spearman statistics to test for correlations between variables; Mann-Whitney U and Kruskal-Wallis tests for comparing our sample by experience, education, and grade; and multiple linear regressions (MLRs) with Backward method, in order to examine prediction models for teachers’ self-efficacy.
4. Results

Seven participants were classified as novice teachers (up to five years teaching; 26.9%), with mean 2.29 ± 1.11 years of experience; six of them worked in pre-school, whereas only one was teaching in primary school. Nine teachers were included in the medium experienced category (6 to 10 years teaching; 34.6%), with mean 7.11 ± 1.61 years of experience; one of them was teaching in pre-school, whereas eight at primary school level. Finally, 10 participants belonged to the experienced category (11+ years teaching; 38.5%), with mean 15.60 ± 4.37 years of experience; five teachers in this category were working in pre-school, and five in primary school.

Outcomes from TSES showed an overall mean score of 6.85 ± 1.04 in SE, while teachers scored 6.86 ± 1.23 in ESE, 6.69 ± 1.29 in EIS, and 7.00 ± .97 in ECM. Results by grade and education are shown in table 2.

### Table 2.

**Descriptive results for the dimensions of self-efficacy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>ESE</th>
<th>EIS</th>
<th>ECM</th>
<th>TSE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.06 ± 2.31</td>
<td>4.66 ± 2.10</td>
<td>6.08 ± 1.23</td>
<td>5.27 ± 1.80</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAL</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.70 ± 1.07</td>
<td>6.20 ± .84</td>
<td>6.18 ± .55</td>
<td>6.36 ± .38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6.13 ± .90</td>
<td>6.46 ± .64</td>
<td>6.87 ± .69</td>
<td>6.49 ± .49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>6.15 ±1.46</td>
<td>5.88 ± 1.32</td>
<td>6.33 ± .78</td>
<td>6.12 ± .98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>7.46 ± .57</td>
<td>7.26 ± 1.10</td>
<td>7.91 ± .32</td>
<td>7.55 ± .65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAL</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.48 ± .61</td>
<td>7.68 ± .65</td>
<td>7.45 ± .96</td>
<td>7.54 ± .67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAO</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.50 ± .43</td>
<td>7.20 ± .77</td>
<td>7.50 ± .73</td>
<td>7.40 ± .61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.48 ± .49</td>
<td>7.38 ± .77</td>
<td>7.57 ± .74</td>
<td>7.48 ± .59</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** Ed. = Education; ESE = Efficacy for Student Engagement; EIS = Efficacy for Instructional Strategies; ECM = Efficacy for Classroom Management; NO = No degree; BAL = Bachelor degree in Languages; BAO = Other Bachelor degrees

Regarding SE sources, means of 6.96 ± 1.53, 6.00 ± 1.13, and 4.75 ± .49 were found in the categories of resource support, performance satisfaction, and verbal persuasion respectively. Detailed outcomes of teachers’ perceived sources of SE are presented in table 3.

### Table 3.

**Descriptive results for the sources of self-efficacy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>RS</th>
<th>PS</th>
<th>VP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.00 ± 1.00</td>
<td>5.00 ± 1.00</td>
<td>4.83 ± .38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAL</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6.50 ± 1.22</td>
<td>5.17 ± .98</td>
<td>4.66 ± .49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.67 ± .57</td>
<td>6.33 ± .58</td>
<td>4.50 ± .50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5.92 ± 1.16</td>
<td>5.42 ± .99</td>
<td>4.66 ± .44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary school</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8.00 ± 1.73</td>
<td>6.00 ± 1.00</td>
<td>5.25 ± .66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAL</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.80 ± 1.09</td>
<td>6.80 ± .84</td>
<td>4.60 ± .42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAO</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.83 ± 1.32</td>
<td>6.50 ± 1.22</td>
<td>4.83 ± .52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7.86 ± 1.23</td>
<td>6.50 ± 1.01</td>
<td>4.83 ± .53</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:** RS = Resource Support; PS = Performance Satisfaction; VP = Verbal Persuasion; NO = No degree; BAL = Bachelor degree in Languages; BAO = Other Bachelor degrees
The objective analysis of teachers’ performance focused on Lesson Presentation ($M = 2.72$, $SD = .85$), Preparation ($M = 2.62$, $SD = .78$), Classroom Management ($M = 2.78$, $SD = .97$), and Classroom Atmosphere ($M = 3.29$, $SD = .83$). The outcomes organized by grade and education are shown in Table 4.

Table 4. Objective assessment of teachers’ performance

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>LP</th>
<th>PREP</th>
<th>CM</th>
<th>CA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.47 ± .08</td>
<td>3.50 ± .43</td>
<td>3.66 ± .14</td>
<td>4.00 ± .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAL</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.88 ± .86</td>
<td>2.70 ± .75</td>
<td>2.87 ± 1.10</td>
<td>3.44 ± .88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.38 ± .22</td>
<td>2.91 ± .38</td>
<td>3.75 ± .02</td>
<td>4.00 ± .01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3.15 ± .66</td>
<td>2.96 ± .65</td>
<td>3.29 ± .86</td>
<td>3.72 ± .66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>NO</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.00 ± .62</td>
<td>2.00 ± .25</td>
<td>2.16 ± .63</td>
<td>2.44 ± .84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>school</td>
<td>BAL</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2.62 ± .88</td>
<td>2.55 ± .76</td>
<td>2.60 ± 1.08</td>
<td>3.13 ± .69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>BAO</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.28 ± .97</td>
<td>2.33 ± 1.02</td>
<td>2.21 ± .83</td>
<td>3.00 ± .89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.35 ± .85</td>
<td>2.33 ± .79</td>
<td>2.33 ± .85</td>
<td>2.93 ± .79</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: LP = Lesson Presentation; PREP = Preparation; CM = Classroom Management; CA = Classroom Atmosphere; NO = No degree; BAL = Bachelor degree in Languages; BAO = Other Bachelor degrees

When comparing by experience, Kruskal-Wallis test and following pairwise comparisons showed that experienced teachers had significantly higher scores than novice teachers in EIS ($p = .034$). In addition, medium experienced teachers obtained higher results than novice teachers in ESE ($p = .011$), EIS ($p = .002$), ECM ($p = .010$), TSE ($p = .001$), and RS ($p = .040$). No differences were found in PS and VP or in any of the objective measurements of teachers’ performance. Further, comparison by teachers’ education background showed no differences in either of the dimensions of SE, nor in teachers’ perceived sources of SE and their objectively measured performance. On the other hand, teachers at primary school obtained significantly higher scores than those teaching in pre-school in ESE ($p = .005$), EIS ($p = .001$), ECM ($p = .001$), TSE ($p < .001$), RS ($p = .001$), and PS ($p = .020$). No differences were found regarding VP. Opposite results were found when analyzing objectively assessed performance, as pre-school teachers obtained significantly higher scores than primary school teachers in PREP ($p = .041$), LP ($p = .027$), CM ($p = .017$), and CA ($p = .011$).

Outcomes from the correlation analysis showed that none of the dimensions of SE was significantly related to any of the objectively measured areas of performance of teachers ($p > .05$). These results are reflected in the overall TSE, being the correlations with LP ($p = .391$), PREP ($p = .342$), CM ($p = .385$), and CA ($p = .295$), statistically not significant.

Finally, we tested a predictive model for TSE, which initially included age, years of experience, RS, PS, and VP. The model was statistically significant for predicting TSE ($F_{5,25} = 32.149$, $p < .001$, $R^2 = .573$). The variables: age, years of experience, VP, and PS, did not fit into the final model and consequently were excluded. RS was the only variable adding statistical significance to the prediction ($p < .001$; $\bar{R}^2 = .733$). Regression coefficients and standard errors are shown in Table 5.
Table 5.
Summary of the predictive model for Self-Efficacy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>SEB</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>3.275</td>
<td>.646</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.048</td>
<td>.036</td>
<td>-.295</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Experience</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.024</td>
<td>.117</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal Persuasion</td>
<td>-.005</td>
<td>.346</td>
<td>-.002</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Performance Satisfaction</td>
<td>.243</td>
<td>.142</td>
<td>.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Resource Support</td>
<td>.514</td>
<td>.091</td>
<td>.757*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: ** p < .01; B = unstandardized regression coefficient; SEB = standard error of the coefficient; □ = standardized coefficient

5. Discussion

The aim of the study was to investigate teachers’ self-efficacy and its relation to both their characteristics and the actual state of mastery performance. When examining the self-efficacy beliefs with regards to teachers’ experience, we divided teachers into three stages based on the years of their service. Differences were found between novice, medium experienced and experienced teachers, the former demonstrating the lowest mean scores in all three TSE subscales (EIS, ECM, and ESE). These findings confirmed similar results obtained in a study by Tschannen-Morcan and Woolfolk Hoy (2007), suggesting that teaching experience might be related to TSE. Nevertheless, research findings have not been consistent in identifying whether the relation is, in fact, positive (Guo, Justice, Sawyer, & Tompkins, 2011) or negative (Guo, Piasta, Justice, & Kaderavek, 2010). As Van de Grift (2007) puts it, it might take up to 20 years of experience to master the most difficult teaching skills. Thus, it is not surprising that experienced teachers in our sample reported higher means for perceived efficacy on instructional strategies (EIS) than their novice colleagues, as the latter are at the beginning of building their professional confidence. On the other hand, no significant differences were found in ESE and ECM between medium experienced and experienced teachers. This outcome supports the general belief that once teachers establish a certain level of their efficacy, the result is unlikely to change (Woolfolk Hoy & Spero, 2005). Nevertheless, our results only reflect a preliminary data collection, therefore we would need to prove this hypothesis over time.

To answer the second research question, we tried to investigate, whether education background played any important role in defining the level of TSE. In line with Pas et al. (2012), our findings show that teachers’ education did not mark any difference in TSE. This might indicate that although pedagogical strategies and in-class performance are independent from the subject, they still constitute a component of any teaching-learning process. The results thus suggest that if teachers have any basic pedagogical education, it does not really matter if their degree is from languages or another field. Yet, to our surprise, also those not having any degree (i.e. no pedagogical background), reported the same level of TSE in all its subdomains. These findings are in contradiction with Bent et al. (2016), who suggest that the more advanced degree teachers obtained, the better their instructional strategies are, as well as their ability to engage students in classroom activities. These findings do not apply to our outcomes. This might have been influenced by the structure of Mexican education system, with a ratio of one qualified ESL teacher per every five schools (Roldán, 2016). This low ratio is due to the fact that school principals are
allowed to hire unqualified persons to cover ESL positions at their centers. This situation might imply that schools do not consider formal education as indispensable, inducing teachers with no qualification to feel that no background is needed in order to successfully carry out high quality teaching-learning process.

With regards to the third research question, we found that in our sample, teachers teaching in primary schools reported higher means of TSE in all its dimensions than their pre-school colleagues. One possible reason might be the demands and characteristics of these two different school settings. Though having enough experience, preschool teachers may not feel as efficacious in managing a class of 20 five-year-old pupils, as primary teachers would. This is not a surprising fact, as preschool children are taught disciplines and appropriate in-class behaviors for the first time. Moreover, we can assume that, considering the psychological and cognitive characteristics of children in preschool education, teachers at this level may find designing tasks, involving and entertaining pupils more difficult than at the primary level. Therefore, as suggested by Guo et al. (2010), continuous professional development should also focus on the latest approaches in early childhood education and literacies, to deepen teachers’ knowledge and to raise their self-efficacy.

We found no correlation between TSE, its subscales, and the dimensions from teachers’ classes observations. In general, teachers perceived their SE to be significantly higher than their assessed mastery performance, i.e. teachers felt their actual abilities to be better than they demonstrated in the classroom. An interesting result came out when we compared the results by teaching level. Although primary school teachers reported higher mean scores in all TSE subscales than their pre-school colleagues, they obtained significantly lower scores in class evaluation. This might indicate that even if a longer experience is often accompanied by a higher self-confidence, this is not always transferred into quality in-class performances. Considering that research has found direct positive links between stronger self-efficacy beliefs and years of service (Bent et al., 2016), we may assume that having taught many years, teachers tend to believe that their teaching effectiveness and/or performance must be very good. Yet, we argue that holding strongly to this belief, they may not able to understand whether their effectiveness is improving over the course of time or not. Our interpretation is confirmed by other studies that indicate that teaching effectiveness tends to decline with more years of service (Klassen & Chiu, 2010).

As already discussed above, teachers’ education did not mark any difference in TSE. In addition, our results were similar in the objectively assessed performance, where no differences were found by teachers’ degree. This is an alarming signal underpinning the fact that Mexican higher education might not be sufficiently inclined to transfer theoretical knowledge into professional practice, as demonstrated by the low average scores obtained by graduated teachers in all but one dimension. This hypothesis is supported by the results of several national and international reports, which highlights that 19% of secondary school teachers feel not at all prepared to present the contents of the subject they teach. Also, data reveals that more than 50% of English specialists failed the SEP assessment exam (National Institute for Educational Assessment and Evaluation in Mexico [INNE], 2015).

Lastly, when analyzing which variables could better predict TSE, we found out that in our sample neither age or experience have an influence on its level. The same results were obtained
when testing the impact of verbal persuasion and teachers’ satisfaction with their performance. The only TSE source that was found to predict how efficacious teachers feel was resource support. Perhaps it is not a surprising result, as the schools included in the study use an ESL course book with a lot of additional material, both printed and online. Hence, teachers do not need to spend hours preparing their classes, as everything is already set, and they can follow logically structured and balanced lesson plans. On the other hand, this might also explain the generally low scores teachers obtained in their class observations, as they might rely too much on the material available, lacking time dedicated to lesson planning, as well as creativity in terms of activity modification and adaptation.

5.1. Limitations of the Study

With regards to the methodological standpoint used in this work (i.e. cross-sectional observational character), our study has clear limitations. Firstly, the sample size was small due to limited access to educational centers, which compelled the researchers to select participants by convenience, reducing the generalizability of the results. Secondly, considering that our study was conducted with diagnostic purposes, its cross-sectional focus did not allow to understand variables interactions overtime, or potential changes due to accumulated teaching experience.

Although we acknowledge these limitation, we also argue that this study makes an important contribution for future studies, as little research has been conducted regarding TSE and actual teachers’ performance to the date. At the same time, our work may provide with directions for future research in the field.

6. Implications and conclusions

In order to plan appropriate PTPs and structure them according to the actual needs of teachers, understanding the judgment about their perceived ability for instructions, management, and classroom atmosphere, as well as the level of their mastery teaching performance, should become essential initial diagnostics (Tschannen-Moran & Woolfolk Hoy, 2007). Such results may well depict if and how do one’s perception and an objective third-person observation vary. However, for understanding better potential differences, i.e. why there are such discrepancies, a qualitative analysis should be also carried out as a part of the process. This could uncover any factors that may lie between the “believed” and “performed”. Thus, the current study may have important preliminary implications for both researchers and teacher trainers, as current education reform in Mexico focuses on the evaluation of teaching performance, i.e. planning, instructions, pedagogical and content knowledge, etc. Moreover, self-efficacy construct has been referred by researchers as a very powerful variable which indeed has a positive impact on teachers’ instructional time (Enochs, Scharmann, & Riggs, 1995). Hence, providing teachers with the most fitting tailor-made PTP should become the main aim of any practitioners, institutions, or governments who intend to foster teachers’ skills and abilities.

To sum up, despite presenting a first-step preliminary diagnostic measurement of self-efficacy and the observation of mastery teaching performance, our research findings are significant, as they point to the important differences between the two measured variables, as well as they display both strong and weak points in teachers’ instructions. The research efforts should thus continue investigating specific factors that cause inconsistencies between perception and objective
measurement in the teaching-learning process, adding a qualitative part. Moreover, we suggest to measure the same variables during and by the end of a PTP in order to verify any changes overtime, as well as to understand if these programs allow teachers to have a more realistic perception of their actual abilities and skills. Furthermore, other variables such as students’ academic performance and classroom motivational climate could be taken into account in future research.

About the Authors

Dr. Michaela Cocca holds a doctoral degree in English philology. Her main interests are centred on innovative pedagogical and teaching approaches in bilingual education. Her includes, among others, psychological constructs such as motivation and self-efficacy and their relation to the quality of the teaching-learning environment.

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Dr. Elizabeth Alvarado Martínez holds a doctoral degree in philosophy. Her main teaching and research interests are focused on professional training in ESL settings, pedagogical models to improve teaching services in higher education, and promoting educational models across different teaching levels.

Dr. María Lupita Rodríguez Bulnes holds a doctoral degree in education currently serving as a coordination of international accreditation at UANL. Her teaching and research interests are built around foreign language teachers education, internationalization of higher education, and narratives in education.

7. References


Roldán, Nayeli (2016, July 25). La SEP quiere formar alumnos bilingües, pero solo hay 1 maestro de inglés por cada 5 escuelas [SEP wants to educate bilingual students, but there is only 1 English teacher per 5 schools]. *Animal Político*. Retrieved from http://www.animalpolitico.com/2016/07/mexico-carece-de-maestros-de-ingles/


Theory of Mind and Linguistic Acquisition

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Abstract
Theory of Mind (ToM) is a conceptual theory that is credited with enabling individuals to anticipate the mental states of others, including their beliefs, desires, emotions, intentions, and additional emotive circumstances (Flavell, 2004). Linguistic acquisition is a natural development that begins to develop in children from birth and enables communication. The cognitive domains necessary to comprehend language is also required in order for the formation of ToM to develop. The interpretations made through ToM presumptions can contain the discernment of another’s false belief. In this context, the individual must be aware that the literal interpretation could be an inaccurate symbol or manufactured belief. This understanding requires a certain level of cognitive development in the child since the intention may be to signify something else and the child must be able to correctly process idiomatic expressions in order to accurately make ToM determinations (Caillies & Le Sourn-Bissaoui, 2008). This paper explores the relationship between ToM and linguistic acquisition in normally developing children, as well as those with various disabilities to ascertain the degree of cognitive development necessary in order to make ToM determinations. Exploration of this relationship reveals that linguistic and cognitive development are both essential in the construct of ToM perceptions in early childhood.

Keywords: language development, linguistic acquisition, theory of mind

Theory of Mind & Language

Theory of Mind (ToM) is a relatively new field that studies the nature of cognitive development in regards to human comprehension of the introspective or conceptual environment of others (Garfield, Peterson, & Perry, 2001). The inception of the ToM theory over the past two decades has inspired a theoretical social cognitive competence under intensive examination, garnering a traditional definition as the understanding of another person’s belief (Caillies & Le Sourn-Bissaoui, 2008). Essentially, the ToM concept illustrates the cognitive capacity of an individual to comprehend and attribute mental states to the self, as well as others (Goldman, 2012). The ToM concept includes elements of cognitive development that consists of personal individual “…beliefs, desires, emotions, thoughts, perceptions, intentions, and other mental states” (Flavell, 2004, p. 274).

Linguistic acquisition is vital to all aspects of life and communicative abilities affect how ToM is conceptualized (Grazzani & Ornaghi, 2012; Nettle & Romaine, 2000; Skotko, 1997). Although language development in early childhood is a perpetual process that begins at birth, the development of ToM requires the formation of specific cognitive domains that will enable the child to form the conceptual framework necessary to make such determinations (Ananthaswamy, 2009; Astington & Edward, 2010; Otto, 2010). Furthermore, association of the physical or emotional states attributed to ToM requires the attainment of semantic in addition to syntactic properties of sentential accompaniments in order to assist the expansion of the representational elements inclusive in ToM (Hale & Tager-Flusberg, 2003).

Empirical research has proven that in early childhood, linguistic acquisition is the foundation for cognitive learning (Ball, 2010). Comprehensive linguistic input is essential to the child’s ability to acquire language competency. Other factors include cognitive development, personality, self-confidence, motivation, and the language competencies of those in the child’s home environment (Morrison, 2009).

The broad connotations for the ToM concept has made exploration of particular interest within a wide range of disciplines, including developmental, social, clinical, comparative, cultural, and cognitive psychology, as well as philosophic, psychiatric, neuropsychology, educational professions, and numerous other fields of research (Flavell, 2004). This area is of particular interest to early childhood researchers because it illuminates various aspects of the cognitive development of children (Blijd-Hoogewys, van Geert, Serra, & Minderaa, 2008). Examination of ToM provides a comprehensive understanding of the development of early childhood thought process, as well as their facility to construct symbolic exemplifications that allow them to preserve images (Leslie, 1987).
Research Questions
The requisite of cognitive knowledge for both linguistic acquisition, as well as the construct of ToM concepts has inspired the research question: Is linguistic acquisition necessary for the development of ToM? In addition, age is a primary factor in both linguistic acquisition and ToM development in children since it is presumed that both occur during the same period in early childhood (Astington & Edward, 2010; Otto, 2010). This element prompts examination of ToM through an additional research question: Must children develop linguistic representations of the relative concepts in order to perceive these dynamics through ToM? In other words, is it necessary for children to be able to identify the perceived states of others that they interpret though ToM?

Research Methodology
This article will seek to answer the research questions by searching multiple databases including EbscoHost, Google Scholar, JStor, Muse, ProQuest, Sage, and WorldCat, using the specific keywords ‘linguistic acquisition’ and ‘theory of mind.’ From these databases, articles exploring the relationship between ToM and cognition of symbolic speech were collected, specifically research that concentrated on children with disabilities such as hearing, Autistic spectrum, or other disorders. This research examination employed archival techniques, which relies on the grounds established through existing studies. In this capacity, the research is both qualitative and quantitative, since it is based on the methods applied in the relevant studies, which includes both methodologies (Yoshikawa, Weisner, Kalil, & Way, 2008).

The data compiled from the empirical analysis in existing studies will be based on the instrumentation applied and will consist of observations, as well as examinations conducted in the referenced studies (Lieberman, 2012). The research procedure methods will be determined by the methods indicated in the relevant research materials and the data will be analyzed in accordance with the techniques performed in the context of the studies examined. The conclusions will be indicated based on the details represented in the compiled details representing relevant knowledge content with a bearing on the salience of the primary analyses established on the circumstance of these references.

The strength in archival research is in that if there is a wealth of available research, the archival design enables researchers to incorporate as little or as much research and widen or narrow their foci according to what they are trying to determine, as well as the availability of relevant data. However, the limitation is that the available research may not completely coalesce with the intentions of the study being conducted. Archival research encompasses conclusions drawn through analysis of current information resources including both public and private records to exploit the plethora of knowledge, which is the principle strength of this research method since it enables the consideration of trends from a temporal perspective (Newman, 2011). However, this is also the major limitation of this research method since it only draws upon available knowledge,
so if there is only a small amount of data existing, the research findings will be limited in this manner leaving the examiner with little control over the outcomes (Newman, 2011).

Illuminating the Concept of Theory of Mind

The term ‘ToM’ is generally used to indicate whatever understanding guides propositional viewpoint attribution, as well as provide an explanation and prediction of behavior by means of inner states and processes (Ahmed & Miller, 2011). Some researchers have indicated that ToM acquisition occurs through the development of social and linguistic interchanges, but does not precede them as an autonomous body of knowledge (Garfield, Peterson, & Perry, 2001). Existing analyses on ToM serves as a conceptual framework that analyzes the capacity of an individual to imagine or form opinions in regards to the cognitive states of other people (Marraffa, n.d.). The individual’s capacity to characterize mental statuses, such as beliefs, desires, and intentions, to the self in addition to others helps comprehend predictive behavior, thus transforming understanding of social patterns (Al-Hilawani, Easterbrooks, & Marchant, 2002).

Researchers speculate that ToM develops in early childhood through language as children listen to people discuss their emotions and beliefs (Ananthaswamy, 2009). The representations established through ToM describe that individual’s ability to include various perceptions and be cognizant of the possibility that they or others can have contrived opinions (Caillies & Le Sourn-Bissaoui, 2008). In early childhood, this is demonstrated when children are able to describe actions with words. At the onset of linguistic cognitive development, the “mental organ” is not yet in collaboration with other cognitive systems that facilitate responses such as motor control, perception, and reasoning (Pinker, 1995).

The individual must distinguish that the precise definitive expression could be a false representation or contrived belief when the speaker’s purpose is to indicate something else (Caillies & Le Sourn-Bissaoui, 2008). According to this interpretation, ToM must exist despite the individual’s ability to correctly interpret idiomatic expressions (Caillies & Le Sourn-Bissaoui, 2008). This correlates with the hypotheses that an affirmative or ‘yes’ bias exists as a predetermined response in three to five-year-old toddlers that have developed ToM capabilities (Moriguchi, Okanda, & Itakura, 2008).

It is the common interpretation that youth with ToM capabilities comprehend that people may hold erroneous interpretations, permitting the child to resist strange or incorrect recommendations, even when they come from adults (Moriguchi, Okanda, & Itakura, 2008). Presence of ToM is demonstrated in pre-linguistic children that have the ability to attempt the retrieval of a hidden item from a parent’s closed hand. Children that are developing ToM abilities will also attempt retrieval even though the parent has visibly switched the object to another hand.
Patterns of Linguistic Acquisition
Language is a symbolic system of communication that encompasses internal, as well as external entities (Malle, 2002). Regardless of the nature of interactions, communication is essential to pass on knowledge, give directives, and survive, which is why all children must learn to use some form of communication. An essential element of language is that it proposes options in its representational repertoire (Malle, 2002). The first words children speak are in the language of their parents, primarily disregarding the individuals who voice a different language and this is the foundation that they establish their basis for linguistic development (Ball, 2010).
Linguistic diversity has an amazing persuasion on a student’s talent to learn in schoolroom sceneries, which can become often harmful or damaging concerning the student when the educator has not received appropriate teaching courses to compliment the requirements of these children, as is primarily the illustration in local school environments (Otto, 2010). There are many elements that influence language acquisition in early childhood that the school practitioner must recognize, including the temperaments of the student, the societal background, and the superiority or aptitude of the linguistic contribution presented, all of which are significant elements in the facility to integrate the independent language (Otto, 2010).

Comprehensive verbal contribution is vital to the student’s capacity to acquire the new language (Garfield, Peterson, & Perry, 2001). Linguistic and ethnic diversity influences student’s capacity to learn from an instructor that is lacking in appropriate pedagogical educational methodologies that typically includes techniques to accommodate the needs of all individuals in public school settings (Otto, 2010). Additionally, a variety of characteristics within the learner’s surroundings influence their aptitude to cultivate literacy skills that the teacher must consider (Ball, 2010). This includes the specific personalities of each student, the dynamics of the educational setting, and the qualitative elements of the linguistic input received within the home (Crim, et al., 2008).

In early childhood, reading provides linguistic input that encourages students to actively think about, as well as internalize language, which teaches them how to correlate sequences and follow plots or recurring themes throughout the story line. Through this type of linguistic input, children learn how to ponder relevant elements of the story, like mood, and determine what may come next in the story. This also gives children the confidence to explore their thoughts and ideas about the story to piece together their own meanings.

Linguist Naom Chomsky is the main theorist associated with the nativist linguistic developmental perspective on, which accentuates instinctive linguistic abilities as the principal influential aspect to language development in children (Morrison, 2009). This perspective of linguistic acquisition encourages educators to employ a curriculum that will allow numerous opportunities for children to explore language and explore various aspects of their growing
knowledge and keep their language acquisition device (LAD) active (Morrison, 2009; Myers-Scotton, 1993).

The cognitive development perspective is based on the theories of Jean Piaget and speculates that linguistic acquisition comes with maturation and cognitive development, which is the foundation for teaching language (Ball, 2010). This perspective of linguistic development encourages early childhood educators to pay close attention to the cognitive developmental stages of their students and encourage stimulatory activities as precursors to the onset of linguistic development (Hill, 2007). These stages of cognitive development cannot be rushed or induced through the accomplishment of any specific tasks, but will develop only as the child’s experiential knowledge allows. In facilitating cognitive development, ritualized dialogue is an effective scaffolding technique in which the teacher provides all the dialogue, converses with the student, or allows the student to carry the dialogue, according to the age, linguistic capabilities, and experience of the student.

The behaviorist perspective highlights the role of “nature” and the stimuli, responses, and reinforcements that occur in the child’s environment based on B.F. Skinner and his theory of ‘operant conditioning’ along with the notion that children are ‘blank slates’ before they are taught through various situations and learn language through imitative speech (Decker, Decker, Freeman, & Knopf, 2009). This perspective encourages teachers to focus on the types of stimuli and reinforcements regarding language that children encounter and would encourage them to communicate verbally.

The interactionist perspective is based on the sociocultural interactions that help children develop their linguistic capacities and is based on the theories of Lev Vygotsky, whose premise contends that language development in early childhood is formed through social interactions with those in their surroundings that create a language acquisition support system (LASS) (Giorgis & Glazer, 2008). This theory requires the adult to create conditions for effective development and to be aware of the child’s zone of proximal development and know what the child can accomplish on their own and what will require scaffolding from the supervising adult. The meaning of language is singularly founded on the identity of the sender, which is developed through interpersonal communication (Borchers, 1999). The interpersonal communication we share with family, friends, colleagues, and others we associate with helps us develop our identity, and this identity plays a part in determining what slang we use and the meanings associated with its usage (Borchers, 1999). Interpersonal communication is spurned by three basic interpersonal needs: inclusion, control, and affection (Borchers, 1999).
Linguistic & ToM Development in Children with Disabilities

The relationship between mental-state language and ToM in primary school children remains in alignment with research indicating that the social use of language is one of the most powerful cognitive tools to understand others’ minds (Gallese, 2007; Grazzani & Ornaghi, 2012). The linguistic, metacognitive and cognitive measures are used to evaluate their verbal ability, use of mental-state terms, perception of metacognitive language, grasp of second-order false beliefs, and emotion, which are relative to comprehension analyses acknowledging various brain areas related to ToM and therefore vital to student’s efficient navigation of the social world (Grazzani & Ornaghi, 2012; Liu, Sabbagh, Gehring, & Wellman, 2009). Children can be assessed and given a verbal score, with the overall results indicating that “mentalizing” only occurred with non-decomposable idiomatic expression, particularly from the second-order competences (Gobbini, Koralek, Bryan, Montgomery, & Haxby, 2007; Moriguchi, Okanda, & Itakura, 2008).

Children with intellectual disabilities will display significant limitations in the areas of intellectual functioning and adaptive behavior. Adaptive behavior includes conceptual, social, and practical adaptive abilities in addition to the student’s intellectual capacities. When dealing with students that are intellectually disabled, teachers need to focus on memory, motivation, and their ability to problem solve.

When determining the presence or extent of cognition in children demonstrating ToM characteristics, various testing methods can be employed to examine the relationship between executive function and ToM, adding new information to an unexplored area of research with the preliminary observation that ToM predicts prospective memory in young children (Ford, Driscoll, Shum, & Macaulay, 2012). The relation between children’s ToM and their social interactions during the transition to primary school between age five to seven, which is the first stages of developing autonomy, as well as the stage that most children develop an increased awareness that mental states are internal, subjective experiences distinct from behaviors and contexts associated with them (Caputi, Lecce, Pagnin, & Banerjee, 2012; Gonzalez-Mena, 2009; Olson, Lopez-Duran, Lunkenheimer, Chang, & Samaroff, 2011). There is strong evidence that exposure to mental state language, such as references to beliefs, desires, emotions, and other expressions, directly predicts children’s later ToM understanding (Remmel & Peters, 2009).

The critical factor in ToM development is not general conversational exposure to language about mental states and different perspectives but the acquisition of certain syntactic forms (Remmel & Peters, 2009). The acquisition of complement syntax where a proposition is embedded under a mental state or communication verb is necessary to represent false beliefs (Pinker, 2004). In support of this hypothesis, two studies found that training on complement syntax improved children’s performance on false belief tasks (Remmel & Peters, 2009). A number of other studies
have found evidence that false belief performance is relative to language ability more generally and not mastery of complement syntax specifically (Remmel & Peters, 2009).

The Cognition Hypothesis claims that tasks should be designed and sequenced for learners on the basis of increases in their cognitive complexity, and that these design and sequencing decisions should be the basis of the task-based syllabus (Robinson, 2007). This theory specifies six dimensions where task complexity can be increased while simultaneously directing cognitive resources to the available and specific second language and/or foreign language (L2) linguistic means to meet task demands. Complex tasks on these dimensions require:

i. reference to events happening in the past, elsewhere (There-and-Then tasks) which implicates and directs learner resources to e.g., the L2 means of encoding past time reference, and deictic expressions;
ii. distinguishing between, and selectively referring to one or more among many elements or objects which implicates and directs attentional resources to, e.g., the L2 use of complex pre- and post-modification of noun phrases;
iii. taking multiple, different perspectives on an event which implicates, e.g., the L2 use of first, second, third person pronominal reference and selection from event construal options available in L2 lexicalization patterns; and a further three dimensions which involve increasingly complex reasoning about:
iv. spatial location;
v. causality; and
vi. other people’s intentions in performing social actions (Robinson, 2007).

Of these six dimensions, the latter intentional reasoning dimension is operationalized as the basis for increasing the complexity of task demands in the present study (Robinson, 2007). Language used to refer to psychological states emerges in a predictable developmental sequence, with physiological terms such as, sleepy; desire words such as, want; and emotion words such as, happy being the earliest and most common psychological state terms to occur in children’s speech (Robinson, 2007). Around the age of three years, children begin also to refer to cognitive states of others (Robinson, 2007).

For the majority of deaf children, namely those with hearing parents, language deficits often exist for those learning American Sign Language (ASL) (Schick, De Villiers, De Villiers, & Hoffmeister, 2007). Even with language delays, deaf children with hearing parents (DoH) are actively sociable (Schick, De Villiers, De Villiers, & Hoffmeister, 2007). However, deaf children who have deaf parents (DoD) that provide natural access and exposure to ASL demonstrate developmental benchmarks in language acquisition similar to typically developing hearing children (Schick, De Villiers, De Villiers, & Hoffmeister, 2007).
In other research, it was determined that children with cochlear implants (CIs) did not typically demonstrate significant, if any, linguistic developmental delays relative to the children with normal hearing, advanced relative to the late-signing deaf children with hearing parents, and at least comparable to the native signing deaf children (Remmel & Peters, 2009). This level of theory of mind performance demands an explanation, given that previous studies found that deaf children with hearing parents (whether oral or signing, and whether implanted or not) were quite delayed relative to both children with normal hearing and native-signing deaf children (Remmel & Peters, 2009). The most obvious explanation is that the CI children in this study had better language skills for their age than the deaf children of hearing parents in previous studies.

For instance, the four previous studies that have examined theory of mind in children with CIs found that both false belief performance and language skills were considerably delayed relative to hearing norms. In this study, however, the CI children showed good open-set spoken word recognition, excellent comprehension of complement syntax, and virtually no delay in average performance on standardized measures of receptive and expressive language (Remmel & Peters, 2009). Although we cannot claim that their spoken language skills were exactly equivalent to those of their hearing peers, they were clearly able to communicate effectively using spoken language, and most of them were functioning in fully mainstream educational settings without pull-out academic services (Remmel & Peters, 2009).

Essentially, children with disabilities can develop in the same accord as typically developing children, so their cognition, linguistic acquisition, and ToM development can also develop at the average rate without any hindrances given appropriate linguistic input. When dealing with developmentally or cognitively challenged students, it is very important to first determine what their capabilities and levels of development are, as you may not be able to simply select materials according to their age and run with it. Appropriate assessments should be made to gain knowledge of each student’s abilities and if they will benefit from the curricular agenda even if the student body is not disabled.

**Language & Theory of Mind**

There are numerous factors that affect language acquisition, which must be considered by the teacher, such as the individual traits of the learner, the social setting, and the quantity and quality of the linguistic input the pupil receives, all of which are influential factors in the pupil’s ability to assimilate the target language (Otto, 2010). The roots of this cognitive capacity can be traced to the first year of life, however, throughout the early years, children become more aware of their own minds and the minds of others, as well as how to mediate between the two (Hale & Tager-Flusberg, 2003). Crucial changes in ToM understanding occur at age four when children begin to be able to accurately interpret the contents of other minds, especially belief states (Hale & Tager-Flusberg, 2003).
The ability to conceptualize on the level of ToM develops at around four years of age for the average child and is a vital element in the creation of beliefs, aims, and wishes to other people, particularly in an effort to foretell their actions (Marraffa, n.d.). Extensive research indicates that ToM improves considerably during the preschool years, demonstrating that children’s yes bias may result from a less-developed ToM since young children that understand another person’s false belief reduce the yes bias because of this comprehension, enabling the child to comprehend idioms (Caillies & Le Sourn-Bissaoui, 2008; Flavell, 2004; Moriguchi, Okanda, & Itakura, 2008). The evaluated allegorical developmental vicissitudes that occur with ToM competence in children aged five to seven years to perform five ToM tasks consisting of “an appearance–reality task, three false-belief tasks and a second-order false-belief task and listened to decomposable and non-decomposable idiomatic expressions inserted in context, before performing a multiple choice task” (Caillies & Le Sourn-Bissaoui, 2008, p. 78).

The concept of ToM within the context of prospective memory denotes the act of remembering to perform premeditated actions at a designated future time, and how inhibition and false-belief performances relative to ToM affect children’s ability to successfully implement tasks associated with these executive functions (Ford, Driscoll, Shum, & Macaulay, 2012). Executive function involves the organization of undertakings by carrying out higher-order cognitive actions to engage in goal-oriented behaviors, such as planning and sequencing, which are commonly considered tasks beyond the cognitive capabilities of early childhood (Ahmed & Miller, 2011; Bull, Phillips, & Conway, 2007).

Positive teacher-student interactions are vital to the child’s ability to establish a caring, nurturing relationship since building this attachment is important to their development of self-esteem, their perceptions of their value and self-worth, and their desire for future learning, as well as cognitive development. Strong, healthy bonds between teachers and students facilitate extended peer exchanges, the ability to interpret emotional signals, and socially competent behaviors. The security created within the learning environment supports all phases of psychological development. Children develop socio-cognitive skills vital for future ToM comprehension, including recognizing deliberate actions, partaking in imaginary play, the ability to focus on multiple tasks, and imitation all within the first and second years of life and this longitudinal investigation tracked the subjects for several years, collecting data at three specific temporal intervals to assess the children on their ToM, pro-social behaviors, and verbal ability, as well as aggregate data on peer nominations (Blijd-Hoogewys, van Geert, Serra, & Minderaa, 2008; Caputi, Lecce, Pagnin, & Banerjee, 2012). In addition, ancillary links between early ToM cognizance and successively lower peer rejection with higher acceptance improved pro-social behavior coincides with established analyses delineating that after age four, language is able to influence reasoning once the child has mastered syntactic complementation, as though adjusting the language structures involved in complementation enabled new ways of reasoning about other minds (Caputi, Lecce,
Pagnin, & Banerjee, 2012; de Villiers, 2007). Overall, children generalize along some dimensions but not others according to their ToM development.

**Discussion**

The results of this research have numerous implications for teaching practices within early childhood education since, during the preschool period, core developments in ToM are formed along with self-regulation schemes that have been correlated to their performance in false belief activities, with executive function enabling the anticipation of false belief comprehension. Emotional and behavioural self-regulation were found to be insignificant to the model although adverse parenting contributed to specific differences in children’s emerging ToM (Caputi, Lecce, Pagnin, & Banerjee, 2012; Jahromi & Stifter, 2008). Moreover, improved practices in linguistic instruction, since it is known that children do not maintain both literal and figurative meanings as different from the expression itself until age six or seven, making them able to comprehend non-decomposable idioms (Caillies & Le Sourn-Bissaoui, 2008).

Additionally, it has been established that preschool-age children who manifested high levels of aggressive peer interactions also showed lower levels of self-regulation and ToM understanding, therefore, encouraging self-help skills, providing instances for children to exert their control by providing choices, and establishing firm boundaries and limits will diminish confrontations and power struggles within classroom settings, as well as in the home as ToM understanding is inextricably tied to children’s participation in social exchanges with other people (Caputi, Lecce, Pagnin, & Banerjee, 2012; Gonzalez-Mena, 2009; Olson, Lopez-Duran, Lunkenheimer, Chang, & Sameroff, 2011). The results of this research have numerous implications for early childhood education in that it has the potential to facilitate development of ToM in educational contexts and provides a contribution to research on the relationship between development of ToM and linguistic ability, as related to competence in specific types of lexicon (Grazzani & Ornaghi, 2012; Keysers & Gazzola, 2007).

When teachers are adequately taught and conscientious of the factors that influence language acquisition, they will be initially successful and supportive in helping the child have an effective learning experience so the student is able to become eloquent in their modern language terminology. However, traditional differences are also an empowered persuasive component in today’s schoolrooms and instructors must be mindful of their individual cultural standards, which may affect their educational approach, as well as the traditions that are significant to their student’s familial contexts.

Learning how to manage their environment helps the child develop a healthy autonomy gained through comprehension of the numerous concepts they are confronted with every day. Designing the input according to the child’s cognitive level, age, and abilities will ensure the child...
is able to successfully acclimate themselves to the new language and retain the knowledge being taught in the lesson. These three factors, along with continued opportunities for development in their mother tongue, are vital to the successful development of bilingualism in children of diverse linguistic backgrounds.

Parallels between children’s use of perceptual state language and their capacity to perform ToM projects were modest, whereas associations between children’s conception of abstract language and ToM abilities were high, illustrating the explicit dependence of ToM knowledge on the individual’s familiarity with others inner life, as well as their ability to reflect upon the states of others and is connected to activity in the temporoparietal junction (TPJ) of the brain (Grazzani & Ornaghi, 2012; Keysers & Gazzola, 2007).

Additionally, regression analyses indicated that understanding of metacognitive language was key to children’s performance in false belief tasks among others when verbal ability and age were delimited (Grazzani & Ornaghi, 2012). This incorporates the nature–nurture dichotomy, which references the factor that nativism or poverty-of-the-stimulus influences can be argued without evidence of negative language acquisition (Pinker, 2004). This argument assumes that the student’s linguistic input is comprised of sentences and non-sentences classified as signals (Pinker, 2004).

The parameters of communication generally specify the ability to accurately convey messages to others through audio, physical, or other means. Humans have the ability to coherently express our thoughts, ideas, and opinions, which is vital to any and all relationships we have (Hybels & Weaver, 2007). There are thousands of different dialects that comprise human language and these are represented in many different forms of communication (Skotko, 1997). People also may communicate using gestures as language, such as winks, handshakes, smiles, and other forms of body language that demonstrates non-verbal communication (Hybels & Weaver, 2007).

Verbal communicative abilities prelude the childhood development of written communication skills (Balter, 2010). Tailoring the input according to the child’s cognitive level, age, and abilities will ensure the child is able to successfully acclimate themselves to the new language and retain the knowledge being taught in the lesson. These three factors, along with continued opportunities for development in their mother tongue, are vital to the successful development of bilingualism in children of diverse linguistic backgrounds. Success in this area also depends on the availability of competent instructors that are able to engage the children and provide a multitude of opportunities for development of language.
Conclusion
The Theory of Mind perspective indicates that the formation of linguistic capabilities determines how language is interpreted (de Villiers, 2007; Lambek, 2010; Wheeler & DeMarree, 2009). The implications within this research can contribute to the broader understanding of how communication aids in the development of the child’s linguistic skills and illustrates how such development is reliant on the language barriers that may exist in the home. For this reason, the child must be taught to communicate within the home and school settings concurrently, which is why the child’s language and familial background must be considered when making the decision regarding what communicative approach to use for instructional purposes.

Activities that promote language development includes reading aloud to children, allowing children to dictate their thoughts, ideas, or a story to be read aloud to them, cooperative reading or discussion circles, independent reading and writing, and guided reading to foster print and phonemic awareness (Eliason & Jenkins, 2012). Furthermore, studying the role of ToM in a greater variety facilitates the understanding between the ability to reason about other people’s beliefs and intentions, which is first-order reasoning using ToM, and reasoning about other people’s beliefs about their own beliefs or intentions, which demonstrates second-order ToM reasoning (Flobbe, Verbrugge, Hendriks, & Krämer, 2008; Ford, Driscoll, Shum, & Macaulay, 2012).

Overall, research indicates that children that do not yet possess linguistic abilities are capable of constructing ToM cognitive paradigms (Skotko, 1997). Therefore, in answer to the first research question, linguistic acquisition is not necessary for the development of ToM; only cognition of language. This means that children do not have to be able to speak in order to be capable of expressing ToM concepts (Miller, 2006). This element is demonstrated in children that are younger than a year old that are capable of conceptualizing the emotions of adults with enough aptitude to manipulate their actions.

When examined in this context, since both linguistic acquisition and ToM development in children during the same period in early childhood, age is still considered as a primary factor because of the rate of cognitive development (Astington & Edward, 2010). This element resolves the second research question since cognition denotes the necessity for children to be able to identify the perceived states of others that they interpret though ToM. In order to make ToM determinations, children must develop linguistic representations of the relative concepts required to perceive these dynamics through ToM. However, this study is limited since the determinations are reliant upon existing empirical data. Further research can be conducted using child subjects and common ToM tests to affirm the assertions made in this study.
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Historical and Social Background of English Name Giving Process

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Abstract
The article focuses on historical and social background of English name giving process. Proper names are considered as a leading group of onomastic units due to its extra linguistic component and direct connection with a human being. The processes of globalisation influence on all spheres of life and name giving process is not an exception. Challenges of nomination are explained in the article. The actuality of the paper is defined by the authors’ point of view who cling to the idea that in modern globalized world only a proper name could be an only identifier of the national and confessional identity of an individual. Historical milestones that impact on name giving process are mentioned and social factors which influence name giving process are classified and described. Proper names have passed a long evolutionary way from a word – the identifier of a person among similar to legally significant sign of a linguistic personality, a register component which defines a social status and position of the individual in society. The research is relevant in the linguistic, social, national and cognitive aspects, as it demonstrates an interaction between language and society. At the modern stage of the English anthroponymics progress, the researchers described social factors influencing name giving process.

Key words: anthroponym, English, name giving process, onomastics, onym

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Introduction
Every decade brings new proper names to English language and society. Some of them are just derivatives of the forgotten ones. According to Zerkina, Kostina, & et al., (2016)

English plays a significant role in people’s lives today. Several decades ago it used to be just a foreign language but it is the language of international communication now. Generally speaking, the whole world speaks English when dealing with political, economic, scientific and sports issues. English has been adopted as the official and working language of the UN. Different summits and meetings of heads of governments, enactment of laws and decrees, negotiations and disputes are carried out and held in English. English is used in the international trade, banking operations, maritime, land and air transportation system activities (p. 5147).

It’s actual to study personal names on the material of the English language, as modern globalization processes break interethnic and interdenominational boundaries. The name is often the only identifier of the national and confessional identity of an individual. Moreover, the material for our research is accessible, objective and sufficient. “Proper names have enormous potential to describe the cognitive experience of the nation, cultural development of society with its moral ideals and attitude towards other cultural and linguistic societies” (Kisel & Zarutskaya, 2015, p. 15)

Challenges of nomination
The question of what word, phrase, part of speech is capable to be a proper name is closely connected with the problem of which object (person, area, thing, idea, etc.) can be called a proper name, that is a problem of borderline of onomastic nomination and its selectivity.

The selectivity of the nomination manifests in the phenomena that not each meter of the earth, not each animal receives a proper name and, therefore, not each linguistic unit is used at the same extent for naming.

People give names to many things and phenomena in the process of acquiring knowledge about the world, however with this approach to nomination one objects and phenomena are classified that leads to their nominating with common nouns, and the others are individualized that leads to appearing of proper names. Individualization demonstrates that the named object is accepted not only as the representative of any class (though it is certainly a representative of one object class of objective reality) but also it is posed singular and unique. Besides classification and individualization while naming objects of reality there is one more distinctive moment that is completeness of appellative nomination and proceeding character of onomastic lexis. This principle of onomastic nomination is most brightly manifested while giving a name to a person. This phenomenon is obviously caused by scientific, technical progress and the availability of information.

Proper names as a leading group of onomastic units: types of onyms
The functional and linguistic peculiarities of proper names led to being studied in the special section of linguistics – onomastics (from Greek "art to give names") that describes appearing, development, functional specifics, essence of proper names in the language. In scientific literature
it is possible to meet several definitions of the term "onomastics" but each of them treats onomastics as the art of name giving and as the section of linguistics that studies proper names.

Proper names include anthroponyms, toponyms, zoonyms, teonyms, etc. If zoonyms and teonyms represent a small class of language onomasticon so toponyms and anthroponyms are the most numerous groups. All these groups form onomasticon.

Onomasticon represents a set of proper names of a certain language. It forms special national, cultural, historical space around an individual which is specific for any representative of a society and simultaneously it is unitized for the whole linguistic community (Zerkina, 2017, p. 214).

Thus, onomasticon is a circle of proper names that are used by any nation and differs with stability and traditional characters that, in particular, will be explained by community and uniformity of the factors (economic, geographical, biological and other) which are constantly influence on it. The process of learning English has an interdisciplinary character. Onomastic vocabulary allows us to learn the English language simultaneously with literature, history and culture of English people.

Anthroponimy studies information which the name can possess: characteristic of human qualities, interconnection of a person with their father, kin, family, information about nationality, occupation, area origin, status etc. The history of formation and development of anthroponymicon of language goes back to ancient times and closely intertwines with culture, history, ideology, religion and other social and political factors. Zerkina, (2017) states:

The proper name is of special value for each person, it can "store" family values and traditions; positive wishes, spells on future happy life; demonstrate ideology, religion, and just identify the person in a society, in time and space (p.214).

While analyzing the scientific papers (Zerkina, 2017; Kisel 2009; Leonovich, 2002) that are devoted to functioning of personal names it is established that they have consecutive development and pass from father to son. Thus, the name gains diachronic informational content and the history of names are inseparably linked with history of any language and nation. Since proper names perform identification function, it is worth noting that personal onyms are an integral component of human nature or linguistic identity. They characterize it, evaluate, and give an idea of the name – bearer to the recipient.

**Historical background of English name giving process**

Personal names have their history and they carry out comparative analysis of proper and common names and define connection of common and proper names. This connection is actualized in the continuing development of onym at gradual change of nominal lexicon, interaction of languages and dialects, social processes and cultural and historical factors which darken former connection of proper and common names.
The main idea of personal names researches in synchrony and diachrony is that the name is the naming of an individual thus it is closely connected with society and with social aspect of language.

The qualitative characteristics of the personal names system traditionally includes the three types of personal names:

1. complex names;
2. names derived from complex ones by means of their reduction and further expansion by special suffixes;
3. appealitive names, i.e. nominal names used as personal ones, which can be traced from the very start of the historical epoch.

It has been mentioned above, each language has its anthroponymic systems with individual peculiarities. Onomastic papers are inclined to demonstrate the fact that all anthroponymic systems should be divided into three groups: one-name, double-name, and poly-name systems.

An onomastic system enables us to name clearly every new member of the society who can exist in every social group. Thus, the three main types of anthroponymic systems can be distinguished. One of the most ancient four-name systems is the Roman one: *Publius Cornelius Scipione Africano*.

The name giving style of ancient Indoeuropeans is a direct reflection of thoughts, ideals, and models of the world. A name is a linguistic text, the most important for a primitive person. A metonymic basis for name giving gives us the grounds to suggest that the ancient anthroponymic system is not a selection of words, which accidentally found themselves in the onomastic orbit.

As time went on, names were given at birth, and name giving depended directly upon the parents’ will. However, these names were not the reflection of the individual’s peculiarities. For researchers, this period of anthroponymic development is interesting by the fact that a newborn child’s name reflected information about name givers, their way of thinking, mentality, intellectual level.

The next stage in the development of the anthroponymic system was the dissemination of the main religions. The process of investigating anthroponymic systems includes a problematic issue about the quantity of the elements of the given system. This quantity is determined by a short-term memory of a person. An optimal (average) quantity of elementary symbols of one more or less big unit of a sign system is an interval of 1–4 symbols, while the maximum one – 5–9 symbols. From this point of view we can investigate both the anthroponymic system of any language, and the language in general.

A striking example of this tendency is naming children of puritans, who separated from the Anglican church in the XVI century. As a result of their persecution, as Leonovich (2002) observes, puritan personal names were especially spread in the north-east of the present USA. They often gave their children Latin names of their personal composition: *Beata* “happy”, *Desiderius Desideratus* “desired”, *Deodatus* “given by God”, *Renovata* “rennovated”. Among the most
famous names, created by the Puritans (especially at the beginning of the XVIII century), are the following: Free-Gift, Reformation, Earth, Dust, Ashes, Delivery, More-Fruit, Discipline, Joy Again, From Above, Thankful, Live Well. Very often the Puritans ran to extremes, forming names like No-Merit, Sorry – for – Sin, Much- Mercey, Sin Dany. (Leonovich, 2002, p.7; Zerkina, Kostina, 2015)

Wiver, (2007) a teacher of the Faculty of International relations at American University in Washington, in the article "The Mosaics of American Culture" suggests that despite the huge cultural diversity in the United States, there existed the dominant culture. Each new portion of immigrants became part of this culture, in parting with many of their differences to fit in with the dominant cultural trends of society. As a model used a ready cultural template - a set of specific characteristics: white, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant, male. White male immigrants could easily adapt to this model, taking an English name and turning to Protestantism. Therefore, the backbone of the American names made up of English names borrowed in turn from the Celts, Danes, Normans and Britons, as well as the old Testament and biblical names, which are still in the top of the most ten common names in America.

Some names are considered almost rude due to a disgraceful action performed by their bearers, which was given publicity. For example, biblical names Herod, Judah, etc. Names of literature characters having negative connotations also belong to almost rude names (e.g. Uriah Heep).

Investigating this tendency, it is necessary to mention the role of fiction in name giving. Thus, for example, Swift created two personal names – Vanessa and Stella, the latter was borrowed by the anthroponymic systems of other languages (Kisel, 2009, p. 47).

Along with English names English surnames as personal names came into American culture. In the late nineteenth century poor, but ambitious parents gave their sons names after famous personalities such as Milton, from John Milton, and Sidney, formed from Sir Philip Sidney. The practice of personal names formation from surnames is common in the United States, the names of aristocrats were replaced by the names which traditionally denote a particular activity. For example, Tanner (Tanner - a person who is employed to tan animal hides) Cooper (Cooper - a maker or repairer of casks and barrels). Also the names of famous performers are popular such as the name of Marley (Marley), is especially popular among the Afro-American population of the country, formed from the names of Bob Marley, the legendary Jamaican musician.

Popular former surnames which are now personal names, have distinct national identity, such as Makkenzy, Reilly or Brennan, and similar names are given to boys and girls.

The tendency of transforming men's names in the women's is becoming more common in the United States. It should be noted that many American girls' names, like Shirley, Leslie, Hilary, Renee, Stacy, and Tracy, appeared at first as men's names. Meanwhile, the reverse process, when the boys names are given to girls, has not been observed.

Our empirical material that is based on Wattenberg’s book "The Baby Name Wizard",
notes an interesting trend in modern American naming. (Wattenberg, 2013) The sudden popularity of rare Old Testament names such as Josh (Joshua), Isaiah, Elijah, Caleb, Ethan. The Jewish names are now in fashion which were in the early twentieth century considered as archaic ones, and today they sound unusually and newly, and, most interestingly. These names have lost their religious and national semantic component.

Having diachronic informational content, onyms are inseparably linked with history of the people and language, reflect socially significant factors. Evolutionary formation of a name begins with origin of an onym as separate linguistic unit on the basis of a common words and finishes its development with sophisticated multistage conclusions that units a number of concepts and projections; generates new linguistic unit at the present stage (Kisel, 2009, p.71).

**Social background of English name giving process**

Social factors influencing language and functioning of the linguistic units include factors determined by the reflection in the language cognitive, aesthetic, moral, and ideological sides of the language bearer’s life, which can be divided into two groups:

1. Social factors of the maximum social significance (social-economic formation, means of production, ideology, science, culture, political system of society, way of life, aesthetic and ethical views of society).
2. Social factors of the minimum social significance (texts and their content, elements of the ideological character).

Sociolinguistic aspect of personal names includes the following:
- theoretical and methodological investigation of general processes of personal name forming and functioning in the language;
- complex investigation of anthroponymics as a system;
- investigation of personal names as a social-historic category;
- social-cultural determination of occurance, functioning and disappearance of personal names;
- social characteristics of personal names functioning in conditions of the modern society.

In our research special attention is paid to typical and universal aspects in the language name list on the basis of its analysis in different languages. Also our paper deals with revealing peculiar features of onomastics, their analysis and synthesis, as our work investigates the language theory. The name always reflects national, cultural and social life of the society regardless of the name givers’ will, therefore the given aspects are also included while researching the connotative aspect issue of the personal name semantics.

- With the aim to investigate typical and universal aspects in names of different languages, we consider it necessary to:
  - analyze personal names from the point of peculiarities of their social and national-cultural functioning and semantic codification;
  - to describe anthroponymic systems of languages, social and national-cultural aspects of personal names functioning.

In our research we follow the idea that sociality of names consists in:
personal names are social historically, though their social colouration is changeable;
- personal names cannot always react to social shifts, but respond to them with delay;
- personal names reflect a social-historic life of society by the time of their formation by means of their nominal origin basis.

Social aspect of onomastic researches provides studying of names in connection with those public estimations which they receive at different times from separate public groups and also in connection with some conscious or irresponsible preferences of some names in separate societies or among separate individuals. Influence of socially caused factors depends on many conditions: historical era, spontaneous and conscious aspects, influence of the society on anthroponymic layer of the language.

Social character of personal onyms reveals in tradition to use the same words for name giving and also in:
- a traditional attachment of definite names to the representatives of famous social groups. The given tendency goes back to the times of the slave-holding system. Thus, for example, in Ancient Rome a slave had a name consisting of his/her master’s name in a genitive case, and a word puer: Lucipuer – a slave of Lucius.

The diachronic aspect of our research shows that a social stratification of names was due to the “rich-poor” factor. Some names were associated with noble birth and nobility, while the others – with poverty and obscurity. Thus, according to the researches of Leonovich (2002), it was characteristic for English culture that such names as Rupert, Benjamin, Alexandra were traditionally associated with the representatives of the middle class. A female name Abigail, which was traditionally interpreted as a maid’s name, has lost its social coloration, while for foundlings there existed quite definite names corresponding to their position in the society: Helpless, Rependance, Forsaken (p. 8).

The next factor is a social evaluation of some names. Each language has its own collection of personal names with a striking social coloration. Thus, in Ancient Rome adopted children took the name of their adopter with a suffix anus (i.e. Octavianus – a son of Octavius, adopted by Guy Julius Caesar).

In our research we observe that the role of social factors as linguistic universalia and their realization in the language anthroponymicon is very important in the investigation of onyms connotation, and, consequently, in the name giving practice.

Fashion names in very small degree depend on the events occurring in the world. Every new name is just a variation of a well-forgotten old one, and despite the fact that the popularity of names is constantly changing, in this process it is possible to identify certain patterns. Traditionally people prefer female names ending in "a" (Sarah, Emma, Hannah, Mia, Anna), as well as names beginning with a hard "k" (Kylie, Caitlin, Courtney).

According to our observation the popularity of female names ending in "n" has rapidly increased (Jaden, Aiden, Hayden, Caden) and names beginning with "j" (Joshua, Justin, Joseph).
This allows us to conclude, that in English language tradition of naming the main emphasis falls on the phonetic, graphic, in other words, on the external form of the name. Zerkina, (2017) explains that:

English antroponymic system (especially its American variant) has a quantitative index of an axiology – that is quantity of elements of an official name. It is about the second "middle" name which is very popularly among Americans. Instead of the middle name they often use initials. While choosing initials they take into consideration the belief in the magic force of a name. Thus, among the Afro-Americans the belief is widespread that if initials of a name form the meaning word, then it brings happiness: FUN, JOI, PET, PEP, VIM. About 75% of eldest sons from the American families with claims for social prestige have a maiden name of their mothers as the first or middle name. (p. 215).

Today in mass media there are many publications on this topic. Judging by recent observations of journalists, the following picture emerges: the name in modern American culture is gradually losing its semantics and becomes a combination of consonants and vowels. We can give an example of another new name.

**Conclusion**

However, name giving of a person is very specific for each nation, every national antroponimicon has its national and typical universal features, characteristic for any language and nation, which are reflected in the system of antroponyms.

The classical system of naming has national characteristics, depending on the language of the society to which serves. Antroponymical system reflects the cultural and historical milestones in the development of the language and the people.

Tendency of substituting national names with English one for convenience reasons is observed in mordent communicative spate or at least national names adopt English phonetic form (pronunciation).

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English Language and the Changing Linguistic Landscape: New Trends in ELT Classrooms

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Abstract
The history of English Language Teaching (ELT) has shown that this fast growing field is facing unprecedented challenges posed by the recent developments in the status of the English language as a world’s leading language and the eventual change in the linguistic landscape. This paper provides an opportunity to examine the impact of the phenomenal spread of English in recent years and its eventual dominance in the international arena as seen in the practice of English Language Teaching (ELT) and learning, particularly in English as a Second Language (ESL)/English as Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. The paper reports the implications of the recent growth of English for crucial ELT practices and areas such as learner identity, code selection in classroom, teaching methods, syllabus design and material development. It draws on issues pertaining to English as a lingua franca theory in an attempt to address this debatable topic and consider the necessity of taking into consideration the emerging trends in ELT classrooms globally.

Keywords: global English, Englishes, English as a lingua franca, English language teaching, learner identity.

1. **Introduction**

This paper draws on the implications of the rapid growth of English and its rise at the international arena from an ELT perspective. It attempts to examine the crucial changes brought by the phenomenal spread of English to the practice of teaching English all over the world, particularly in the ESL/EFL settings. It is understood that the rapid proliferation of English in the world in recent years has been accelerated by various factors, including the use of English in education and the eventual speedy growth of internationalization of English and education. Thus, it is imperative to examine the impact of the growth of English on its teaching and learning, and the necessity of revisiting some fundamental concepts, beliefs and practices in the ELT field. With the increasing demand for English by speakers of other languages, together with the strong connection between English and the Internet and its applications, there have emerged new realities that challenge the traditional teaching practices. For instance, learners of English today have become more innovative with diverse learning strategies, opportunities, resources, and objectives (Cook, 2003). Moreover, the proliferation of the accessible new media, including social media, has created better learning and language practice opportunities for individuals who use it in learning language activities, and engage in active communication nationally and internationally, and interact in English with speakers of diverse linguistic backgrounds and experiences around the world (Crystal, 2002). In addition, the situation has further been more complex with the emergence of the phenomenon of varieties of Englishes. Practically speaking, with the pressing issues pertaining to the dominance of English and the world’s changing linguistic landscape and the limitations of the traditional definition of ‘native speaker’ to appeal to the current situation, it is difficult to hold the same traditional language teaching perceptions and practices. This requires reconsidering the views and practices held about ELT, especially what concerns the language learners and the type of language taught to them. Furthermore, another indication of the changing scene relates to the fact that when English is spoken almost everywhere in the world, there is an urgent need for revising our approach to the materials we use in our classes and the way we assess our students as well. Moreover, the English language learners’ actual needs must be addressed and taken into consideration when it comes to what variety of English should our students learn today. Because developing an understanding about their actual needs and views about what kind of English they would want to learn will keep teachers more focused and to the point (Gross, 2016; Jenkins, 2014).

2. **The Story of English: An Overview**

The growth of English, and its spread all over the world in recent years has created interest in the language and sparked research among scholars, linguists, researchers and practitioners alike making it a multidimensional intellectual subject matter. Traditionally, historians of language have divided the history of English into three major periods namely, Old English (450-1106), Middle English (1106-1500), and Modern English (1500- ). In this regard, Winkler (2007) remarks that “the periods of Old, Middle and Modern English are arbitrary divisions bounded by important political or cultural events” (p.174). In the same vein, Baugh and Cable (2002) suggest that “like all divisions in history, the periods of the English language are matters of convenience and the dividing lines between them purely arbitrary” (p. 50).

While Old English is marked as a period of high inflections, Middle English is described as a period of remarkable changes and instability, and the Modern English as a period of continuous change and variation, dominance and expansion. It is noteworthy that the peculiarities of each period in the history of English language are of significance in understanding the changes...
witnessed by the language, and in recent years the debate among scholars has focused on this issue. In this context, Gross (2016) comments that “any generalisations about the English language need to acknowledge the diversity hidden by those two words and also the debates about changing perceptions of how the status of English should be described” (p.2). On the other hand, Crystal (2002) argues that historical approaches to English alone are not sufficient to explain the story of English around the world in the modern time and as such a broader perspective is deemed necessary. In the same vein, Winkler (2007) calls for a broader perspective by taking into consideration the importance of examining the historical factors of linguistic implications on English language system within the context of language use and the way people experience it. Suggesting an additional outlook to the research paradigm in studying the history of English language, Winkler argues that “a better way to look at the shifting varieties of English is to think of a continuum of overlapping varieties all of which have been changing but to different degrees” (p.147).

It can be argued that viewing the different stages of the growth of English as changing varieties provides a new and wider outlook to the history of English that enables the examination of events that have linguistic consequences on the language, especially when examining the development of English in the modern period. In other words, adding the perspectives of variation and change to the study of the historical developments of English provides social dimensions for interpreting any modifications to the linguistic system of the language. This is imperative because the circumstances that accelerated the growth of English language at the present time have implications on the lives and experiences of millions of individuals around the world.

3. Observations and arguments

The eventful history of English has revealed the language’s ability to change, grow, deal with different circumstances and influence the world’s linguistic landscape as well. Throughout its history, English has shown a remarkable ability to grow and change, and this tendency for growth and change is one of the secrets behind its survival and expansion. Culpeper (2005) observes that “English is constantly changing, and all parts of the language have been affected. These changes have occurred for a variety of reasons” (p.19). Thus, it can be argued that the ability to grow, change and deal with various circumstances and conditions over time gives English an additional advantage of becoming the most influential world’s major language. This pertinent fact is acknowledged by Cook (2003) who reports that “whereas, in the past, English was but one international language among others, it is now increasingly in a category of its own” (p.25). The current international status enjoyed by English is an unprecedented notion that did not happen over a night. In fact, the period of the seventeenth century was a decisive point in introducing English as an international language with Britain venturing into colonization. Millward and Hayes (2012) suggest that until 1558 English was limited to its homeland, however, "within the next hundred years, the English were to acquire such far-flung colonies as Bermuda, Jamaica, the Bahamas, British Honduras, the Leeward Islands, Barbados, the Mosquito Coast, Canada, the American colonies, India, St. Helena, Gambia, and the Gold Coast" (p.222). Therefore, there are a number of terms now in use in the literature to refer to English as a global language such as “English as international language (EIL)” (e.g., Jenkins, 2000; McKay, 2002), “English as a world language” (e.g., Mair, 2003), “English as a medium of intercultural communication” (e.g., Meierkord, 1996), “English as a lingua franca” (ELF) (e.g., Seidlhofer, 2004) and “English as a global language” (e.g., Crystal, 1997).
Furthermore, Crystal (2002) states “in due course, there developed other standard varieties of English as a mother tongue, each with its own complex social history” (pp.233-34). As a remarkable development, the aftermath of colonization and internationalization of English is not realized in the only two national varieties of English: the British English and later the American English, but as ‘Englishes’. Englishes is defined as “national varieties of English with their own rules and norms, e.g. Australian English, Indian English, Singaporean English, American English (Cook, 2003, p. 127). Furthermore, Cook states that this distribution of English is described by the Indian scholar Braj Kachru’s model as one in which English exists in three concentric circles: the inner circle where English is the native language of the majority – the language enjoys dominance (as in USA, UK, Australia, and Canada). In the outer circle, which refers to the ex-British colonies, English is either official or having wide use coverage (in countries like India, Singapore). Finally, the expanding circle where English functions as a second language covering a wide range of use such as education, technology, science etc... (This includes countries like Korea, China, and Japan). Figure 1 describes the global status and distribution of English as suggested by Braj Kachru.

Figure 1. Braj Kachru’s representation of distribution of varieties of English: Englishes

The emergence of Englishes has earned English further expansion in land and speakers, broadening its scope of use and applications and making it a global language with discrete varieties. Describing an aspect of the global status of English, McCrum (2010) argues that there is a form of English spoken somewhere in the world which not necessarily a typical form of Standard English, but rather a universally recognized variety of English- it is ‘Globish’. The notion of World English depicts national varieties of English where its non-native English speakers (NNESs) use it nationally and internationally for varieties of communicational purposes. The development and emergence of globally used English is another indication of the changing nature of English. According to Brutt-Griffler (2002), “the history of World English has been one of language change”, and as a result, “distinct varieties arose not accidentally or occasionally but systematically” (p.14).
This rapid growth of English in the international arena in recent years is also supported by many social, political, cultural and technological factors as suggested by researchers. Cook (2003) reports that:

The rise of international corporations, linked to expanding US power and influence, ensures an ever-increasing use of English in business. Films, songs, television programmes, and advertisements in English are heard and seen in many countries where it is not the first nor even a second language, both feeding and reflecting this growth (pp. 25-26).

Furthermore, “the spread of the world’s English in sport, advertising, films, tourism and international finance continues to enjoy a supranational momentum” (p.250). Thus, the current status of English reveals its fast proliferation and dominance in functions and use at the global level. With over 400 million as first-language speakers, and more than billion as second/foreign language or additional language users at the present time, English has contributed to the world’s changing linguistic landscape and the way people perceive and experience language. It is anticipated that by 2050 approximately half of the world will be proficient in the English language and that more varieties will emerge (Ates et al., 2015). This means the number of people who speak English in the outer and expanding circles will witness significant increase. This is substantiated by this quote:

The members of the expanding circle who do use English are an increasingly significant group who operate in an increasingly global economy which has an impact on the economy in all countries… [and] the Internet, mobile phones and other technology increasingly establish the potential for use of English which is quite independent of the controls offered by traditional educational systems, publishing outlets and radio/television (Brumfit, 2002, p. 5).

Concerning the question ‘who speaks English today?’ Jenkins (2015) notes that speakers of English language were traditionally categorised under the norms of native English speakers (NESs), second language speakers (ESL), and foreign language speakers (EFL). The current status of English suggests that this tripartite classification of speakers is limited and does not reflect the actual situation, especially “when we come to look more closely at the traditional three-way categorization and, especially when we consider the most influential models and descriptions of English use, we will find that the categories have become fuzzy at the edges and that it is increasingly difficult to classify speakers of English as belonging purely to one of the three”. Furthermore, “the categorisation also ignores a fourth group of users, namely those who speak English as a lingua franca-ELF” (Jenkins, p.10).

The notion of ELF and its impact on the diverse language learning context across the globe is another emerging trend in the ELT practice that awaits researchers’ extensive attention. Generally, a lingua franca is a language used for communication by native speakers of different languages. Galloway and Rose (2015) refer to lingua franca as “a language used for communication between speakers of two mutually unintelligible languages” (p. 255). A lingua franca then is a language that offers communication opportunity between native speakers of
different languages. Explaining the condition for being a lingua franca, Crystal (2003) argues “to achieve such a status, a language has to be taken up by other countries around the world” (p.4). When a language is used as a lingua franca it facilitates communication among speakers who do not share a common code and in fact English language today functions to serve such a goal at the global level as acknowledged by researchers. According to Davies (2005), “one of the reasons why English has become the global language that it is today is that it has in many parts of the world been used as a lingua franca” (p. 61). Cook (2003) refers to English as a lingua franca as “a variety, or varieties of English used as a means of communication between non-native speakers” (p. 127).

It is a pertinent fact that the perpetual change and growth of English is an unprecedented phenomenon in the history of language. Thus, it is imperative to read and examine the current history of English language (HEL) from a wider perspective that transcends the account of historical events of linguistic implications only. There is an urgent need to approach the current status of English from a wider perspective taking into consideration the impact of the rise of English on its users and learners as well as the implications for language planning and language policy in diverse settings and linguistic realities. In this context, an area that awaits researchers’ extensive attention is the implications of the current status of English on the English Language Teaching (ELT) practice worldwide and the new trends that may emerge as a result of such development. Thus, an examination of the consequences of the rapid growth of English in recent years on the language teaching and learning practices and experience is necessary in identifying the possible new trends and learning cultures and opportunities as well as challenges in the ELT classrooms. Moreover, an applied linguistics approach is deemed appropriate in examining the changing scenes and emerging realities in the ELT context today, in the sense that applied linguistics takes language as it is experienced by people in their daily life activities as its prime objective. In other words, the applied linguistics perspective on language attempts to provide practical solutions for issues relating where language is implicated in people’s daily life activities rather than establishing abstractions about its representation in the mind away from people’s actual experience. Seeking solutions and decisions where language is implicated makes applied linguistics the suitable discipline that can broaden our understanding about the tremendous changes English language has brought to the ELT world.

4. Implications of the current status of English

Research findings suggest that there are no immediate competitors to English as present on the horizon. This indicates that English will continue to dominate international communication and the media in the foreseeable future and become the language of global communication for users to meet their needs (Sasaki et al., 2006; Ates et al., 2015). The future of international English seems to rely on the overwhelming number of non-native speakers using English for international communication and on the development of computerized corpus data for empirical research on this area. An example of such computerized data is Voice Corpus, the Vienna-Oxford International Corpus of English which was jointly developed by Oxford and Vienna Universities (Al Hassan, 2017; Kuo, 2006). Additionally, the current status and dominance of English has impacted EFL/ESL classrooms in a number of ways ranging from pedagogy to classroom research. The following section will look into English language teaching (ELT) and the pedagogical implications of English as a lingua Franca on EFL/ESL classroom.
4.1 Language pedagogy: ELT

The ELT practice is one of the areas directly affected with the notion of the global spread of English. The spread of English has drawn considerable insights into the way languages are perceived, approached and learned especially in the case of English itself. The global status of English has sparked debate among researchers due to the wide scope of English use and application. For instance, Brutt-Griffler (2002) remarks that:

closely identified with the globalization of English Language Teaching (ELT), and arising out of its scholarly tradition, the understanding of World English has pivoted not so much on theoretical linguistic questions but on practical and even ethical issues of English spread (p.5).

The rapid growth of English has made it an international language needed by learners and users of diverse linguistic backgrounds and objectives. In this context, Cook (2003) argues that “changes in the distribution and balance of languages, and in particular the growth of ELF, have both reflected and influenced the populations and purposes of language learners” (p.30). On the other hand, Jenkins (2015) observes that there is recently an increasing volume of research into ELF and that it is useful to treat the subject by establishing and understanding the similarities and differences between it and other notions such as EFL and World Englishes. In this regard, research has attempted to address the implications of ELF for the higher education. In other words, researchers’ growing interest in the globalization of English and education motivated them to explore the role ELF plays in education globally.

The new trends now emerging in response to the rapid growth of English mean it is necessary to reconsider the way English is learned and taught, attitudes towards learners, the materials used, the assessment styles, techniques implemented and above all the teaching philosophies we develop and adopt in our classes in both ESL and EFL settings. Thus, it is within this context that it has become imperative to consider the shifts of fashion in the teaching methodologies of English in the wake of emergence of new learner populations and learning objectives. A pressing issue, for instance, is pertaining to whether Communicative Language Teaching Method (CLTM) still holds as the most dominant and suitable teaching approach. One may ask questions such as: what is the most effective pedagogical approach to teaching Englishes today? And is it necessary to consider new teaching approaches and practices that appeal to the new classroom realities? Moreover, is there any necessity for considering the emerging varieties of English into the syllabus and materials currently used?

The growing demand for English by its diverse learners in the context of the global spread of the language is unprecedented and will have implications for the whole learning and teaching process. Such a development in an area like ELT and learning in which English is so much active makes it necessary to examine the existing testing and evaluation practices and see if that is reflective of the objectives of learning the language. In other words, the assessment outcomes should reflect the actual reality of the learning and teaching practices. With learners being exposed to varieties of English and the growing necessity for addressing the role of ELF in higher education (Jenkins 2014; Smit 2010), it is imperative to design tests that appeal to the new situation which reflects a learning situation that goes beyond the traditional learning settings. As far as current
testing English practice is concerned, the existing trend does not resonate with the current status of English and the changing learning contexts as Jenkins (2015) observes:

No matter how much effort is put into making English language teaching more appropriate to the context of teaching, if the examination boards continue to measure students’ success in English against native speaker norms, then little is likely to change. This is because of the well-known fact that tests have a washback effect on classroom teaching: that is, the language and skills that are tested in examinations are the ones that teachers choose to teach and learners desire to learn, otherwise they have nothing to show for the efforts they have made. (p.125)

Another implication of the current status of English is the hot debate concerning who teaches English best? This divisive issue has at its heart the two opposing views regarding whether native speakers know English and can teach it better than non-native English teachers or the latter is better suited and placed to do the job (Galloway & Rose 2015).

Another new trend that is gaining momentum in the applied linguistics intellectual discourse is the very concept of ‘native speaker’ of English, or who is a native speaker of English today? It has been observed that the rapid growth of English and its transformation into a dominant international language spoken by almost a quarter of the world’s population is an unprecedented phenomenon. Referring to English diaspora and its consequences, Crystal (2002) reports that “no other language has ever been spoken by so many people in so many places. And when a language, like a nation, exercises a new-found influence in world affairs, several things happen” (p.10).

People take a look back at the traditional definition of native speaker and see if it fits in with the current status of English. Richards and Schmidt (2002, p.351) note that traditionally, the definition of native speaker included three conditions. Thus, native speaker is (a) a person who “learns a language as a child and continues to use it fluently as a dominant language, (b) can “use language grammatically, fluently and appropriately”, and is able “to identify with a community where it is spoken”. The traditional definition of native speaker, however, is limited to the conditions of an individual’s personal history in acquiring a language, knowledge of grammar and the ability to signal cultural association with the speech community.

Cook (2003) believes that the three conditions which used to define a native speaker do not reflect the current status of English due to many factors and reasons. With the wide distribution of English, many of its users are expert bilinguals having the same linguistic abilities as the traditionally defined native speakers. In addition, the traditional definition of native speaker overlooks the issue of proficiency, the difficulty in measuring native speaker’s ‘implicit’ knowledge of language, as well as the size of vocabulary a native speaker may have. In many instances, non-native speakers’ proficiency is found to outperform the traditionally-defined native speakers’.

It is worth mentioning that the active use of English by the expert non-native speakers in both outer circle and expanding circle does not necessarily involve native speakers. In fact, the urgency for revisiting the concept of native speaker is a call for more new trends in the ELT context especially with the growing diverse populations of learners. This is imperative because, “the new situation means that, for a large proportion of the world’s population, the learning and use of
English as an additional language is both a major language need—often upon which their livelihood depends—and also one of the salient language experiences of their lives” (Cook, 2003, p. 26). Moreover, a significant development that motivates emerging new ELT trends is the fact that learners of English attitudes towards the language are changing due to which learners construct new identity. An understanding of such a development is needed in taking the ELT practice in the right direction.

4.2 Relationships with other languages: language death
Another emerging trend in relation to the global spread of English is pertaining to the changing relationships and boundaries drawn between languages in the world. With English turning to a powerful world’s major language in a category of its own, there is a great concern about the destiny of many minority languages. In addition, the spread of English has brought considerable insights into the issue of language planning, language and education, and language education. The importance of serious documentation of the linguistic realities in light of the spread of English needs to take into consideration the right of other languages and culture to exist, sustain and flourish. As in certain contexts English language is viewed and treated as a ‘killer’ language due to its threats and negative impacts on indigenous and local languages. It could endanger the some of these languages as the vast majority of population will automatically codes witch to English for utilitarian and pragmatic purposes.

5. Concluding remarks and personal reflections
English has an intriguing history, high susceptibility for change and growth as it has always shown tremendous flexibility for co-existence and mutual influence with other languages. The current status of English as a world’s leading language in many vital areas such as the Internet, international education, business and communication has created tremendous insights into language teaching and learning practices. The 21st century is marked by new trends in learning and teaching the language which creates the urgency for paving the way for these trends to run and nourish. The emerging trends in the ELT context is a wide stream of a new generation of learners learning and using growing varieties of English in new learning contexts and circumstances where the traditional views toward English and its learners have become old fashioned. This idea was supported by Galloway and Rose (2014) who offered a strong academic rationale for introducing varieties to leaners and stressed the value of the exposure to a diversity of accents in ELT. If teachers are able to expose learners to multiple accents of English, which would enable them to ameliorate the opposite effects and promote their critical faculties (Sung, 2015). However, this idea is contested by scholars as they believed that the call for teaching the growing varieties is rather theoretical than empirical because learners and teachers' views as stakeholders on these varieties seemed were not taken on board. They described this call as "intellectual debate" (Al Hassan, 2017). Nevertheless, teachers and practitioner should raise learners' awareness of the existence and realities of international and global Englishes which are realistically spoken in both the outer and expanding circles (Al Hassan, 2017). Leaners' perspectives on these varieties could be useful and offer insights into teaching and learning (Sung, 2015). But there is a problem in establishing the legitimacy of such local varieties, and institutionalizing their use (Sowden, 2011). Additionally, these varieties do not reflect the reality of the use of English as international language (EIL) or the nature of language change (Matsuda & Friedrich, 2011).
To sum up, this paper is considered as an attempt and opportunity to examine the impact of the phenomenal spread of English in recent years and its eventual dominance in the international arena as seen in the practice of English Language Teaching (ELT) and learning, particularly in English as a Second Language (ESL) / English as Foreign Language (EFL) contexts. The paper reports the implications of the recent growth of English for crucial ELT practices and areas such as learner identity, code selection in classroom, teaching methods, syllabus design and material development. It draws on issues pertaining to English as a lingua franca in an attempt to address this debatable topic and consider the necessity of taking into consideration the emerging trends in ELT classrooms. Key pedagogical and non-pedagogical implications in relation to the phenomenal spread of English and its potential insights to EFL/ESL classroom in the twenty first century were discussed and debated.

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References


Exploring Teachers’ Identity: Reflections and Implications

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Abstract

With the rapid developments and changes with digital technologies, teachers are challenged to develop their thinking and practice to instill critical minds able to participate actively in the knowledge society. Indeed, students need to develop the necessary 21st century skills that enable them to thrive for today’s economy. According to the Educational Testing Service (ETS) (2007), the 21st century learning skills refer to the ability to a) collect and/or retrieve information, b) organize and manage information, c) evaluate the quality, relevance, and usefulness of information, and d) generate accurate information through the use of existing resources. To achieve this goal, teachers’ professional identity has been further questioned, thereby generating debates and issues regarding their role. What teachers need to know, what beliefs they should hold and how they can achieve their professional development, are among the core intentions of today’s teacher education. Within this concern, this article aims to explore teachers’ professional identity to support teachers and teacher students understand their role and the conception of learning in 21st century education.

Keywords: beliefs, emotions, knowledge, professional development, teacher identity

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Introduction
Since teaching is based on interpersonal relationships and relating to others begins with self-knowing and self-understanding, exploring the personal self along with the professional self in language education is deemed essential for teachers. Indeed, such exploration is likely to reveal what kind of teachers we are, where we are in the teaching learning process and what remains to be done to enhance our practices. As Csikszentmihalyi (1993) sates if we understand what we are made of, what motives drive us, what goals we strive for, and how we became to be human, we can create a meaningful future.

The importance of knowing the “who”, or the personhood of the teacher is also stressed by Palmer (1998) where he maintains that good teaching comes from the identity (the self) and integrity of the teacher (what contributes to the selfhood). Exploring the teachers’ professional selves has been considered an integral part of on-going professional development as “the way one teaches […] is tied to the ways teachers see themselves” (Kincheloe, 2003, p. 47). In fact, teacher identity can be a useful research frame that serves teacher development:

Teacher identity is a useful research frame because it treats teachers as whole persons in and across social contexts who continually reconstruct their views of themselves in relation to others, workplace characteristics, professional purposes, and cultures of teaching. It is also a pedagogical tool that can be used by teacher educators and professional development specialists to make visible various holistic, situated framings of teacher development in practice. (Olsen, 2008, p. 5)

A large part of current research interest on teacher identity is concerned with the construction and development of teachers’ professional identity (e.g., Kelchtermans, 1993), teachers’ perceptions of their professional roles (Beijaard et al., 2000; Roberts, 1998), and the relationships between teachers’ perceptions of their roles and their self-image (Ben-Peretz et al., 2003; Day & Kington, 2008). Still, more clarification is required regarding the meaning of teacher identity and how it evolves in the course of teachers’ careers.

This article aims to take a holistic approach to defining this concept. This is since as Palmer (1998) claims the inner landscape of the teaching self must be charted fully by embarking on three paths – intellectual (the way we and conceptualize teaching and learning), emotional (the way we and our students feel about the teaching learning process) – and spiritual (how to be connected with the largeness of life) and none of them can be ignored. Teachers’ practices, knowledge, beliefs and emotions are regarded here as the components of this professional identity. Since the latter is not static, but rather it develops over experience, the importance of teachers’ professional development is discussed along with some possible ways to flourish in language teaching context.

Teacher Identity
Teacher identity has been used and conceptualized in different ways in teacher education. It has been referred to as professional identity, work-based identity situational or occupational identity. Different conceptual frameworks, methods and tools were used to explore it and several definitions of the concept were provided characterizing its major aspects. These cover both the social aspect and the personal aspect as figure 1 shows.
The Social Aspect
The majority of researchers have investigated teacher identity specifically from the professional aspects, i.e., the construction and development of teachers’ professional identity, teachers’ perceptions of their professional roles and the relationships between teachers’ perceptions of their roles and their self-image (e.g., Atay & Ece, 2009; Brown, 2006; Day & Kington, 2008; Kincheloe, 2003; Maguire, 2008; Ronfeldt & Grossman, 2008; Smith, 2007). In fact, when exploring teacher identity the first question that comes to mind is: What is the role of the teacher? With the challenging demands of a globalized society and the overwhelming growth of educational technologies, teachers’ role has changed as educational perspectives have widened and new skills are being targeted. Teachers are no more the sole dispensers of knowledge, but they act rather as prompters for students’ active learning and engagement, through facilitating and furthering their learning process. They have different roles to undertake ranging from planning lessons, designing materials, managing classrooms, to assessing students, evaluating their teaching and collaborating with colleagues and parents.

Figure 2. The Teacher’s Role
Figure 2. illustrates the visible domain of teacher identity or the social element where teachers struggle to achieve their intended objectives. To this end, teacher identity has been defined
as a continuing site of struggle and a continuing site of contestation, struggle and reworking (MacLure, 1993; Maguire, 2008), a lived experience of participation (Wenger, 1998), and as being multifaceted, multidimensional and multi-layered (Cooper & Olson, 1996). Hence, teaching is not a technical enterprise but it is also linked to teachers’ personal lives. Therefore, teacher identity has to do as well with the teacher-self which constitutes the invisible domain.

The Personal Aspect
Palmer (1998) interprets teacher identity in a holistic fashion and goes beyond focusing only on the professional aspects of being a teacher. The author maintains the integrity between the intellectual, emotional and spiritual aspects of teacher identity that can lead to a “new wholeness”. According to him, this wholeness does not mean perfection, rather “it means becoming more real by acknowledging the whole of who I am” (Palmer, 1998, p. 13). Research has therefore attempted to explore the relationships between teacher identity and several related components that contribute to its development, e.g., teacher knowledge, professional development, language learning, and the role of emotions. To explore the personal or invisible side of teacher’s identity, teacher knowledge, beliefs and emotions are to be accounted for.

Teacher Knowledge
Teacher knowledge, also termed teacher cognition (e.g., Borg, 2003, 2006; Grossman & Richert, 1988; Tamir, 1988; Woods, 1996), has been considered as a valuable component of teacher identity. Johnston et al. (2005) highlight such connection claiming that “teacher knowledge is seen in relation to teachers’ lives and the contexts in which they work” (p. 54). Yet, the question that can be raised here concerns the kind of knowledge base second/foreign language teachers need to possess. Since the mid-1980s the literature on the knowledge base of teacher education has grown in general education and in second language teacher education (e.g., Bartels, 2005; Fradd & Lee, 1998). According to Day and Conklin (1992) the knowledge base of second language teacher education consists of four types of knowledge:

1. **Content knowledge**: knowledge of the subject matter; e.g., English language ESL/EFL teachers teach (as represented by courses in syntax, semantics, phonology and pragmatics) and literary and cultural aspects of the English language.
2. **Pedagogic knowledge**: knowledge of generic teaching strategies and practices (decision-making, classroom management, assessment, etc.).
3. **Pedagogic content knowledge**: how to represent content knowledge in diverse ways so that students can understand; how students come to understand the subject matter, how to interpret their responses and provide constructive feedback, how to support them overcome their problems are all underlying elements of pedagogic content knowledge. (how to teach the different language skills, TESOL materials evaluation and development, EFL/ESL testing, etc.)
4. **Support knowledge**: the knowledge of the various disciplines that inform our approach to the teaching and learning of English; e.g., psycholinguistics, linguistics, second language acquisition, sociolinguistics, research methods.

Additionally, since educational technologies are widely advocated and used in the language classroom, Koehler and Mishra (2008) emphasize the importance of technological knowledge
(TK) which includes how to use technology to enhance students’ learning, technological content knowledge (TCK) covering the knowledge of how using technology can enhance the sharing of the subject matter taught, and technological pedagogical knowledge (TPK) which refers to “an understanding of how teaching and learning changes when particular technologies are used” (p. 16).

In constructing teacher knowledge emphasis is also drawn on student teachers’ prior experiences and the way their existing knowledge influences how they learn and what they extract from teacher education courses (Calderhead & Robson, 1991). Calderhead and Robson (1991) refer to Lortie’s (1975) concept of the “apprenticeship of observation”, which leads to the development of a body of values, commitments, orientations and practices (Calderhead & Robson, 1991, p. 1). Similarly, Clandinin and Connelly (1999) who developed the notion of “personal practical knowledge” maintain that teacher knowledge is created from their previous experience, it is learned in context, and it is expressed in practice.

The relation between teacher knowledge and identity has been investigated among pre-service teachers. For instance, Smith (2007) finds that preservice teachers’ professional identity formation is complementary and connected to the development of teacher knowledge in teacher education programmes. Accordingly, he claims that such programmes should focus both on pre-service teachers’ identity work and knowledge growth. In the same vein, Varghese et al. (2005) emphasize the role of teachers’ knowledge in building up their professional identity stating: “teacher knowledge is seen in relation to teachers’ lives and the contexts in which they work” (p. 54).

However, as Richards and Lockhardt (1994) put forward “what teachers do is a reflection of what they know and believe” (p. 29). Indeed, research findings reveal that teachers’ beliefs have a greater influence than the teachers’ knowledge on the way they plan their lessons, on the kinds of decisions they make, and on their general classroom practice (Pajares, 1992). Therefore, the beliefs teachers hold are responsible for shaping their identity and need to be considered here.

**Teacher Beliefs**

For Borg (2001), “a belief is a mental state which has as its content a proposition that is accepted as true by the individual holding it, although the individual may recognize that alternative beliefs may be held by others” (p. 187). Each teacher holds a set of beliefs that determine priorities for pedagogical knowledge and how students proceed with their learning. These are called pedagogical beliefs, i.e., a specific type of belief that teachers hold pertaining to the nature of teaching and how classroom instructions should be implemented (Chai, 2010). According to Pajares (1992) one of the most common distinctions made between beliefs and knowledge is that beliefs are associated with subjectivity and emotion, whereas knowledge tends to be more empirical. Such subjectivity is highlighted in Richardson’s definition of teacher beliefs which states that “teachers’ beliefs are the “psychological understandings, premises or propositions felt to be true” (cited in Tondeur et al., 2008, p. 2543). Since pedagogical beliefs tend to be broad they are as Pajares (1992) states “too context-free” (p. 316).

Teachers’ belief systems are rooted in various sources: their own experience as language learners, teachers, personal factors educationally-based or research-based principles, and principles derived from an instructional approach or method (Richards & Lockhardt, 1994).
Indeed, there is a common consensus that beliefs depend on teachers’ experience, and are true for the person who holds them (Freeman, 2002, p. 11; Kasouta & Malatmisa, 2009, p. 69). Besides, “they can be changed or reoriented as a result of input from other professionals and activity type interventions” (Danielson & McGreal, 2000, p. 12; Díaz & Bastías, 2012, p. 248).

Different types of pedagogical beliefs have been suggested. For instance, Pajares (1992) mentions four main categories of educational beliefs, namely, teacher efficacy (affecting student performance); epistemological beliefs (regarding knowledge); teacher’s or students’ performance (regarding the different motivational spheres), and self-efficacy (confidence when performing a task). Kumaravadivelu (2012) distinguishes between “core and peripheral beliefs” (p.67). The former are more influential in shaping teachers’ instructional approaches whereas the latter can cause divergence between what teachers claim they do and what they actually do in the classroom. This distinction between core and peripheral beliefs reflects teachers’ diversity in their practices.

As aforementioned, teachers’ beliefs are —far more influential than knowledge in determining teachers’ planning, decision making and attitudes in the classroom thus influencing students’ learning as Davis and Andrzejewski (2009) state that their beliefs guide their decision-making, behavior, and interactions with students and, in turn, create an objective reality in the classroom, what students experience as real and true. For instance, Melodie Rosenfeld and Sherman Rosenfeld (2008) claim from their studies that effective teachers act on the belief that all students can learn, meet the needs of diverse learners, and believe that teachers can intervene to make a difference. Badizadegan (2015) found that teachers’ pedagogical beliefs influence their approaches to technology integration into their classrooms. There is also overwhelming evidence from research (Kumaravadivelu, 2012, p. 86; Masuda, 2012, p.239) that indicates the link between beliefs and practice in teacher education which is fundamental to understand the quality of language teaching and learning.

Additionally, research on beliefs shows that “teachers who possess clearly defined theoretical beliefs teach in a way that reflects these beliefs” (Youngs & Qian, 2013, p.251; Zhang, 2013, p.71). It is necessary, therefore, to be aware of one’s pedagogical beliefs to align them with our practices and avoid any kind of mismatch. This can be achieved through systematic reflection as Farrell (2013) maintains “the systematic reflection of the alignment between beliefs and practices can help teachers develop an understanding of both what they want to do in their classrooms and the changes they want to implement to their approaches to teaching and learning (p.14). For this purpose, teacher education programmes need to provide opportunities for teachers to reflect on their beliefs and surface them.

Teacher Emotions
Emotions have been defined differently reflecting various theoretical viewpoints including physiological, philosophical, historical, sociological, feminist, organisational, anthropological and psychological perspectives (Oatley, 2000). Yet, there is a common consensus that emotion is multi-componential; that is, each emotion consists of a number of more or less unordered collections of components, jointly activated by how an event is appraised and by component propensities (Scherer, 2000). For example, Sutton and Wheatley (2003) refer to components of emotion as appraisal, subjective experience, physiological change, emotion expressions and action.
tendencies. Izard (2010), while referring to similar components, uses the terms neural systems, response systems, feelings or a feeling state, expressive behaviour, antecedent cognitive appraisal and cognitive interpretation. Thus, emotions are the foundation for feelings, which are “mental events that form the bedrock of our minds” (Damasio, 2003, p. 28).

Teachers experience different emotions during their work (Keller et al. 2014), which are triggered by multiple factors and their interplay (Schutz, 2014). Investigating the role of emotions in teaching and teacher identity development has been the focal concern of researchers (e.g., Day & Leitch, 2001; Hargreaves & Goodson, 1996; O’Connor, 2008) to explore teacher change and teacher identity. Empirical findings showed that though teachers interact with different people (colleagues, parents, etc.), but their interactions with their students seem to be the most powerful in terms of evoking positive or negative emotions (e.g. Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Negative teacher emotions (e.g., anger, frustration, etc.) were found to be engendered by lack of classroom discipline (Tsouloupas et al. 2010) while their positive emotions can be attributed to positive interactions with students such as showing appreciation to the teacher’s work and being actively engaged in learning (Hargreaves, 2001).

Teacher emotions play a crucial role in the teaching learning process. Research findings revealed that emotions may influence teacher cognition and teacher motivation (Sutton & Wheatley, 2003). Being anxious, angry or exhausted, a teacher is likely not to concentrate in explaining, lose control of the classroom and get demotivated to pursue his/her intended goals. In fact, emotions can affect memory. Research on memory suggests that emotional stimuli are often remembered better than unemotional stimuli (Mogg & Bradley, 1999). Also, emotions were found to be indispensable to rational decision-making (Damasio, 1994); and good professional practice (Goleman, 2005).

It follows that, emotions are central to the construction of teacher identity. They contribute in shaping teachers’ state of mind and attitudes in the classroom, thereby influencing teaching quality and students’ learning. Accordingly, the emotional component of teacher identity can yield richer understanding of the teacher self. It is necessary, therefore, that teacher education programmes encourage teachers to explore their own emotional experiences in teaching, to inform their pedagogies. By doing so, they can develop ‘philosophies and histories of emotions’ (Woodward, 1991; Roumaniere et al., 1997). Indeed, teachers need to identify how their emotions affect their practices through reflecting on them continuously.

To conclude, teacher identity is a complex construct of personal and social aspects. Teachers’ practices, knowledge, beliefs and emotions, are to be tied to their identities. Yet, teacher identity is not a fixed property of a teacher, but rather a process that changes as teachers gain experience from classroom practice. Still, experience alone is not enough to achieve their professional growth. To this end, professional development opportunities are critical for teachers to counteract the issues facing their profession.

**Professional development**
Several terms have been used to describe teacher’s professional development such as in-service teacher education, staff development, teacher development, professional development,
professional growth, and teacher change. According to Day (1999), professional development refers to:

The process by which, alone and with others, teachers review, renew and extend their commitment as change agents to the moral purpose of teaching; and by which they acquire and develop critically the knowledge, skills and emotional intelligence essential to good professional thinking, planning and practice with children, young people and colleagues throughout each phase of their teaching lives (p.4).

This notion of acting to bring up change is also highlighted by Guskey’s (2002) definition of this concept: “systematic efforts to bring about change in the classroom practices of teachers, in their attitude and beliefs, and in the learning outcomes of students” (p. 381). Being initiated by the teacher or the school system, professional development requires teachers’ motivation and willingness to improve and responsibility to commit themselves to change.

The notion of continuing professional development in education (CPD) is gaining more momentum as the idea of teacher learning is considered a life-long learning process. Indeed, there is a widespread view that it is healthy for professionals to have an active role in their own development processes (Hill, 2000; Stuart & Thurlow, 2000; Crookes & Chandler, 2001). A large number of studies have shown that effective professional development enhances the quality of education (Darling-Hammond, 2000; Hixson & Tinizmann, 1990; Sander & Rivers, 1997). This is through improving the teaching skills of individual teachers and the organizational system as a whole.

Within professional development, teachers “need to restructure their knowledge and beliefs, and, on the basis of teaching experiences, integrate their new information in their practical knowledge” (van Driel et al., 2001, p. 140). To achieve this objective, such experience needs to engender positive feelings among teachers. Harland and Kinder (1997) maintain that enthusiasm and motivation resulting from activities are indicators of high quality CPD. This was confirmed by Edmonds and Lee’s (2002) finding that teachers felt the most effective CPD was that which resulted in increased confidence and enthusiasm.

In fact, several models of CDP have been suggested in the literature. For example, Freeman (1991) accepts that teachers’ knowledge is attributed to their experiences in their careers which are ranging from professional to personal perspectives. According to him, these experiences’ phases are: the experience of imitation, the experience of control, the experience of competence, the experience of humanness, and the experience of balance. In Clarke and Hollingsworth’s (2002) model, there are two domains: the teacher’s professional world of practice which includes the personal domain (teacher knowledge, beliefs, and attitudes), the domain of practice (professional experimentation), and the domain of consequence (salient outcomes); and the external domain (including sources of information, stimulus, or support), which lies outside the teacher’s personal world.
Conclusion
Identifying what constitutes teacher identity has always been the subject of research and debate among scholars and educators. Though there is no clear cut definition of this concept, a common consensus has been generated regarding its holistic nature, besides the need to explore it to support empowering teacher education and professional development programmes. Therefore, in this article an endeavour has been made to clarify this kind of professional identity through accounting for the social and personal aspect including: teachers’ practices, knowledge, beliefs and emotions.

Professional development remains the key opportunity for teachers’ identity to grow. This embodies continuous learning through ongoing reflection, collaboration, and attending workshops and programmes that target teacher development. In doing so, teachers can cope with the increasing challenges of 21st classrooms.

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References


CLIL: Content based Instructional Approach to Second Language Pedagogy

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Abstract
The present paper accentuates the need for innovation in pedagogical theory and practice of the day. It elucidates the linguistic dilemma of the present times and identifies space for bilingualism and pluriculturalism. To make the readers acquainted with Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), the authors corroborate the detailed theoretical framework by establishing links with growing trends of cross continent migration, rising globalisation and expansion of multicultural and multiethnic contexts in the educational arena. A brief prehistory of CLIL has also been explored to justify its birth in helping out the linguists and educationists in Europe and beyond. The paper delineates the theory of Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) diagrammatically employing content, cognition and communication in a linguistic culture. It explicates the various nomenclatures, dimensions, functions and the developmental stages of CLIL pedagogy at the dawn of the new millennium. After exploring the theoretical, functional and futuristic facets of CLIL, it is concluded that CLIL is an apt, economical and timely framework of bringing diverse cultures and languages closer to one another and can help build cosmopolitan identity of learners in the Knowledge Age.

Key Words: Bilingualism, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL), pedagogy, learners’ identity, linguistic harmony, multiculturalism, pluriculturalism

Introduction
Perhaps all what we learn at school of education and training revolves round the critical sense. Said (1994) says that a researcher is neither a pacifier nor a consensus-builder but one whose whole being is staked on a critical sense, a sense of being unwilling to accept easy formulas, or ready-made clichés.

In the present study, it is argued that mere critical sense would be considered as cynicism if it does not end up with some possibility or some practical framework that may address the issue in question. Readers’ attention is drawn to the alarmingly endangered predicament of many minority languages in the modern times. This article encompasses very briefly how the politics of language sets the scene for the second language acquisition (SLA) and how the researchers and practitioners across the world are striving to find ways and means by doing new experiments, especially in pedagogy, which may safeguard endangered languages.

Besides giving a comprehensive view of CLIL, its origin, its theoretical underpinnings, its functions and incapacities and future promise, the authors try to establish that Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) may be looked at as the most recent and well-conceived model of pedagogy which has evolved logically from sundry previous theories and tested practices. CLIL can provide an immediate relief if not a panacea, to the falling health of many minority languages across the world. It can bring many languages closer to one another paving the way for pluricultural societies, and may result in a greater socio-political harmony. It may preserve the invaluable cultural capital contained in great variety of languages, too.

Linguistic Dilemma in our Times
One can hardly deny that the world we live in is not monolingual; about 60% of the people around the world are bilingual (Baker, 1998). More than 70 countries have English as their official language (Crystal, 1997). French enjoys official status in 30 while Spanish and Arabic are official languages in 20 states (Krauss, 1992). There are hundreds of languages typically among various states, just to quote a few, India, USA, Indonesia, Cameroon and Australia have 407, 176, 772, 279 and 234 languages respectively. The minority languages in these states are typically faced with four great threats:

1. Migration at large Scale
2. Formal Monolingual Schooling
3. Globalisation
4. Peculiar Language Politics adversary to Minority Languages.

The political, technological and social realities of the modern world have led and continue to lead to more contact between more people of different linguistic backgrounds than ever before (Puffer & Smit, 2007). Political upheavals in the mid 20th century and beyond resulted in creation of many new states. The colonisers left behind a messy linguistic scenario. The newly found states were faced with grave language policy issues. For some, the very choice of national language turned out to be an unmanageable issue. Pakistan can be a striking example which disintegrated in less than a quarter century due to a linguistic strife among majority and minority linguistic groups. The choice of medium of instruction is still a thorny issue among many post-colonial states even today.
The state of affair, on the other hand, in the first world countries is pretty different. A typical model in the developed world is, by and large, monolingual. Pattanayak (1986) maintains that monolingual orientation is cultivated in the developed world and consequently two languages are considered nuisance, three languages uneconomic and many languages absurd.

This scenario, in both the above said categories of countries, escalates political divide and problematizes the choice(s) of medium of instruction in schools. Language politics typically means controlling the minority languages (Kangas, 2000). Despite the glaring claims of multilingualism and *mosaic* clichés, even in the immigrant counties, such voices are not uncommon. Dunn (1987) identifies that bilingual education could result in at least partial disintegration of the United States of America. The research in both the domains of psycho and sociolinguistics on the one hand, and teaching practices on the other, are informing as it will be substantiated on the following pages that bilingualism and multilingualism are blissful and possess a great variety of socio-political, economic and educational benefits.

**Space for Bilingualism and Multilingualism**
Denying the significance of the learner’s first language, on whatever pretext, is now marked as great disadvantage. Many countries are spoiling human capital for usually uninformed and ill-conceived language policies. For instance, only 6% of citizens view Portuguese in Mozambique which has been adopted as medium of instruction in schools as their first language (Benson, 2002).

One can imagine how this foreign language facilitates the learners in their learning pursuits. Heugh (2000) estimates that 75% of children fail in school in South Africa alone. It is widely attributed to language issues and not adapting classroom methodologies to the demands of learning through an additional language (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). The contemporary research is fairly supporting the use of mother tongue in language education (Swain, Kirkpatrick, Andy & Cummins, 2011). When the first language is not well developed, many children will lack foundation upon which to build second language conceptual skills (Cummins, 1990).

Mac Namee & White (1985) argue that learning of two languages immeasurably facilitates the eventual learning of a third language. They also suggest that young Canadians who have acquired and maintained their ancestral language are more likely to acquire a second official language and make it part of their adult lives in future. Cummins (1990) reports that minority language children acquire French more easily than children from monolingual background. Hence, exposing a child to multiple languages is supported by many research findings from 1969 to 2011 (Saif & Sheldon, 1969; Swain et al., 2011).

Diversity is a great bliss in many ways. Ekern (1998) points out that in our times, unity was achieved through diversity. Pluricultural, multi-ethnic and multilingual societies rise. He further asserts that the states that do not accept this trend are opting for conflict.

Therefore, both political and pedagogical challenges are inviting the theorists and practitioners to do newer experiments in theory and practice. The Canadian French immersion program in North America was brought forth to address the linguistic parity in Canada. It proved so effective that it influenced theorists and practitioners even beyond Canada. By 2006, the number
of young people undertaking immersion education in Canada was over 300,000 (Coyle, 2010).

After the success of the Canadian French immersion programme, Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) model has emerged initially from Europe. CLIL is stemming very well in European schools and seeking enough support from the corridors of powers as well. As pointed out earlier, there is a dire need to integrate many languages in the flow of mainstream education for obvious political and educational reasons. Keeping in view the countries seeking immigrants rather than dispatching them, Puffer (2007) has very legitimately summed up the rationale of this experience in Europe saying that we are witnessing a trend towards internationalisation and globalisation, putting pressure on education system to provide skills which will allow students to stand their ground in the international context.

Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL)
The term CLIL was adopted in 1994 (Marsh, Maljers & Hartila, 2001). It refers to an educational setting where language other than the student’s mother tongue is used as medium of instruction (Puffer, 2007). For Coyle and associates (2010), CLIL is an educational approach in which various language supportive methodologies are used that lead to a dual-focused form of instruction where attention is given both to the language and the content. CLIL is known by a great variety of acronyms in various languages. There are some fifty English-based terms that are used worldwide (Puffer & Smit, 2007). It also covers wide range of educational practices and settings whose common denominator is that a non-L1 is used in classes other than those labelled as ‘language classes’ (Snow et al., 1997).

One may safely claim that in certain countries, especially the former British colonies, CLIL or something like CLIL is being practiced without any systematic pedagogic practice in many cases without conscious awareness. For instance, all instruction in Pakistan, at higher level is done in English which is a foreign language. CLIL is hardly yet known as an established mode of practice. The subject teachers very often have no idea that they are indirectly developing language communication skills beside instruction of the subject content. Puffer & Smit (2007) contemplate that receiving schooling in a language other than their home language is an everyday experience for children and students in many parts of the world.

Nevertheless, it may be perceived through the body of literature on CLIL is that it is not an invention but an old practice of teaching subject content in a foreign language. For example, Latin was the language of instruction for the elite in Europe in the medieval times. In the past, this luxury was available to the elite only but CLIL experience in Europe has extended this facility to the public schooling for its wider educational and political value.

The question whether CLIL is for content or for the language has fairly been answered by Coyle & associates (2010) as they hold that CLIL is not simply another step in language teaching or a new development in content subject methodology. They see CLIL as a fusion of subject didactics leading to an innovation which has emerged as the education for modern times. They go on to say that CLIL is an approach which is neither language learning nor subject learning, but an amalgam of both is linked to the process of convergence. Convergence involves the fusion of elements which have been previously fragmented. Therefore, it is suggested that this teaching approach should be seen in its modern context when time is really money. Its dual focus saves
time and resources on the one hand and presents an amicable solution of the longstanding controversy whether language instruction is for the language or about the language.

**Theoretical Underpinnings of CLIL**

It should be acknowledged that CLIL has emerged through the evolutionary process. Leaving the classical conception of teacher as imparter and student as recipient of knowledge, the constructivists e.g. Bruner say that learning is an individual cognitive act whereas Brown, Collins, Duguid and others agree that cognitive apprenticeship supports learning in a domain by enabling students to acquire, develop and use cognitive tools in authentic domain of activity. Apart from these theoretical premises, CLIL is, in our view, a brain child of post-method and most recent language pedagogy known as Communicative Approach. It seeks its validity from Vygotskian view of learning by doing. It was Vygotsky who opened the door for Sociology to join Psychology whatever its level was in his time. It is but relevant to state that very function in child’s cultural development appears twice; first on the social level, and later, on the individual level; first between people (inter-psychological) and then inside the child which is intra-psychological (Alex & Boris, 2003).

With his illustrious coinage Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD), Vygotsky bounds the learning to happen when social interaction and scaffolding that is often offered by teachers, combine and allow for the full or maximum learning potential of the learner to become functional. Similarly, we can verify a strong theoretical connections right from Piaget to Gardner and beyond, behind the CLIL philosophy and practice. To avoid any digression, it is relevant here to highlight some other facets of CLIL methodology.

Authenticity of content and authenticity of purpose and treatment of content in an authentic manner have been debated a lot. Graddol (2006) describes CLIL as an ultimate communicative methodology. He points out that communicative language teaching movement of 1983 lacked authenticity that is fulfilled by CLIL. Long (1983) holds that an important process of teaching is the principle of the negotiation of meaning in authentic interaction. At the dawn of the new millennium, it is noticeable that our educational practices are combining psychology, sociology and innovation in pedagogy. Likewise, Coyle and associates (2010) rightly claim that CLIL is not merely a convenient response to the challenges posed by rapid globalisation, rather it is a solution which is timely, is in harmony with broader social perspectives and proved effective.

In a nutshell, CLIL is the latest and perhaps the most refined form of educational model that has logically taken shape by integration of previous bilingual models, SLA theories and lived experiences in pedagogy. What separates CLIL from some established approaches such as content based language learning or form of bilingual education, is the planned pedagogic integration of contextualised content, cognition, communication and culture into teaching and learning practice (Coyle, 2005). Figure 1.1 shows how a typical CLIL lesson integrates the above said elements in classroom practice. This model has been named as 4Cs Framework:
Functions of CLIL
For sure, the content is at the forefront in CLIL. It relieves the pressure of learning an additional language in the strict academic terms. The beauty of employing the content lies in great flexibility of choices. It is the context that determines which content to bring into practice in the classroom may it be geography, secretarial practice, troubleshooting of computers and the list goes on.

Language as such is used as a vehicle and that is perhaps the most acceptable role assigned to language in the broader educational as well as social sense. As referred to earlier, CLIL functions on the principle of learning by doing. It relieves the learner of the scary feeling of learning grammar, syntax, phonology and register for the sake of them. Nothing is devoid of situational context, so every class activity in CLIL model is generic and engaging. Indeed, the overall approach in CLIL is simply communicative. Stern (1983) had long ago said with reference to Canadian French Immersion programme and the Welsh Bilingual Project that even in quasi-foreign language situation, a communicative strategy can be an effective means of language teaching. He further points out that it creates in a school setting the field conditions of language learning through communication.

CLIL in principle is not teacher-fronted rather student-oriented and more precisely project-oriented which requires social interaction in the classroom. During this interaction, the classroom turns into a street where all aspects of pragmatic register naturally come into practice. This is how CLIL resolves the enigma of learning a foreign language what Van Lier (1988) contends that foreign language learning is not difficult but learning it in the classroom. The metaphor of language bath associated to it gives it another cozy sensation. CLIL gives the use of language a purpose over and beyond learning the language itself. It is what Puffer & Smit (2007) believe is often absent from typical language instruction.

Learning environment is of pivotal importance in all forms of learning, be it content or language or whatever. The problem with the traditional Grammar Translation Method (GTM) was its lack of life applicability. Its content was largely literary in nature and objective was so called mental exercise. Direct Method (DM) turned to be teacher-fronted and too complex and faster in pace for the grip of average or slow learners. The task-based learning left the questions which task
and why but CLIL offers both purpose as well as rationale of its practice for all the major stakeholders i.e. students, teachers and schools.

It is but relevant to refer to Cummins’ notion of Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS) and Competence in Academic Language Proficiency (CALP). Both are but the ideal requirements to enable the learner to become confident user of language simultaneously (Cummins, 1979). Therefore, there is a dire need to strike a balance between the form and flow of language. Puffer (2007) observes that CLIL classroom appears to be a clever and economical way of turning classrooms into streets. It is perhaps a must in the teaching site where there is no street out there to practice the target language typically in TEFL teaching scenario. CLIL is one way of integrating BICS and CALP on the one hand and on the other hand gaining the willing suspension of disbelief which means the toils of the foreign language learning are left behind.

Every new pedagogical experience poses challenges to teachers. In CLIL’ naturalistic approach, it is mandatory for the teacher to scaffold projects to ensure complete engagement of learners with respect to their knowledge and ability. It is imperative for teachers to design the content in such a skilful manner that it can achieve the dual purpose CLIL aims at. There is a dire need to bring the subject teachers and language teachers in close collaboration for the result-oriented curriculum planning and instruction. CLIL curriculum allows for gaining new knowledge of the content as Mohan and Naerssen (1997) rightly contend that as we acquire new areas of knowledge, we acquire new areas of language and meaning. In many ways, CLIL offers an amicable settlement of the teaching language for its knowledge and/or use.

**Enigma of Form and Meaning in Language Instruction**

This is one of the most interesting debates in SLA theory and practice. It seems that research and practice are more attracted to communicative approach in teaching in the most recent history. Approaches to foreign language learning have also moved from orientations almost exclusively directed to grammar and translation to more eclectic approach geared to learning how to communicate in second or foreign language (Van Esch & St. John, 2003).

There is a position taken by many that classrooms are widely considered to be places where languages cannot be learnt owing to lack of focus on meaning and stress on form (Puffer, 2007). Some learning is stimulated by teaching but much of it may be independent of teaching (Stern, 1983). This way, the profession of English as a foreign language (EFL) turns out to untenable (Van Lier, 1988). Still there are a few stronger and legitimate voices in favour of teaching form of language without which effective use of language will possibly remain incomplete and imperfect.

Canale and Swain (1980) made their mark in furthering the question of competence and performance basically put forth by Chomsky. They contend that it is very hard to accept language learning as mere an ability to get the meaning across. Savignon (1972) also joins them in a number of aspects and endorses the suspicion of fossilisation if the early and timely correction of grammatical errors is consciously ignored. Savignon (2004) suggests that teaching of form (grammar) is not CLIL. While Swain (1996) holds that content teaching needs to guide students’ progressive use of the full functional range of language and to support their understanding of how language form is related to meaning in subject-related material. She further reiterates that
integration of language, subject-related knowledge and thinking skills require systematic monitoring and planning.

Mohan (1986) has to say if form is divorced from function, there is no functional grammar if language is divorced from discourse, there is no account for language as medium of learning or for content learning. The question is how to reconcile with form and meaning in CLIL classroom setting. The decisive role should be given to teacher who has the acumen to manipulate the language and the content to kill two birds with one stone (apologies to environmentalists for using this idiom). Content must be manipulated pedagogically if its potential for language learning is to be realised (Klapper, 1996).

The opinion of Van Lier (1996) moderates the issues still further by expressing that we should not let ourselves be trapped inside a dichotomy between focus on form and focus on meaning but rather use the term focus on language. He sums up the debate saying that in practice it becomes impossible to separate form and function neatly in the interactional work that is being carried out.

New Roles of Teacher and Learner
Guided by the principle of using the language to learn and learning the language to use, CLIL seems to us guided by Vygotskian theories on the one hand and follows the lines envisaged by Freire on the other. Freire (1972) presumes that without dialogue there is no communication and without communication there can be no true education. Through this dialogical engagement learner-teacher and learner-learner, interactions spring up and create the naturalness. to the basic action plan of a CLIL classroom where learners ask questions as well as answer questions which may result in meaningful communication involving linguistic register to use the target language as a vehicle. On professional front, a CLIL teacher may not be assigned a very lofty role of transformative intellectual (Giroux) or agent of change (Brown) as such, but certainly needs to have a caring attitude, ability to take a light-hearted approach and talent of creating life-applicable situations in the classroom to make the authentic communication happen (Bowering, 2007). A great expertise is also required to make due corrections and focusing on form very tactfully lest the motivation should be affected at any stage.

The most heartening element of CLIL is its capacity to promote non-native speaking second language teachers. Marsh (2005) holds that some of the most suitable CLIL teachers are those who speak the majority language as their first language and the CLIL language as their second language. This is how CLIL protects and promotes majority and minority languages at the same time. It allows for benefiting from all linguistic groups in a schooling system and achieves cross-linguistic and intercultural harmony and mutual respect for all languages in the social context.

CLIL and Learning Motivation
Regarding motivation in learning, Csikszentmihalyi & Nakamura (1989) express that an ideal motivation will exist when all the learners with their mind and bodies are completely involved, their concentration is very deep. They know what they want to do, they know how well they are doing, they are not worried about failing; time passes very quickly and they lose the ordinary self-
conscious (worries of daily life).

If we examine the CLIL in action (Fig. 1.1), it is evident that this ideal is achievable if the teachers who conduct CLIL classes enforce the real spirit of CLIL pedagogy. Perhaps the most remarkable feature of CLIL is its ability to dispel the impression of academic learning from the minds of learners. This creates greater and deeper involvement. In CLIL, a situation is provided in which the attention is on the activity in action not on the language itself. Anything we get involved in for the sake of it, turns out to be easier and more enjoyable. Here lies the great strength of CLIL pedagogy because motivation in learning is indeed the most valuable thing in education.

The second most appealing element of CLIL is its pleasant surprise. Imagine any meal of an absolutely different taste that may be served once a week amid the routine meals which are eaten every day. Exposing school children to a new target language may have a sense of fascinations to practice it in class and they would sing/play and repeat its words and phrases even beyond the classroom. This fact is supported by keen observations. Brumfit (1991) maintains that children naturally use their mother tongue with any other person who knows it. When children find themselves in the company of others, particularly their peers who speak other languages, they will certainly and naturally make an effort to understand and use the new language.

CLIL is innovative and carries a lot of fascination; that is why it is kicking off well in Europe and being welcomed in other parts of the world. Training of teachers and planners may allow them to retain and multiply the learning motivation still further.

**CLIL as Tool of Intercultural Understanding**

Almost every student of Linguistics knows that language and culture are synonymous and integral parts of each other. Inviting a language in the form of CLIL in any kind of schooling system is to allow the culture-specific world views to find their place there. Minority languages and cultures cannot be represented by so called cultural festivals which are usually held in schools of immigrant countries once or twice a year. Dress shows of a culture or painting exhibitions can hardly be compared with linguistic representation of a culture in a schooling system.

Apart from plentiful meta-cognitive benefits of allowing the minority and majority languages, CLIL is instrumental in bringing diverse languages and hence cultures, closer to one another. CLIL widens the horizons of thinking. It allows the learners peep into other cultures and makes room for various world views to let the students reflect upon their own language and culture. This is how a sense of vitality of all languages and of course cultures is nourished.

**Some Limitations of CLIL**

As pointed out earlier, CLIL is not the panacea of all the linguistic concerns of our times. It is just one step to the right direction. CLIL is going through a phase of experimentation. The question of striking balance between content and language is still relative and depends on many contextual factors. Some CLIL programmes are pre-dominantly language-driven and some are pre-dominantly content-driven depending on the context, the school and the curriculum focus (Brinton et al., 1989; Stryker & Leaver, 1997). Puffer and Smit (2007) agree that the major focus in Europe is on content but of course, all the countries do not have the similar scenario in which to enforce CLIL.
Often innovative ideas have great appeal but enforcing theories is never without a challenge. Teaching content in a foreign (alien) language cannot be taken as easy way easy go. If we are given a choice to learn something in our native language over a foreign language, our natural and convenient choice, of course, would be our own mother tongue. Practically, it is observed that courses taught in a foreign language may take far larger time for coverage because the pace of learning is slowed down. In many countries where English, French and Spanish languages have colonial roots, learners may have advantages of parallel, identical diction and lexical cognates out there to assist them. CLIL is interesting, innovative, refreshing and a fascinating activity yet it is not without challenges both for teachers and learners.

It also poses a challenge to teachers who have been categorised as language teachers and subject teachers in the past. There are suspicions among teachers of science and that of languages as to whose role is being snatched and whose importance is being minimised. In this age of micro specialisations, it is not easy to exchange or merge roles. However, concepts of learning communities and collaborative approaches in teaching and learning are being gradually accepted.

**Future Implications**

Education tends to adapt slowly. For instance, it takes 15-20 years to change an educational practice (Coyle, Hood & Marsh, 2010). The changes being witnessed at the dawn of new millennium are emerging with the speed of lightning. Instead of traditional transfer of knowledge, collaborative creation of knowledge is required.

There is hardly any room left for cultures and languages to grow in isolation. There is a dire need to give our generation a cosmopolitan identity which shows tolerance of race and gender differences, genuine curiosity towards willingness to learn from other cultures, and responsibility towards excluded groups (Hargreaves, 2003). Through globalisation, increasing immigration and through media, world communities are coming closer and closer to each other. Certain rigidly confined countries such as China and former communist countries are also opening up.

It is to be noted that the European Union have signed agreements to expose their children to at least two more languages other than their own. It dispels the impression that CLIL is just the promotion of majority languages such as English and French. It is linked with various bilingual models which have made their mark in language theory and practice such as The Canadian French Immersion programme. Bilingualism and multilingualism are no more mere clichés rather accepted realities. The Commission of European Communities says about multilingual policy that it strengthens life chances of citizens. It may increase their employability, facilitate access to services and rights and contribute to solidarity through enhanced intercultural dialogue and social cohesion. Approached in this spirit, linguistic diversity can become a precious asset, increasingly so in today’s globalised world.

Therefore, it is quite observable that the greatest investment is being made across the world in the three fields:

1. Information Technology
2. Media
3. Human Resource Development
For all these disciplines to flourish, great responsibility rests on the shoulders of linguists and educators to create space for more and more languages to find their due place in the ongoing flow of education and training. CLIL-like experiments can be extended to larger number of countries for the obvious benefits especially for counties which are largely depending on English as medium of instruction, official language and language of trade commerce and international relations.

CLIL experiment is beneficial for the Eastern European countries which are creating space for their economies within the region and beyond. This model is equally useful for immigrant countries which are not likely to remain monolingual any more. The case of developing nations as pointed out in the beginning, requires far greater consideration towards holistic growth of minority languages beside the majority, national language or the languages they have adopted as medium of instruction in schools for one good reason or the other.

**Conclusion**

CLIL is the outcome of evolutionary process from theories of learning blended with modern notions of communication and supported by the contextual factors such as immigration, globalisation and language politics. It is bound to succeed because it blends subject knowledge, technology, future preparation, cognition, motivation, authenticity of context as well as purpose, economy of time and resources and above all an instrument of transforming diverse societies into pluricultural communities. Pedagogically, CLIL comes very close to an ideal teaching environment where teachers allow learners to think through and articulate their own learning, classes are interactive and dialogic in nature, cooperative learning is promoted and by doing so the dual purpose of transfer of knowledge related to content as well that of language is skilfully achieved.

Seeing the emerging demand of language as means of communication in the Knowledge Age and especially the value of science education which is least theoretical now in nature, we foresee promising victories for CLIL in both developing and the developed countries. The most striking of all the promises of CLIL can be dubbed as pluricultural harmony.

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Writing for Comprehension in Prose Fiction Analysis: The Students’ Voices

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Abstract:
Literary appreciation and language teaching have long been associated with two different constructs. However, with careful selection and planning, literary study and language teaching can be integrated for the benefits of language learning as well as for literary appreciation. This study is attempted to investigate (i) the students’ opinion in relation to the effective way of understanding the intrinsic elements of prose fiction, (ii) their opinion in relation to analyzing fictions in the form of an essay, and (iii) what they learn in terms of the literary aspects and writing aspects. The design the study is content analysis design through document analysis. The participants of the study were 31 students of English Education Study program who took prose subject in College of Teacher Training and Education of Indonesian Teachers Association (STKIP PGRI) in Pasuruan, East Java, Indonesia. The data was taken from the students reflection writing which was collected in the end of the semester after they joined prose subject class. Thus, the instrument used was mainly documentation. To help the researchers categorized and analyzed the data, some codifications were used. The finding shows the majority of the students believe making an essay to analyze fictions is the effective way to understand the intrinsic elements of prose and help them in sharpening their ability to read and write. The result of the study also shows that writing essays to analyze fictions give some benefits for the students’ knowledge in how to write well as well as in comprehending the literary aspects of a fictions.

Key words: essay, fictions, prose analysis, students’ perception, writing for comprehension

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Introduction
In the past, the inclusion of literature in language teaching has not attracted many attentions from researchers and practitioners. However, despite of its controversies, since 1980 the inclusion of literature in language classes was already acceptable (Bottino, 1999). The use of literature in language classes began in the early 19th century when Britain and its colonies used literature to teach languages (Hall, 2005). Literature is considered appropriate for teaching a language since it has always been seen as authentic materials (Collie & Slater, 1987) and has become the means of transmitting wisdoms, understandings, and entertainments (Ahmad, 2012). It is authentic because the creation of literary work was not intended specifically for language teaching. The language used in the text is genuine and is intended for the native speaker of the target language (Collie & Slater, 1987).

Therefore, literature offers many benefits for language learners if it is used for learning a language. Firstly, literature offers cultural knowledge of the people written in the story (Lazar, 1993). Literature may act as the representation of the reality in the form of fiction. It reflects not only the life in the real world, but also the culture of the society as presented in the text. Secondly, literature also provide language enrichment for the learners (Collie & Slater, 1987; Floris, 2004). Learners would have many linguistics inputs in terms of vocabulary, grammatical structure, and style. The language used in the literature mostly is not a type of language commonly used in daily communication and textbooks. Thus, if literature is used for teaching a language, learners would learn the lexical and syntactical items in its context. And thirdly, the use of literature triggers personal involvement (Collie & Slater, 1987; Floris, 2004). If the learners are personally involved with the texts they read, their attention would be shifted from the mechanical aspect of the language to the engagement of the story (Collie & Slater, 1987) barely aware that they learn the language. When they are drawn to the development of the story, the learners could feel the personal attachment with particular characters they read and might share every emotion the characters think and feel.

Among the genres of literary text, prose fiction is a type of literary genre which is mostly available in any means of communication. With the advancement of technology, one can find fiction easily from internet. Many of the fictions from various genres are downloadable from the internet, ranging from novels, short stories, mini fictions, and micro fictions, either classic or modern. In recent decades, the use of prose fictions in language class is not something new. Many practitioners have exploited the use of prose fictions for teaching language skills, such as for teaching reading (Braz da Silva 2001, Ahmad, 2012; Khatib & Nasrollahi, 2012; Chen, 2014), for listening and reading skills (Rodriguez & Leonor, 2017), for teaching writing (Sukmawan, Setyowati, & Nurmansyah, 2015; Setyowati & Sukmawan, 2015; Setyowati & Samsu, 2015; Setyowati, 2016), and for teaching integrated skills (Erkaya, 2005). The teaching of prose is closely associated with the teaching of reading as the main goal is similar, that is comprehension. The techniques of teaching reading such as skimming, scanning, and silent reading can be applied to comprehend prose material (Aslam, 2003). He further states that since the goal of teaching prose is very close to the goal of teaching reading, the kind of activity involved is usually answering the comprehension questions in the end of the passage.
In relation to the teaching and learning of prose fictions in university level, it is very common for the instructors to present a set of comprehension questions to the students to be answered either in groups or individually, and either answered orally or in written form. Setyaningsih (2014) used collaborative group investigation to solve the students’ problem in prose analysis. In collaborative group investigation, the students worked in groups to read, discuss, analyze the fictions based on the problems and questions given by the lecturer. After they have finished with the discussion, each group then presented the result of the discussion in front of the class. The research was conducted in two cycle which resulted in the increased scores from cycle 1 to cycle 2. She concluded that collaborative group investigation is effective to improve the students’ ability in analyzing the intrinsic elements of fictions. Secondly, Novianti (2016) conducted a case study on the teaching of prose in a university in West Java, Indonesia. She found out that the strategies that the lecturer employed are individual reading assignment followed by a face to face comprehension question session conducted orally, and assigning group reading and group discussion with different level of English proficiency level students so that the high achiever can help the low achiever to understand the text.

Since most of prose fiction teaching and learning processes use comprehension questions at the end of the passage, it is very unusual to find a prose class that asks students to analyze a prose fiction in the form of an essay, especially in Indonesian context. The class being studied in this research applied the ‘write’ strategy to analyze the fictions. For one semester, the students were asked to analyze the a prose fiction individually in the form of an essay. The essay should be written in the accepted form and follow the general convention of essay writing, namely the occurrence of introductory paragraph, thesis statement, development of ideas in the body of essay, and conclusion. Thus, the present study is considered worth doing because of several reasons. Firstly, previous research mainly focuses on the methodology of teaching prose (Setyaningsih, 2014; Novianti, 2016) and did not really explore the students’ views in relation to their learning of prose. Secondly, the strategies for teaching prose found in the previous research focus mainly on the utilization of comprehension questions in the end of the text, while in this present research, the students’ comprehension was checked through their ability to analyze the fiction in the form of an essay. And thirdly, very scarce research is found investigating the students’ perceptions and feeling about their learning of prose, especially in the context of English as a foreign language (EFL), except a study conducted by Zahra& Farah (2016) who particularly investigated the EFL students’ attitude toward the use of short stories for language learning. Having the information in relation to the students’ view and feelings about their analysis of prose fictions in the form of an essay can help the prose lecturer and writing lecturer to have insights and ideas of teaching innovation either in using prose fictions for teaching writing, or teaching essay writing by using prose. Therefore, the present study is intended to fill the gap and to enrich the body of knowledge in relation to the teaching of prose fictions in EFL context and essay writing. Thus, the research problems are posed as follows:

1. What are the students’ opinion in relation to the effective way of understanding the intrinsic elements of prose fictions?
2. What are the students’ opinion in analyzing fictions in the form of essay?
3. What do the students’ learn in relation to the literary aspect and writing aspect?
Literary Review

Aspects of an Essay

To create a good essay, there are some aspects of writing need to be taken into account. As stated by Harvey (2009), there are twelve aspects of an academic essay. The first is the occurrence of a thesis. This thesis explain about the topic being discussed. Secondly, it is the motives. The motive should be clear and genuine and is usually placed in the introduction of the essay. Thirdly, it is the key terms. The key terms help the readers to see the important points of the essay. The fourth is the evidence. The evidence is the data that can be used to support the thesis. The data can be in the form of facts, examples and details. The fifth is the analysis. To analyze is not to quote or to summarize, but to do something with the data. Harvey (2009) states that logical thinking is the key aspect of analysis whether the reasoning is done implicitly or explicitly. The sixth is the structure. The essay structure deals with the logical order, whether the essay is ordered by using order of importance, sequence order, or complexity order. Seventh, it is stitching. The word stitching means connecting sentences and paragraphs by using transitions words to shape an intact, united, and coherent essay. The eight is sources. When writing academic writing it is important to have sources to backup the thesis and the argument. Ninth is reflecting. Reflecting means the writer’s own reflection through the consideration of counter-argument. Next is orienting. Orienting is giving some information that might be needed by the readers to understand the whole text. The eleventh element is stance. Stance is the writer’s attitude which can be shown by tone and dictions. And the final element is style. Style is the choice of words, sentence and structure. Style is what every piece of writing unique

Teaching Prose Fictions

The idea of using literature, especially prose fiction, in language classes has given birth to the models of how to apply them in the classroom. Scholars proposes some models for using literature in language classes. Lazar (1993) classifies the approach that can be used for applying literature in language teaching, namely language-base model, the content-based model, and personal enrichment model. The language-based model integrates the literature syllabus and linguistic components such as the use of grammar, diction, and discourse to describe the aesthetic side of the works. Meanwhile, the content-based model focuses on the analysis of literature in terms of the historical and cultural background, the genre, and the rhetorical devices. The personal enrichment model, on the other hand, emphasizes the self-reflection toward the works that is by relating the text with the learners’ personal experiences, opinions, and feeling. Similarly, Bottino(1999) proposes three models for teaching languages by using literature, namely the cultural model, the language model, and the personal growth model. The cultural model focuses on the transmission of culture, feelings, ideas and the target language learnt. Whereas the language model focus on the use of literature as a means of learning vocabulary and structures to create literary meanings. The last model as proposed by Bottino (1999) is the personal growth model which puts emphasize on the personal involvement of the learners to read for enjoyment as well as to read for interpretation. Looking at the models proposed by Lazar (1993) and Bottino (1999) a similarity between the models can be drawn. They are on the agreement that literature can be used to teach language components, such as vocabulary and grammar, as well as to enhance learners personal experience and enrichments. Lazar’s (1993) content based model seems to be similar to Bottino’s (1999) cultural model since the purpose of this model is alike. However, Lazar(1993) suggests
prior applying any of the models, the learners’ need should be identified so that an appropriate model can be chosen for them.

Aside from the models of teaching literature as discussed above, there are some strategies specifically addressed to the teaching of prose fictions. According to Morris (2016), there are four effective strategies for teaching prose, namely read, write, discuss, and integrate technology. Since teaching prose means teaching reading with comprehension, the instructors usually asks about the intrinsic elements of the story. As students gain more maturity with their reading comprehension, the comprehension questions usually get heavier, such as the writer’s purpose, the message, themes, and connecting the story with personal life experiences. Morris (2016) further states that the interpretation of prose can be done orally, or in written form through filling out graphic organizer, charts, or other outlining techniques.

**Methodology**

The study uses qualitative approach focusing on content analysis design. The main instrument used is documentation. In the study, the students were asked to write their opinion in short paragraph describing their views and feeling in relation to the use of essay for analyzing fictions. The participants of the study were thirty one students of English Education Study Program STKIP PGRI Pasuruan joining Prose subjects. During the teaching and learning process, the students were asked by their lecturer to analyze short fictions they read in the form of at least four paragraph essay which consist of introduction, body and conclusion. In the end of the semester, the students were asked to describe their feelings and opinion in relation to the teaching learning process, especially in the use of essay to analyze fictions in the forms of self-reflection writing. Before writing their opinion, the lecturers wrote the items the students need to explore, namely, the effective way of understanding the intrinsic elements, the use of essay for prose analysis, and what they learn from prose fiction analysis.

The data of the study is in the form of words and sentences, and was analyzed qualitatively. To help the researchers analyzed the data, codifications were used. The codification system consists of the student’s name, aspects, and students’ identity number. After the data was collected, the researchers omitted data which was not relevant with the purpose of the study. The data was reduced and classified based on the following criteria; the effective way of understanding intrinsic elements of prose fictions, their opinion of analyzing fictions in the form of essay, and what the students’ learn in relation to the literary aspect and writing aspect.

**Finding**

**The Effective way of Understanding the Elements of Fictions**

In their self reflection writing, the students wrote three ways for understanding the intrinsic elements of prose fictions, namely analyzing it in the form of essay, making questions, and the combination of both.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ways to understand the intrinsic elements of Fictions</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing it in the form of essay</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. *Ways to understand the intrinsic elements*
The students wrote in their self-reflection writing that making essay for analyzing prose fiction is the effective way for understanding the intrinsic elements of the narration (81%). In their writing, some of the students state,

“In my opinion, by writing an essay, I can understand the intrinsic elements of short fictions, and I can learn more about weird vocabulary” (Zaidatun/Q1/3026)

“In my opinion, the most effective way for understanding the intrinsic elements of a short story is by writing an essay about it. Because by writing an essay, I can understand the story easier.” (Lailatul/Q1/3014)

“By writing an essay, I can focus more on the intrinsic elements because I cannot just analyze a story without understanding it. If I make my own questions, I cannot understand the story in detail, because I will just answer the questions without analyzing it deeper.” (Cyndis/Q1/3004)

In contrast to the students who prefer to make an essay to comprehend a story, the students who are in favor of understanding intrinsic elements of prose fictions through making questions and answering them themselves (16%) believe that answering questions in the end of the passage is the most effective way to comprehend a fiction.

“In my opinion, the most effective way (for understanding the intrinsic elements of fictions) is by making questions. Before we make the questions, of course we have to understand the story.” (Nurul/Q2/3038)

“In my opinion, the most effective way is by making questions about the story. By making the questions, we will be able to understand the story, and look for every detail of the story to be questioned.” (Andika/Q2/3036)

**Analyzing Fictions in the Form Essay**

The students give various reasons about the benefits of understanding prose fictions through writing.
Table 2. Benefits of Analyzing Fictions in Essay

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Benefits</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Sharpen my ability to read and write</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>58%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Increase my critical thinking</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Increase my ability to express ideas in the</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>form of essay</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I can analyze the intrinsic elements better</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Improve my vocabulary</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows that more than half percent of the students believe that analyzing fictions in the form of an essay helps them to sharpen their ability to read and write (58%). Some of them think that it helps them to learn to write in terms of expressing ideas (20%) and increase their critical thinking ability (13%). Although very few of the students think that analyzing fictions enable them to understand better about the intrinsic elements of prose (6%) and improve the vocabulary (3%), undeniably, this type of activity help the students a lot for their reading ability.

What the Students’ Learn

The data was classified into two categories in terms of what they learn during a semester activity of analyzing fictions by writing them down in the form of essays. Those two categories are what they learn in terms of literary aspect, and what they learn in terms of writing aspect.

Literary Aspects

Most of the students’ writing reflect that analyzing prose fiction in the form of an essay, helps them to understand the intrinsic elements of a story, namely characterization, plot, setting, point of view and theme.

Table 3. Literary Aspects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Literary Aspect</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Intrinsic Elements</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>74%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Understanding the content of the story</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Moral Value</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Writing Aspects

Based on the data of the students’ self reflection essay, there are several writing aspects that the students wrote. The writing aspects are giving details and evidences based on the fictions they read, how to open an essay, and how to make thesis statement for the essay.
Table 4. *Writing Aspects*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing Aspect</th>
<th>Number of students</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Giving details, examples and evidences related to the main idea</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>52%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Write introductory paragraph for an essay</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Make thesis statement for an essay</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In terms of the writing aspects, the students said that analyzing fictions in the form of an essay enable them to learn how to give examples and details to support their argument (52%). They also wrote that they learn how to open a an essay (26%), while the rest of them state that they learn how to make thesis statement for an essay (22%).

Discussion

The finding shows that the majority of the students consider an essay to comprehend a fiction is an effective way (81%) to understand a story as compared to answering comprehension questions (16%) just like what they usually do in a reading class. They believe this type of activity help them to sharpen their reading and writing skill. The students said that through writing, they are able to comprehend the content of the story better and are able to learn how to express their ideas in written form. The finding of this research suggests integrating reading and writing, or vice versa, helps comprehension. The students who analyze the intrinsic elements of prose fiction in the form of an essay confess that they get better understanding rather than just answer the comprehension question. This finding is supported by Knipper & Duggan (2006) who state that integrating writing and reading helps comprehension. Furthermore, Wallace, Pearman, Hail & Hurst (2007) argue that reading and writing are interconnected and these skills should not be treated as a separate construct.

Wallace et all (2007) further suggest the difference between writing to learn and learning to write are evident. When the goal is learning to write, the focus of the teaching and learning process would be on the construction of words, sentences, and paragraph organization to form a meaningful discourse through the process of writing in which this type of activity might or might not be linked to content knowledge (Wallace et al, 2007). They further state that writing to learn, on the other hand, emphasizes writing for comprehension, which means that the students would not be able to write if they do not understand the text they read. According to Knipper & Duggan (2006) in the activity of writing for comprehension, the students infer, clarify, and questions particular points in the text to satisfy the curiosity. Taken into the context of the present study, the students, would not be able to write an analysis of the intrinsic elements if they did not understand the content of the story. Thus, to write for comprehension, they had to questions and clarify meanings. Therefore, it is understandable when they said that making an essay to analyze a fiction is the most effective way to understand a story.
The finding of this research also shows that when the students analyze a fiction in the form of an essay, it helps their critical thinking ability (13%), and helps them express ideas in written form (20%). According to Knipper & Duggan (2006), writing to learn strategy extends thinking and sharpen understanding because the students continuously engage with the text to infer meaning. Li & Yang (2014) introduces the term reading-to-write which is a model of integrating reading and writing course. The model puts great emphasize on student-centered learning atmosphere and authentic learning environment through making use of information resources, not only to construct meaning but also critical thinking.

In the prose fiction analysis, the students were assigned by the teacher to analyze a particular story, then put their analysis into an essay. To write the essay, sometimes, the students need additional information from other sources to strengthen their opinion. For example, when the students analyze the plot of the story, they might read additional information about plot, type of plot and type of conflicts to have a profound analysis of the story. This is in line to Li & Yang (2014) argument that in reading-to-write activity, the students have freedom to select topics and materials of their interest to support their ideas for their writing.

As the data shows, it cannot be denied that there are several benefits of analyzing a prose fiction in the form of an essay, in other words, using the reading-to-write model (Li & Yang, 2004) or writing to learn strategy or writing for comprehension (Wallace et al, 2007). Based on the data from the document analysis, some students said that they get new vocabulary from the stories they read. Seen from the theory of second language acquisition, as proposed by Dulay, Burt, & Krashen (1982), the language learners will be able to acquire the new language only if there is sufficient input which is comprehensible for them. When the students read the texts, in this case, the fictions, they will give their best effort to understand the content of the story. One of the challenges in comprehending literary texts as authentic materials is the vocabulary. If one or two important vocabulary are not understood, the students would not be able to understand the point of the story. Thus, whenever they found unfamiliar vocabulary, most likely, they would open their dictionary to find out its meaning or search for the meaning either online or using particular application in their gadget. Reading, undoubtedly, offers valuable input for the students in the target language. In relation to this, Krashen (1989) argues that mostly only by reading language learners may acquire their linguistic input, especially in vocabulary and spelling.

The second benefit of analyzing prose fictions in the form of an essay is the students can sharpen their critical thinking ability. To be able to make an analysis in the form of an essay, the students need to read critically, then to write critically. Critical thinking is a thinking skill to analyze and evaluate something which is self-directed, self-monitored, and self-disciplined (Paul & Elder, 2006). One way to promote the critical thinking skill is through writing. As stated by Schmidt (1999) writing is a tool to develop the critical thinking skill because when the students learn how to write, they also learn how to think. Because of that, writing and thinking are seen as interdependent process (Schmidt, 1999). And the third benefit is the students can learn how to write well based on the acceptable writing convention. As proposed by Schmidt (1999) writing and thinking is a synergetic process. Because it is interdependent, when the students learn to write, they have to learn how to make the writing intact and logical. To achieve this, the students need
to learn how to open the essay, how to present the thesis statement, how to organize their ideas, how to support evidence and details, and how to close their essay.

The exploration of students’ feelings and opinion in this study gives valuable information on strategies to teach reading, prose and writing. Therefore, the implications of this study are addressed to the reading lecturer, prose lecturer, and writing lecturer. Firstly, since the goal of teaching reading and prose is basically similar, which is comprehension, it is suggested that literary texts, especially fictions, should be utilized in the language classroom. The use of prose fictions can trigger the students’ critical thinking, enable the students to understand about themselves and others, to value differences, and to learn about one’s and other culture. Secondly, the strategy of teaching and learning of prose should consider the use of the strategy to write for comprehension. The ‘write’ strategy does not mean answer the questions in the end of the passage in the full sentence with correct grammar, but to literary write what they understood about the story, either in the form of a journal diary, summary, or essay to check the students comprehension about the story they read. In short, to understand the fiction, they students need to write for comprehension. This strategy is considered to be beneficial for the students since they can learn two skills at the same time. And finally, the writing instructors are suggested to utilize literary texts as the teaching materials because literary texts, especially fictions, are rich in values and content to be applied either for the purpose of learning to write or writing to learn. The students can learn to compare and contrast, give opinion, classify, retell events, describe characters of the fictions. Moreover, with the advancement of technology nowadays, many prose fictions with various genres are freely downloadable from the internet.

**Conclusion**

Based on the data, it can be concluded that the students have positive views on the use of essay to analyze the fictions in the prose class. Prose fictions analysis in the form of an essay certainly offer many benefits for the students as described from the data. It is however, cannot be seen as the most effective way to teach prose subject because further study needs to be conducted to find its effectiveness. As stated by DiPiro (2010) the students’ perception cannot be seen as the main evidence for learning effectiveness. Although it does provide a valuable information about particular strategies used in the classroom, it cannot be used as the main data to draw conclusion.

Thus, this research has some limitations. Firstly, the result of this present study cannot be used as generalization because the main goal is only to describe the phenomena based on document analysis. To make generalization, different research design should be used. Therefore, future research should find out the effectiveness of essay writing to improve the students comprehension as compared to other method, such answering comprehension questions. The second limitation of this study deals with the instruments of the study. This study used only documentation from students’ self reflection writing to find out the students’ perception. If this study should be replicated, future research needs to use more instruments to elicit an in-depth information about the students perceptions, such as by using interview. Thirdly, this study does not yield any results in terms of which aspects of writing that are affected by the use of fictions. Thus, future researchers need to investigate or explore which writing aspects are affected by the use of fictions seen from the content, organization, vocabulary, language, and mechanic. Future research needs
also to explore whether prose, either fiction or non fiction, benefits the language learners for learning to write.

All in all, the use of essay writing for prose analysis benefits language learners not only from the point of view of prose subjects, but also from the point of view writing course. The students can learn about fictions’ intrinsic elements, as well as the writing skills. Learners would get a lot of advantages from the activity when writing to learn or writing for comprehension is used in the language classroom.

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Challenges in Practicum: Views and Perceptions of EFL Pre-service Teachers towards Field Experience Skills in Real Classrooms

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Abstract
The purpose of this classroom action research was to investigate the perceptions of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) pre-service teachers towards the challenges they face in teaching experience during the practicum period. The participants were 35 Saudi EFL female pre-service teachers in the Educational Diploma Program (EDP) attending Teaching Practicum (1) Course in Taibah University, Saudi Arabia. A mixed method, which contains both quantitative and qualitative research design, was used to collect data. Research instruments comprised a perception opinionnaire designed to measure the perceptions of EFL pre-service teachers towards the challenges they face in teaching experience during the practicum. The results showed that EFL pre-service teachers considered the observation period during the Teaching Practicum (1) Course between moderately and extremely beneficial. The results of the perceptions of EFL pre-service teachers regarding classroom-teaching skills were between highly and moderately to low challenging. Additionally, their skills related to school environment indicated less challenging than skills related to classroom teaching experiences. The results of the open-ended question were divided into three meaningful and thoughtful categories to add much depth and understanding of the research problem. Some recommendations based on the results were derived. For example, EFL pre-service teachers needed further development in teaching experiences and skills related to classrooms and school setting. Furthermore, meetings, workshops, and/or small discussion sessions need to be conducted between all the stakeholders in the practicum to explore problems and anticipate possible solutions.

Keywords: challenges, perceptions, practicum, pre-service teachers, field experience

Introduction

Many colleges and universities in Saudi Arabia, as well as in other developed countries such as United States, United Kingdom, Canada and Australia, have developed teacher educational programs to enable pre-service teachers to receive teaching experiences and gain relevant knowledge before they go on to their actual teaching profession. Throughout this research, the term pre-service teachers will refer to those “students enrolled in university-based teacher education programs” (Singh & Han, 2010, p. 1300).

As stated by Depreli (2014) “since the 1990s, teacher educational programs have been a focus of criticisms, particularly with regard to how they balance theory and practice.” (p. 60)

The results of several studies (Liaw, 2012; Goff-Kfouri, 2013; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Wang & Clarke, 2014) have shown that many teacher educational programs are relatively ineffective in preparing pre-service teachers for classroom teaching. Such findings suggest that these programs might require improvement and that pre-service teachers should be more thoroughly assessed during the practicum period.

Moreover, Kabilan (2013) reports that critical reflections, in the context of teacher educational programs, including analyzing, reconsidering, and questioning challenges of the pre-service teachers in real classrooms setting are integral components of teachers’ learning and professional development.

Recently, researchers have shown an increased interest in the theme of teaching practicum. The practicum issue has received substantial critical attention and become an increasingly important area in teacher education to key stakeholders of teacher education such as student teachers, classroom teachers, university supervisors, and school administrators. Although these stakeholders have different roles to play, provide different inputs, and yet, are expected to have one output, i.e., effective teaching practicum training (Aquino, 2014).

Çelik (2008) concludes that because of the sensitive nature of practicum, it has received considerable research interests in recent decades. For example, the results of a study conducted by Burant and Kirby (2002) showed that early field experiences in teacher education remain problematic and might be challenged and reconfigured to better prepare pre-service teachers for teaching students in schools.

Recent evidence suggested by Mutlu (2014) indicates that there were serious concerns about practicum practices conducted in Turkey including classroom management, the place and duration of the practicum, regulations, inefficient feedback, and cooperation with faculty. Thus, a revision of those practices was needed and recommended.

Although some attempts have been carried out on practicum, few studies have investigated or explored the challenges that pre-service teachers are often found to face during the practicum period, which may be attributed to the ineffective aspects of practicum practices conducted in schools. For this reason, one possible way to eliminate the problems of pre-service teachers would be to improve the quality of practicum components of teacher education programs. In the hope that detection of the challenges may shed light on which aspects of practicum needs improvement,
the current action research aims to explore the EFL pre-service teachers’ views and perceptions towards the most challenges they face in real classrooms and school environment during the practicum period.

**Statement of the Problem**
Teacher educational programs have been always dealt with the recognition of qualified teachers in all subject areas. Although EFL teacher education shares these areas, two main characteristics distinguish this field from other areas. First, teaching English in Saudi schools has been a challenge in itself that makes it difficult for the pre-service teachers to accommodate with other issues in the practicum. Second, English language is seen as a barrier to effective communication with students and school personnel, which adds some burden to the EFL pre-service teachers during their practicum period.

As an instructor and a field experience supervisor, it was possible to notice the weaknesses of the EFL pre-service teachers during the Teaching Practicum (2) Course. They lack the essential skills and competences as teachers. They have problems in different teaching experiences and skills. During the 2-hours weekly meeting in Teaching Practicum (2), EFL pre-service teachers regularly expressed the challenges, difficulties, and the critical issues they faced in real classrooms regarding the subject areas and the teaching practicum skills.

Although they attend an eight-week period of observation in schools during the Teaching Practicum (1) Course, they still face difficulties when they enroll to Teaching Practicum (2) Course. Throughout their observation period, they are asked to attend classes, fill in a checklist assessing the real teacher’s performance, as well as, submit a final report based on their experiences to the course instructor. Actually, their observation helps them to acquire certain competencies, but are not enough to prepare them to take over their own classrooms. The construction and implementation of the observation period was not enough to upskill them with essential skills needed for real classrooms and school environment.

In response to this problem, the current action research was conducted in the purpose of exploring the EFL pre-service teachers’ views and perceptions towards the most challenges they face in real classrooms and school environment.

**Research Purposes**
The main purpose of this classroom action research is to explore the views of EFL pre-service teachers towards the instructional benefits they got during the eight-week observation period. Moreover, it aims to explore the EFL pre-service teachers’ views and perceptions towards the most challenges they face in real classrooms and school environment. Similarly, based on the results of the research, practical implications on Teaching Practicum (1 & 2) will be suggested and/or applied to fulfil the needs of the EFL pre-service teachers during the practicum period.

**Research Questions**
1. What are the views of the EFL female pre-service teachers towards the instructional benefits they get from the observation period during the Teaching Practicum (1)
Challenges in Practicum: Views and Perceptions of EFL Pre-Service

Course?
2. What are the perceptions of the EFL female pre-service teachers towards the challenges they face in teaching experience during the Teaching Practicum (2) Course?
3. What are the views of the EFL female pre-service teachers towards the appropriate opportunities for future professional improvement?

Literature Review

1. Early Field Experience (Teaching Practicum) Framework and Context

   Beyond doubt the field experience is a vital part of pre-service teachers’ education, because for pre-service teachers, it is the first transition to real field of teaching. Manzar-Abbas and Lu (2013) add that pre-service teachers value the practicum period because it works as an interface between their studentship and a prospective profession and strongly influences their ideas about teachers’ roles. According to Manzar-Abbas and Lu (2013), the purpose of teaching practicum courses is to make the prospective teachers a reflective professional in addition to provide them with a practical field to apply the theoretical and experiential knowledge through the courses.

   From the early 2014, pre-service teachers in Taibah University have been trained through an Educational Diploma Program (EDP) offered by the College of Education. This program prepares Saudi teachers to teach several subject areas at the intermediate, and secondary levels in public schools. Graduates are awarded a Diploma degree in Education.

   Over the course of one-year, prospective teachers are exposed to (a) 26-credit hours of basic education courses to fulfill college requirements including: research skills, psychology, school leadership, educational technology, teaching methods, curriculum, educational evaluation, professional development, and classroom environment; (b) 10-credit hours for teaching practicum courses including Teaching Practicum (1 & 2). The EDP consists of 12 courses that distributed over two semesters. It is noteworthy that the total number of the credit hours and courses in each semester may vary from one Saudi University to another.

   The EDP involves only one theoretical course in methodology entitles Methods of Teaching (by field of specialization) that comes under the College requirements. The practical methodology courses are Teaching Practicum (1) that is tagged on in the first semester and the Teaching Practicum (2) which is placed in the second semester of the EDP. The three courses in methodology accumulate twelve credit hours with a 33.3% of the total courses.

   Regularly, pre-service teachers attend an eight-week period of observation in schools during the Teaching Practicum (1) Course with a total attendance of 28 to 32 classes, while in Teaching Practicum (2), they attend four schooling days per week for the whole semester.

2. Challenges during the Practicum

   Not only must the pre-service teachers prove they master their subject matter, but they must also show competence in other teaching field experience skills such as classroom management, methodology, and assessment. Thus, when a pre-service teacher decides to take “teaching” as a profession, further problems, difficulties, and challenges appear. For some pre-service teachers, attending the practicum can be dreadful especially when they face challenges in coping
themselves with the new environment. Additionally, Yunus, Hashim, Ishak, and Mahamod (2010) report that all the challenges that the pre-service teachers had to deal with were due to their desires to become professional teachers.

Several studies have documented the challenges that faced the EFL pre-service teachers and might affect their professional performance during the early field experience. A study conducted by Çelik (2008) offers probably the most comprehensive analysis of 133 Turkish pre-service teachers’ concerns and stressful experiences. The results of a 40-item questionnaire indicated that the potential stress areas were analyzed under six categories: personal, communication-centered, evaluation-based, external, lesson preparation, and teaching related. These stress areas were considered challenges to practicum.

A seminal study in this area is the work of Sarıçoban (2010) which aimed to display the possible problematic cases that occur in public primary and secondary schools with special reference to the use of materials, equipment, course-books, students’ profile, curriculum, and the classroom environment. The results showed that there were still some problems that should be taken into consideration in designing teacher educational programs. These are; (a) lack of support in terms of materials and equipment, (b) problems resulting from the course book, (c) problems resulting from the curriculum, and (e) problems resulting from the classroom environment.

Likewise, Yunus et al. (2010) examined Teaching English as Second Language (TESL) pre-service teachers’ teaching experiences and challenges with school administrators, mentor, supervisor, as well as teaching and learning process. A total of 38 Malaysian pre-service teachers who had completed their two months teaching practicum in various schools responded to a set of open-ended questions. The results showed that the challenges were confined to the students’ attitudes towards the pre-service teachers, students’ motivation, students’ discipline, and support system.

A recent comparative study was carried out by Manzar-Abbas and Lu (2013) where the researchers analyze the practicum program offered in Chinese teacher education institutions as compared with ten universities from different countries in the world. The results report three basic issues and challenges; the duration, timing, and mode of practicum. The researchers identify that the time allocated to practicum experiences in China is too short; the timing for sending pre-service teachers to the field (schools) is inappropriate, and the mode of practicum adopted is outdated. Accordingly, two main recommendations are derived; (a) the time for practicum experiences should be expanded, and (b) the practicum should be integrated throughout the program.

Moreover, the analysis of a recent study reported by Wang and Clarke (2014) highlight two related issues: the difficulties faced by reform efforts in China and the disjuncture between school and university expectations for practicum students in light of these initiatives.

Generally, it is obvious that pre-service teachers face several challenges as they attempt to achieve excellence in their career. For this reason, this action research was held to address a number of challenges with reference to Saudi EFL female pre-service teachers in the EDP.
Specifically, the aims were to closely explore the challenges related to classroom teaching experiences and school environment and propose areas of improvement to the current EDP in Taibah University.

**Methods**
In the field of in-service education and professional self-evaluation, as stated by Carr and Kemmis (2003), the teacher as researchers “are asked to conduct action research in their classrooms in the purpose of enhancing learning-teaching process in the classroom environment” (p. 1).

In line with this fundamental purpose, action research was used in the current study that benefited from a mixed method which contains both quantitative and qualitative research design.

**Participants**
The research sample was 35 Saudi EFL female pre-service teachers enrolled in the EDP at Taibah University. They enrolled in the Teaching Practicum (1) Course during the 2016 academic year.

**Instrumentation and Data Collection**
The researcher developed a perception opinionnaire, as a research instrument, to collect data from the EFL pre-service teachers regarding the challenges they faced in the teaching field experience. The perception opinionnaire consisted of three parts. The first part consists of one main question to collect data related to EFL pre-service teachers’ general views of the instructional benefits they got during the eight-week observation period. The question was rated on a 3-point Likert scale as follows: extremely beneficial; moderately beneficial; and no benefits at all.

The second part included 15 items related to EFL pre-service teachers’ perceptions towards the challenges they face in the teaching field experience in real classrooms. Eleven items were categorized under the dimension “skills related to classroom teaching experiences” and four items were classified under the dimension “skills related to school environment”. The participants were allowed to select as many items as they represent their challenges in the teaching field experience.

The last part of the perception opinionnaire offered an open-ended question aims to provide a greater depth of insight about future opportunities for professional improvement by asking the EFL pre-service teachers about the topics that they prefer to focus (strongly) on during the Teaching Practicum (2) Course.

Three experts from the field of curriculum and instruction checked the perception opinionnaire as a research instrument and subsequently it was adjusted according to their suggestions. For data collection, the perception opinionnaire was distributed to 35 EFL female pre-service teachers who enrolled in Teaching Practicum (1) Course in the 2016 academic year.

**Data Analysis**
Quantitative findings from the perception opinionnaire were analyzed descriptively. Frequencies and percentages of the participants’ responses were computed for the first and second questions. Then, all the scores were ranked from the higher values to the lower ones. For the open-ended question, three major categories were formed to place participants’ responses. Details about future opportunities for professional development will be derived.
Challenges in Practicum: Views and Perceptions of EFL Pre-Service Alamri

Results

To answer the first research question, descriptive statistical tests (frequencies and percentages) of data collected from the first part of the perception opinionnaire with regard to EFL pre-service teachers’ views on the instructional benefits they obtained from the observation period (Table 1).

Table 1. Frequencies & Percentages of EFL Pre-service Teachers’ Views towards the Benefits of the Observation Period

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moderately beneficial</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extremely beneficial</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>45.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No benefits at all</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After calculating the frequencies and percentages of the responses of the participants, it appears that EFL pre-service teachers considered the observation period during the Teaching Practicum (1) Course is moderately beneficial (51.4%). The results also indicated that (45.9%) of the EFL pre-service teachers found the observation period is extremely beneficial, while only (2.9%) expressed their negative views about its benefits.

In order to answer the second research question, descriptive statistical tests (frequencies and percentages) of data collected from the second part of the perception opinionnaire with regard to their perceptions of the challenges they face in the teaching field experiences during the observation period (Table 2).

Table 2. Frequencies, Percentages & Ranks of the Perceptions of the EFL Pre-service Teachers towards the most Challenges in the Teaching Field Experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Teaching experiences</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Rank</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills related to classroom teaching experiences</td>
<td>Selecting appropriate teaching method to the content.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Applying fitting assessment technique to the content.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing classroom efficiently.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Managing allocated lesson time.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preparing activities and exercises associated with the lesson.</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Preparing quizzes.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Challenges in Practicum: Views and Perceptions of EFL Pre-Service 

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills related to school environment</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparing daily lesson planning.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Designing suitable teaching aids.</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching in real classroom.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deriving intended learning outcomes (ILOs) of the lesson.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenting the lessons.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with the teaching load.</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with the school administration staff.</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compatibility with real classroom’s teacher.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Commitment to school system.</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As shown in Table 2, the EFL pre-service teachers indicated that their perception towards the most challenging skills in the teaching field experiences during their observation period that require course teacher’s considerations. Based on the skills related to classroom teaching skills, the participants rated some teaching skills as highly challenging (50 % & more) such as: selecting appropriate teaching method to the content (65.7%), applying fitting assessment technique to the content and managing classroom efficiently (62.9%), managing allocated lesson time (60%), preparing activities and exercises associated with the lesson (57.1%), and preparing quizzes (54.3%). These teaching experiences were ranked from 1 to 6 respectively.

Moreover, the EFL pre-service teachers rated the following items as moderately to low challenging (49 % & less) such as preparing daily lesson planning and designing suitable teaching aids (40%), teaching in real classroom (34.3%), deriving ILOs of the lesson (28.6%), and presenting the lessons (8.6%). These teaching experiences were ranked from 7 to 11 respectively.

Regarding the skills related to school environment skills, the participants rated them much less challenging such as: dealing with the teaching load and dealing with the school administration staff (22.9%), compatibility with real classroom’s teacher (20%), and commitment to school system (8.6%). These school environment skills were ranked from 1 to 4 respectively.

The results of the open-ended question regarding asking the EFL pre-service teachers about the teaching experiences that they want to focus (strongly) on during Teaching Practicum (2) Course were presented in Table 3.

**Table 3. Frequencies of the Responses to the Open-ended Question**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly required teaching experiences</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Preparing daily lesson planning.</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Presenting the lessons.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Preparing quizzes.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Challenges in Practicum: Views and Perceptions of EFL Pre-Service Teachers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New recommended teaching experiences</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with the special needs students.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dealing with the school principal as an educational leader.</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Other challenges &amp; suggestions to be considered</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Distributing the week to 3 continuous days for practicum &amp; 2 days for the university courses.</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The difficulty to manage between practicum period responsibilities and requirements of other courses.</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The necessity to change the summative assessment techniques in their diploma courses from final tests to other authentic tasks.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Selecting either writing the report or filling the observational sheets during the observation period.</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decreasing the observation period from 8 weeks to 2 continuous weeks for 4 days per week with a total of 32 periods.</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

After analyzing participants’ written responses, the researcher divided them into three categories that give much details about future opportunities for improvement. The categories are strongly required teaching experiences, new recommended teaching experiences, and other challenges and suggestions to be considered during the Teaching Practicum Courses. With respect to the strongly required teaching experiences, preparing daily lesson planning (N=6), as well as, presenting the lessons and preparing quizzes (N=5) were strongly recommended by the EFL pre-service teachers. While the teaching experiences: selecting appropriate teaching method to the content, applying fitting assessment technique to the content, preparing activities associated with the lesson, designing suitable teaching aids, and dealing with the teaching load indicated the same responses (N=4). Regarding managing allocated lesson time and managing classroom efficiently, only three EFL pre-service teachers stated to be considered (N=3). Finally, commitment to school system (N=2) and dealing with the school administration staff (N=1) were rated as the least required teaching experiences to be focused on. On the other hand, all of the participants indicated their sufficient practice in the following teaching experiences: teaching in real classroom, deriving ILOs of the lesson, and compatibility with real classroom’s teacher.
Furthermore, the EFL pre-service teachers suggested adding two new recommended teaching experiences which are included in the course item: dealing with the special needs students (N=3) and dealing with the school principal as an educational leader (N=2).

The participants also allocated some other challenges and suggestions that should be considered by the instructor of the Teaching Practicum (1 & 2) Courses. They suggested distributing the five-day workweek to three continuous days for practicum and two days for the other EDP courses (N=17). In addition, they identified their challenge to manage between practicum period responsibilities and requirements of other courses (N=9). Additionally, the EFL pre-service teachers stated the necessity to change the summative assessment techniques from final tests to other authentic tasks (N=5). As a matter of fact, they asked for using either writing the final report or filling the observational sheets during the Teaching Practicum (1) Course. Finally, they suggested decreasing the observation period from eight weeks to one or two continuous weeks for obtaining more benefits.

Discussions
The researcher found that EFL pre-service teachers obtained some benefits from the observation period. They gained certain skills such as being in real classroom, monitoring EFL teachers in real setting, getting acquainted to students, and acquiring some knowledge about teaching styles that they may expand their opportunity to practice higher level of teaching skills. Moreover, this result seems to be consistent with the idea of Price (1998) that normally the pre-service teachers may feel more secure to be in a real classroom with an experienced teacher for a few meetings before practicing teaching alone.

Based on the results of the calculated frequencies and percentages, the EFL pre-service teachers indicated that their perception towards the most highly challenging skills in the teaching field experiences that require urgent attention is selecting appropriate teaching method to the content. An interpretation of this finding may rely on the EFL pre-service teachers’ confidence on the necessity to be well-knowledgeable teachers and have the ability to be selective and elective teachers. They may find selecting appropriate teaching methods a difficult skill to acquire through observation. Such a skill requires training and practicing.

According to the above results, the challenging teaching skills come in the second place with equal percentage are: applying fitting assessment technique to the content and managing classroom efficiently. It could be the reason beyond this result is the nature of assessment in general as a critical issue for all teachers. Furthermore, the majority of teachers prefer to use the traditional assessment techniques such as tests, exams, and traditional home assignments. Likewise, the lack of knowledge in designing and implementing authentic assessment techniques might be a challenge for EFL pre-service teachers. Similarly, what may increase the difficulty of constructing and implementing assessment techniques is the necessity to be aligned with the ILOs of the lesson (Biggs & Tang, 2011). For difficulty managing the classroom, the results of some studies (Ababneh, 2012; Dicke, Elling, Schmeck, & Leutner, 2015) indicated that novice teachers perceive student discipline as their most serious teaching challenge. Additionally, classroom management is a multi-skill as it includes procedures for: (a) grouping students for different types
of classroom activities, (b) using well-organized lesson plans, and (c) managing students’ behavior that require more experience than the EFL pre-service teachers have. As well, the participants realized that they were not skillful enough to help learners be highly motivated, flexible, creative, and be able to adjust their behavior.

With respect to the results of the current research, the EFL pre-service teachers described managing allocated lesson time as a highly challenging skill. What supervisors always keep alerting pre-service teachers is considering effective time management skills. They seem facing difficulties to accurately estimating how much time each element of the lesson, in-class activities, or any instructional components will take. Pre-service teachers need thorough training and practicing to acquire time management skill. This finding is in agreement with Collins’s (1990) when he stated that time management requires well-prepared and organized lesson plan by a skillful teacher and is still considered a challenge to schoolteachers.

Additionally, the participants expressed their perception towards preparing activities and exercises associated with the lesson as highly challenging teaching skills. This result may be explained by the fact that observation period focuses only on allowing pre-service teachers to live in a real-world setting without propping them in further details of procedures in the design phases of activities, exercises, and/or quizzes. Actually, the real in-service teachers are not authorized to set up discussion sessions, reflect on, or share experiences with pre-service teachers outside the classroom setting. Besides, it seems that the learning and monitoring processes during the observation period are basically theoretical in nature.

One unanticipated finding was that the EFL pre-service teachers indicated less difficulty and challenge regarding preparing daily lesson planning as well designing suitable teaching aids that were equal in parentage. A possible explanation for this might be that most of EFL pre-service teachers usually rely heavily on using the ready-prepared lesson planning with explanation of the needed teaching aids that found on the internet. For this reason, it seems acceptable that they did not consider it highly challenging teaching skills.

For the last three less challenging teaching skills, it appears that EFL pre-service teachers feel much secure to teach in real classroom and presenting the lessons to the students after a long observation period. As one of the requirements of Teaching Practicum (1) Course, pre-service teachers should spend one schooling day per week for eight-week period with a total attendance of 28 to 32 classes. It gives reasonable impression that the EFL pre-service teachers get use to the classroom and school environment and how teachers manage being dealing with content and students. The field experience in itself does not appear new or shocking. On the other hand, the EFL pre-service teachers indicated that the skill of deriving ILOs of the lesson is less challenging for them. Actually, the reason beyond that is due to the ready-prepared lesson planning that found on the internet, which in turn, makes it easy for them to copy them without having any rationale framework and methods for writing ILOs. While based on the researcher’s experience during Teaching Practicum (2) Course, pre-service teachers showed weak levels and unacceptable performance in writing ILOs. Moreover, they usually spend more time than expected to gain understanding of how to derive ILOs for each lesson or topic.
Although the challenges during their teaching practicum which were reported in the previous studies varies in nature and existence, the results of the current action research seem in line with those of Çelik (2008), Sarıçoban (2010), Yunus et al. (2010), Manzar-Abbas and Lu (2013), and Wang and Clarke (2014) in shedding some light on critical challenges associated with teacher education.

Opportunities for Performance Improvement
This section presents the results of the open-ended question exploring the EFL pre-service teachers’ views towards the appropriate opportunities for future professional improvement in both courses Teaching Practicum (1 & 2). The results of the open-ended question gave deep insights and understanding of the challenging teaching skills that the EFL pre-service teachers still need some reflections on, as well as, further attention in teaching them. The results of the thematic analysis together with the frequencies related to the formed categories showed that the EFL pre-service teachers strongly need the following teaching skills and experiences to be the focus of the Teaching Practicum (2) Course:

1. Preparing daily lesson planning.
2. Presenting the lessons.
3. Preparing quizzes.
4. Selecting appropriate teaching method to the content.
5. Applying fitting assessment technique to the content.
6. Preparing activities and exercises associated with the lesson.
7. Designing suitable teaching aids.
8. Dealing with the teaching load.
10. Managing classroom efficiently.
11. Commitment to school system.
12. Dealing with the school administration staff.

Although many EFL pre-service teachers asserted that the observation period taught them a lot in preparation for their future career as in Table 2, a number of them also admitted their needs for teaching skills and experiences related to the classroom and school environment. The order of the most required skills seems logical and refers to the insufficient knowledge even though the amount of time spent on the observation period. Not only this, but also the EFL pre-service teachers suggested adding the following skills to the Teaching Practicum Courses:

1. Dealing with the special needs students.
2. Dealing with the school principal regarding the new role as an educational leader.

These skills were recommended based on their observation. The EFL pre-service teachers realized that the topics in the Teaching Practicum (2) Course do not cover item one while partially deals with item two. In the list of topics, nothing was included dealing with integrating students with special needs into regular classes. This recommendation reflects their high sense of responsibility and attention. Additionally, the second recommendation has been included as a topic in Teaching Practicum (1) Course but might be there are some new responsibilities of the school principal after changing the current position title to educational leader that are not explicated to the EDP managers.
Moreover, the results of the open-ended question explored further challenges and suggestions tended to improve both Teaching Practicum Courses. These challenges and suggestions are:

1. Distributing the week to three continuous days for practicum in the field and two days for the University courses due to the difficulty to manage between practicum period responsibilities and requirements of other courses.
2. The necessity to change the summative assessment techniques in their EDP courses from final tests to other authentic tasks.
3. Selecting either writing the final report or filling the observational sheets during the Teaching Practicum (1) Course.
4. Decreasing the observation period from eight weeks to two continuous weeks for four days per week with a total of thirty-two classes.

Based on the results of the open-ended question, it seems that the EFL pre-service teachers are facing other challenges were not included in the opinionnaire. As one can notice, the first and second challenges are related to Teaching Practicum (2) Course where students are asked to spend four days per week in the schools for teaching from 7:00 AM to 1:00 PM, then, they continue their afternoon classes from 4:00 PM to 9:45 PM. Hence, their suggestion for this challenge is to split the week into two periods: three days for field experience in schools and two days for the on-site classrooms in the University. As they indicated, such possible changes enable them to manage effectively all the responsibilities and requirements of the EDP courses.

On the other hand, the rest of challenges are related to Teaching Practicum (1) Course regarding assessment techniques, requirements of observation period, and time allocated for the observation. The EFL pre-service teachers appear uncomfortable with the final test as a summative assessment technique. The reason beyond that might be due to time deficiency to study for final tests, as well as, the practicality nature of both courses makes it possible to integrate various authentic assessment techniques. Moreover, it seems reasonable suggestion to present either a final report or an observation sheet as assessment methods due to the multi tasks required for other EDP courses. Their final suggestion regarding decreasing the observation period from eight weeks to two continuous weeks seems reasonable as it enables them to observe and at the same time manage other courses.

Conclusions
This action research aimed at exploring the views of EFL pre-service teachers towards the instructional benefits they got during the eight-week observation period. Moreover, it aimed to explore their perceptions towards the most challenges they face in teaching experience during the practicum period in real classrooms. Likewise, this research attempted to handle these challenges by suggesting some modifications for the Teaching Practicum (1) Course and implementing others to Teaching Practicum (2) Course.

The results indicated that EFL pre-service teachers considered the observation period during the Teaching Practicum (1) Course between moderately and extremely beneficial. The
results of the perceptions of EFL pre-service teachers regarding classroom teaching skills were between highly and moderately to low challenging. As well, their school environment skills indicated much less challenging than teaching skills. The results of the open-ended question were divided in three meaningful and thoughtful categories to add much depth and understanding of the research problem.

As an academic in the EDP, the researcher will teach the Teaching Practicum (2) Course based on the suggestions of the EFL pre-service teachers, besides, both suggested new topics will be integrated in the course. In addition, the researcher plans to set up department-wide discussions to share ideas about the need to understand the effective implantation of observation period in Teaching Practicum (1) Course and reconstruct its policies, requirements, and procedures to pass the course.

This combination of findings provides some support for the conceptual premise that practicum supervisors have important roles in meeting the basic needs of the pre-service teachers. They have to attend classes with the pre-service teachers and monitor together the performance and practices of the real teachers during the observation period, then, construct focused groups to discuss comments, and finally, provide them with constructive feedback. Moreover, the supervisors should encourage the pre-service teachers to be reflective on the observed practices, explore their beliefs, and find solutions to their own problems. Therefore, they need to establish appropriate settings for communication with the pre-service teachers in order to make them feel secure enough to consult them about any problematic issues or situations.

Implications for Future Practice

As the researcher will teach Teaching Practicum (2) Course, the following implications will be considered:

1. Introducing the course topics regarding the most required skills to support knowledge building and field practices.
2. Preparing the suggested topics with relevant references and materials.
3. Conducting workshops and focus groups to discuss, revise, and practice challenging teaching skills or any critical issues.
4. Setting microteaching classes to facilitate practicing successful teaching skills.
5. Implementing peer and self-assessment techniques while using workshops, focus groups, and/or microteaching as part of the course requirements.

Regarding the suggestions, the researcher plans to propose for department-wide discussions to share ideas about the effective implantation of observation period in Teaching Practicum 1 Course and reconstruct its policies, requirements, and procedures to pass the course. For example, the supervisor is required to:

1. Attend classes with the pre-service teachers during the observation period.
2. Construct focus groups to discuss all their comments, beliefs, and questions, then, provide them with constructive feedback.
3. Establish appropriate settings for communication with the pre-service teachers in order to feel secure enough to ask about any issues.
Further improvements at the program level could be proposed to the University Permanent Committee of Curricula and Academic Accreditation (PCCAA) such as:

1. Splitting the students’ week in the Teaching Practicum (2) Course into: three days for the field experience and two days for the University classrooms.
2. Revising the course specification of Teaching Practicum (1) Course and implement any further modifications in the suggested assessment techniques.
3. Modifying the requirements in the course plan to be either submitting a final report or filling every period-checklist as tasks during the observation.

Limitations

However, this action research still had several weaknesses. For instance, the number of the research population is limited. This limitation is due to the small number of EFL pre-service teachers who enrolled in the EDP during the 2015-2016 academic year. Moreover, one of juries’ comment is using an opinionnaire, as a research instrument, is still not strong enough to provide indicators of potential problems and point to possible ways in which performance might be improved. Therefore, the results are not highly accurate and do not provide critical organizational decisions based on them. The researcher tried to resolve this problem by adding one open-ended question to elicit as much data as possible.

Recommendations

Results of the action research indicate that EFL pre-service teachers need further development in teaching experiences and skills related to classrooms and school setting. The results also signify the importance of reviewing the EDP and the specifications of its courses in Taibah University. Furthermore, meetings, workshops, and/or small discussion sessions need to be conducted between school personnel, supervisors, University instructors, EDP manager, and pre-service teachers to explore critical issues and anticipate possible solutions.

Some Suggestions for Future Research on Practicum

In this action research and based on the limitations and results, the researcher suggests the following research areas:

1. Further studies may investigate other problems facing EFL male pre-service teachers in the EDP related to practicum.
2. Researchers may be interested in investigating the role of schools and university supervisors from students’ perspectives.
3. Researchers may apply a wide-scale vision through an evaluation of the practicum in college of education at Taibah University.
4. A study about Saudi EFL pre-service teachers’ beliefs about practicum may be insightful and shed light in some other factors related to teacher education.

About the Autor:

Hayat Alamri is an EFL Assistant Professor in Taibah University, KSA. She has achieved the status of Senior Fellow of the Higher Education Academy in 2016. She has a long teaching experience for university students. She has contributed some research articles in refereed world journals and participated in conferences, workshops and symposia.
Challenges in Practicum: Views and Perceptions of EFL Pre-Service Alamri

References


Challenges in Practicum: Views and Perceptions of EFL Pre-Service


Appendix A: Student’s Opinionnaire

**Dear Student**

Based on your recent experience in observing teaching experience in real EFL classroom, please respond to the following questions clearly.

1. Did you find the observation period beneficial?
   - Extremely Beneficial ☐
   - Moderately Beneficial ☐
   - No Benefits at All ☐

2. Identify the most prominent Challenges that may affect your involvement in the field training process soon through the following choices:
   - Deriving instructional objectives of the lesson. ☐
   - Preparing daily lesson planning. ☐
   - Preparing activities and exercises associated with the lesson. ☐
   - Selecting appropriate teaching method to the content. ☐
   - Designing suitable teaching aids. ☐
   - Applying fitting assessment technique to the content. ☐
   - Preparing quizzes. ☐
   - Teaching in real classroom. ☐
   - Presenting the lessons. ☐
   - Managing allocated lesson time. ☐
   - Managing classroom efficiently. ☐
   - Dealing with the teaching load. ☐
   - Compatibility with real classroom’s teacher. ☐
   - Commitment to various school systems. ☐
   - Dealing with the school administration staff. ☐

You may tick ☑ more than one choice that match your point of view.
3. **What are the topics you want to focus on (strongly) during Practicum 2 Course?**

- ........................................................................................................................................
- ........................................................................................................................................
- ........................................................................................................................................
- ........................................................................................................................................
- ........................................................................................................................................
- ........................................................................................................................................

Thank you
Identifying Training Needs of In-Service EFL Teachers in Inclusive Schools in Egypt

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Abstract
With the implementation of inclusion in public schools in Egypt, there are demands for improving the professional development programs provided to in-service teachers concerning inclusive education. To that end, this mixed methods study aimed to identify the needs and preferences of English as a Foreign Language teachers regarding working with special-need students. The study also sought to explore the relationship between participants’ profile and their needs. Two hundred eighteen in-service teachers at primary schools in Egypt were selected by cluster sampling method to participate in a need assessment questionnaire while eight were interviewed. Participants reported lack of training in inclusive education, large class size, negative attitudes, shortage of time, heavy workload, and unfamiliarity with necessary strategies as barriers to inclusion. In addition, participants prioritized their needs for identification of language disorders, teaching methods, individualized instruction through curriculum adaptation and Individualized Educational Plans, and controlling behavioral problems. There were significant differences in participants’ needs based on age, years of experience and qualifications. The teachers preferred face-to-face workshops, mentor-supported learning and project-based learning besides morning sessions in weekdays. Recommendations for professional development programs and future research were provided.

Keywords: EFL teachers, inclusion, in-service, needs assessment, professional development, special educational needs

1. Introduction

With moves towards inclusion, new roles of teachers and administrators emerge and necessitate the design of up-to-date professional development (PD) programs to satisfy the needs of Special Educational Needs (SEN) students. According to Lasaten, Pacis and Villanueva (2014), teachers need six areas for professional improvement when dealing with SEN students: characteristics of disable students, formal and informal assessment, teaching strategies, individualized curriculum and instruction, direct follow-up and referrals among service providers, and use of instructional resources. To plan PD programs that address participants’ needs and goals, needs assessment should be conducted as a preliminary stage for collecting data. There are many techniques for identifying needs such as observations, testing, interviews, analysis of existing data, and questionnaires. When choosing the needs assessment method, some elements should be considered like the purpose, scope (time, population, content), method (general/specific), and degree of sustainability to the profession. Needs analysis is not conducted to provide solutions; but to identify gaps and reasons and inform the stakeholders and policy makers with contextualized guidelines to create appropriate PD programs (Koç, Demirbilek & Yılmaz İnce, 2015).

1.1. Background and aims of the study

Through working as a former teacher in Ministry of Education (MoE) in primary schools and as a current teacher trainer in the Professional Academy for Teachers (PAT) in Egypt, the researcher found that English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers in public schools face challenges related to teaching SEN students. In addition, PD programs regarding inclusive education in Egypt are static, theoretical and not specific to teaching foreign languages. Therefore, the present study examined the PD needs of EFL teachers to effectively teach SEN students in inclusive classes in Egypt. The study also sought to specify teachers’ preferences of future training programs and investigate the relationship between participants’ profile and their needs.

1.2. Questions

The study examined these questions:

1. What are the professional needs of in-service EFL teachers in inclusive classrooms?
2. What are the preferences of in-service EFL teachers on methods, duration and time of future PD programs?
3. Do professional needs of in-service EFL teachers vary in terms of age, gender, experience, prior training and qualifications?

1.3. Study design

This is a mixed methods research; where qualitative and quantitative data collection instruments were used to gather numerical and descriptive information. Semi-structured interviews and a need assessment questionnaire were designed to explore the needs of EFL teachers in inclusive classes. Participants were selected by cluster sampling method to include EFL teachers in public primary schools in Gharbia governorate in Egypt.
1.4. Significance of the study

Findings will be beneficial to program designers in MoE and PAT to design new programs or tailor existing ones to meet the needs of in-service, novice or prospective teachers in inclusive schools. In addition, most of the research about inclusive education was conducted in western countries while few is done in Arab countries. Consequently, this study will expand on related research and fill this gap in literature concerning inclusive practices. Educators and decision makers are expected to make necessary adaptations in curriculum, and PD and teacher education programs to improve the quality of education provided to SEN students.

2. Literature Review
2.1. Inclusion of SEN students

Smith et al. (2016) argue that inclusive education is a philosophy and a practice. Inclusion means that SEN students added to the group rather than excluded if proper services are provided in general education schools. Parnell (2017, p.3) defines inclusive education as “the capacity of an education system to provide the academic and behavioral support needed for all students, regardless of disability or difference (i.e., gender, ethnicity, location, language), to participate and succeed in the academic, social, and extra-curricular activities of the school alongside their peers”. By doing this, students’ participation and social interaction in the school community and curricula will increase and the value of acceptance of differences and tolerance will be perceived as a virtue. In addition, problems will be dissolved, costs of segregated education will decrease, instructional practices will improve, and students’ achievement and graduation rates might increase. Likewise, Amr (2011) states that SEN students can develop friendships and gain appreciation from peers and teachers which will help in boosting their self-esteem and motivation. Encouraging peer modeling and collaborative practices contribute to the improvement of students’ academic as well as behavioral skills.

Different terms were used synonymously to refer to SEN students like “exceptional children”, “disabled” and “handicapped”. Special educational needs are defined in the Education for Persons with Special Educational Needs (EPSEN) Act as a limitation of a person’s capacity to actively engage and make use of education due to a permanent physical, sensory, mental health, learning disability, or learning difficulty (NCSE, 2014). The term “special education” refers to the science specialized in diagnosis and assessing exceptional students to provide individualized instruction and programs that suit their needs (Rousan, 1998). Abdallah (2015) states that special education addresses students’ individual needs by providing personalized planning and guided arrangement of instruction, materials, and interventions to help learners receive better learning in regular classrooms.

Therefore, SEN students should have difficulties in listening, reading, mathematics, writing, handwriting and spelling. SEN students might have academic and language problems that affect their language comprehension and production. Students with special needs have primary deficit in reading and writing as they often exhibit difficulties in one of these areas: primary reading
skills, reading fluency, reading comprehension, written expressions, oral expressions, and listening. Reading difficulties encompasses inability to process phonological aspects (e.g. decoding) or problems in comprehension (e.g. difficulty in understanding main ideas or making inferences). Writing difficulties occur as a result of failing to combine content knowledge writing and physical skills. Dysgraphia happens when students reverse letters, write words backwards, irregularly write sizes and shapes, or unable to finish letters. SEN students might also delete words and punctuation or use inaccurate verbs or pronouns and word endings (Smith et al., 2016).

In this study, special educational needs are exclusive to students included in public schools and suffer from mild disabilities specified by the Egyptian Ministerial Decree of (No.252/2017) with emotional and behavioral problems, medical problems, and learning disabilities. Gifted students are out of the scope of the present study.

**2.2. Inclusive Education in Egypt**

Since the Salamanca Statement and Framework for action in 1994, inclusion has been a global trend aiming at providing a high-quality education for all students. In the Arab region, inclusion is newly implemented in education to include students with special impairments and disabilities in mainstream schools. Egypt was among the countries that approved the Convention on the Rights of Persons with Disabilities (2006) to make inclusive education a right for all SEN students (UNCRPD, 2006).

The first Ministerial decree (No. 42) for including SEN students in public schools in Egypt was issued in 2008. By this decree: a) students with mild disabilities can join schools that are prepared to receive those students, b) a committee for policy making of inclusion in the MoE was formed, and c) the Egyptian MoE mandated the admission of students with mild disabilities in public and private schools. This decree was updated in 2015 by specifying the types of disabilities that are eligible for enrollment in schools. The disabilities encompass: Pupils with vision disabilities, hearing disabilities, mobility and physical disabilities including moderate cerebral palsy, and minor mental disabilities (slow learning and autism). In 2017, a ministerial decree (No. 252) mandated that specific arrangements and facilities should be provided to SEN students in exams. It also specified the number of students with disabilities in each class (no more than four students of the same disability). Nevertheless, no laws has been passed concerning monitoring the implementation of inclusion in public schools in Egypt. Nowadays, there is a discussion on adding a law about rights of disable people to the constitution.

According to the Egyptian MoE statistics (2017), the number of SEN students all over Egypt was 17,229. In Gharbia governorate there were 1344 students with disabilities; wherein mental retardation was the highest disability 71.8% followed by physical impairment 6.7%,
hearing impairment 6.5%, autism 6.2%, visual impairment 4.43%, cerebral palsy 2.26, and Down Syndrome 1.9%.

However, Egypt is still struggling to provide high-quality inclusive education and equal education to marginalized groups of students with disabilities. Amr (2011) states that the notion of inclusion is still new and it is not fully integrated into the educational system in Egypt. Due to the lack of infrastructure and financial resources, not all schools have equipped resource rooms and few students in these schools have access to these rooms. Moreover, teachers fail to provide individualized instruction to SEN students as they have limited chances to collaborate with special education teachers and school psychologists to discuss students’ progress and make decisions about educational interventions.

2.3. Programs regarding inclusive education in Egypt

There are two kinds of teacher education programs in Egypt: Pre-service and in-service. The pre-service programs are usually provided in universities or higher education institutions along with practicum training. On the other hand, in-service programs are mainly provided by the MoE or other academic institutions to in-service teachers. A review of the courses taught in the Egyptian universities on inclusive education, the researcher found that few courses about special education and the psychology of exceptional children are taught in Cairo University, Alexandria University, and Zagazig University but no courses about inclusive education are taught in any faculty of education in Egypt. In addition, teacher education programs in universities are based on the medical model of disability; which fails to recognize the problem and provide high-quality educational programs (El-Zouhairy, 2016). In addition, Awad (2016) has found that teachers’ inadequate competency and efficacy are due to insufficient pre-service programs which provide little information or introductory knowledge about inclusive education.

The researcher analyzed in-service PD programs about special education that were provided to EFL teachers by the MoE with partnership with other agencies concerning inclusion (MoE, 2015-2016). Table 1 demonstrates the plan for PD programs provided by the General Director of Special Education Office (GDSEO) to school staff in inclusive and special education schools for 2015/2016.
## Table 1. PD programs about special educational needs 2015/2016

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Aims</th>
<th>Number of trainees/Time</th>
<th>Program</th>
<th>Aims</th>
<th>Number of trainees/Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Makaton Dictionary for Verbal Communication</strong></td>
<td>Providing teachers in inclusive schools with communication skills to deal with SEN students</td>
<td>400 teachers in 24 directorates</td>
<td><strong>Inclusive Education Caravan</strong></td>
<td>Raising teachers’ awareness of inclusion and its laws and regulations</td>
<td>About 1100 teachers in 12 directorates (1st semester of 2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Training in inclusive pre- and primary schools to teach blind students</strong></td>
<td>Qualifying teachers in inclusive schools to communicate with blind students</td>
<td>50 teachers from Cairo and Giza (September 2016)</td>
<td><strong>Refresher course of Readability</strong></td>
<td>Enhancing special education teachers’ skills of readability</td>
<td>1300 teachers from intellectual schools (Mid-year vacation 2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Ministry of Communications and Information Technology Training</strong></td>
<td>1. Training teachers in inclusive schools on communication skills. 2. Enhancing teachers’ skills in inclusive schools.</td>
<td>1500 teachers in inclusive schools and 1000 teachers of special education (27/2/2016 to 3/3/2016)</td>
<td><strong>Integrating Technology in Education</strong></td>
<td>Training teachers of the deaf on using the interactive board</td>
<td>75 teachers of the deaf in Cairo and Giza (14/2/2016 to 17/2/2016)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>UNICEF-Egypt Teaching aids for teachers in inclusive schools</strong></td>
<td>Improving the skills of teachers and psychologists in inclusive schools</td>
<td>5400 special education teachers and psychologists (April 2016)</td>
<td><strong>Preparing resource room teachers/special education teachers to design teaching aids for SEN students in limited-resourced schools</strong></td>
<td>Preparing resource room teachers/special education teachers to design teaching aids for SEN students in limited-resourced schools</td>
<td>About 522 teachers and special education specialists in directorates &amp; schools (November 2017)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: General Director of Special Education Office (GDSEO)
As demonstrated in table 1, the PD programs provided to in-service teachers are limited in scope and duration. For example, in the training conducted with partnership with the Ministry of Communications and Information Technology in 2016, only 28 EFL teachers out of 1040 teachers, principals and school psychologists in Gharbia received the program. As a result, the inability to prepare teachers to deal with SEN students makes it difficult to achieve the goals of Education for All (EFA) (UNESCO, 2010). This requires a large-scale, ongoing, and contextualized teacher training programs.

2.4. Related studies

Studies investigated teachers’ attitudes in Egypt found that they had negative attitudes and perceptions towards inclusion (Ghoneim, 2014; El-Zouhairy 2016). The studies that investigated the needs of teachers in inclusive settings in Egypt showed lack of sufficient knowledge, skills and support to teach SEN students (Ghoneim, 2014; Awad, 2016; Alkahteen et al., 2016). No study has explored the needs of EFL teachers in Egyptian public schools; an area which the present study tackled.

Awad (2016) interviewed school administrators, teachers, and parents of SEN students to examine the extent to which private schools in Egypt apply inclusion and challenges faced by the involved parties. She found unsatisfactory implementation of inclusion in these schools due to inadequate funding, lack of support services and educational tools, and insufficient professional development programs. In addition, Alkhateeb et al. (2016) reviewed the studies about inclusion in 21 Arab countries. Researchers showed that attitudes towards inclusion depended on the quality of teacher preparation, teaching loads, funding and resources, school accessibility, and teacher support.

Alkhateeb (2014) examined the knowledge and skills of female general education teachers and principals in elementary schools in Qassim in Saudi Arabia through surveys. Results indicated that teachers have basic knowledge about teaching to SEN students, while principals thought that they lack adequate knowledge and need further training to improve their knowledge and skills. Similarly, Kamkari, Mehdizadeh, and Yayachi (2013) investigated the knowledge of elementary school teachers, principals and teaching assistants’ about learning disabilities. Teachers showed more understanding of learning disabilities than principals and assistants. The researchers suggested offering more training programs to teachers and school staff as well. Likewise, Feng and Sass (2013) concluded that general education teachers had few in-service professional development and little support to improve their knowledge and skills, which influenced academic achievement of SEN students.
3. Methods

3.1. Participants

Two hundred eighteen (218) EFL teachers who work in public primary schools in Gahrba, Egypt participated in this study. Participants were selected by cluster sampling; a probability sampling in which large clusters are selected, then smaller clusters are chosen within the selected large clusters, and so on until finally specific elements are selected. The researcher divided the population (EFL teachers in Gahrba) into separate groups or clusters; (EFL teachers in 10 educational directorates). Then, a simple random sample of clusters was selected; EFL teachers in 3 educational directorates in Gharbia (Tanta West, Tanta East, El-Santa). Next, EFL teachers in primary schools in these directorates were drawn. Finally, the researcher selected all EFL teachers in these directorates who deal with SEN students and who are willing to participate in this study. Participants were 88 teachers from East Tanta, 76 from West Tanta, and 54 from El-Santa.

3.2. Instruments

3.2.1. Semi-structured interviews

The researcher created the interviews to identify the strategies that teachers use when teaching to SEN students and the challenges they face. The interviews were conducted before collecting data by the questionnaire to help reach an agreement on the topics of the questionnaire. After reviewing the literature and the questions of the current study, the researcher constructed the interview questions to include broad questions as well as follow-up and clarification questions to elicit further information.

The interview consisted of five sections. In the first section, teachers were asked about their pre-service and in-service activities regarding inclusive education, its usefulness and the extent to which they contributed to the improvement of teachers’ confidence to teach SEN students. The second section explored the strategies teachers use to teach, manage, and assess SEN students. Section three questions addressed teachers’ ability to identify disabilities and their degrees. In the fourth part of the interview, teachers were asked to describe the challenges they face in teaching in inclusive settings and ways to overcome these barriers. The interviews concluded by section five where interviewees were asked about suggestions to further improve the quality of in-service training. Interviews were audiotaped and thematic analysis was used to categorize the data. The validity of the interview questions were checked by submitting them to jurors specialized in TEFL.

3.2.2. Needs assessment questionnaire

The questionnaire aimed at giving a descriptive account of the needs of EFL teachers in primary schools in Egypt. It is a 35-item questionnaire that consisted of three sections: demographic information, professional needs, and PD preferences. The first section contained three multiple-choice questions (age, gender, and experience) and two open-ended questions (PD activities and qualifications). In the second section participants were required to specify their level of need on a 3-point Likert scale (high need=3, medium need=2, low need=1). In the third section,
participants’ preferences on the format of future training activities and appropriate time and duration were examined. The questions in this section were multiple-choice and participants were allowed to choose more than one choice.

Content validity was measured by submitting the instrument to jurors in the field and revisions were made. Then, the questionnaire was piloted to a group of teachers other than those participated in the current study to explore the reliability of the instrument. For construct validity, Principal Component Analysis which is an explanatory factor analysis, was calculated. To guarantee that data set was suitable for factor analysis, Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) and Barlett Tests of Sphericity were measured. KMO value was .652 which indicated a satisfactory factor analysis. Barlett Tests value were significant ($x^2=3.655, df=.59, p=.000$); as it is less than 0.05. To specify the number of factors eigenvalue criterion and scree plot were utilized. It was found that 35 items were categorized under five factors with eigenvalue above 1. Eigenvalues of the factors were between 6.626 and 1.025 and the common variance was between 54.1% and 73.8%. Therefore, the five factors were important for the analysis.

Based on Varimax rotation results, it was found that there were nine items grouped under the first factor (items 1-9), seven in the second factor (10-16), seven in the third (17-23), six in the fourth (24-29), and six in the fifth (30-35). Factors were given their names based on the characteristics of the items combined in each factor: a) instructional strategies used with SEN students; b) classroom management techniques; c) evaluation strategies; d) identification of disabilities, and e) non-academic skills and general knowledge. Factor loadings of the items from factor one through five changed between (.45-.66); (.35-.54); (.74-.44); (.38-.55); and (.50-.73) respectively. The first factor explained 28.9% of the total variance, the second factor explained 8.06%, the third factor explained 6.82%, the fourth factor explained 6.29%, and the fifth factor explained 5.75%.

Cronbach’s alpha were used to measure the internal reliability and were found to be .83 for the whole questionnaire; that indicated that the items have relatively high internal consistency. The values of Cronbach alpha for the five factors of the questionnaire were respectively: .94; .83; .84; .88; and .72.

4. Procedures

After reviewing the literature, the researcher analyzed the current in-service PD programs related to inclusive education and SEN students to determine their objectives, contents, and formats. The researcher also analyzed ministerial decrees, strategic plans and statistical yearbooks about inclusion in Egypt. Moreover, the researcher met two supervisors of English to know about the training that EFL teachers in their directorates received about inclusive education. The researcher concluded that in-service programs offered to EFL teachers at the directorates and ministry levels are insufficient in terms of content, duration and capacity to prepare teachers to
deal with SEN students. With the beginning of first semester of the academic year 2017/2018, the researcher interviewed eight EFL teachers-who didn't take part in the questionnaire- individually face to face for 30 minutes per interview. The questionnaire took around 15 minutes to complete. The questionnaire was administered offline as no complete database was available for all participants.

5. Data analysis

5.1. Interviews

Nvivo 10 was used to analyze the participants’ responses and generate patterns. To establish the inter-coder reliability of the interviews, the researcher with the help of another rater agreed on the proposed themes and examined the responses and their relevance to the research goals. Cohen Kappa coefficient was carried out to calculate a proportion of corresponding codes. The reliability index was (0.84); which shows high inter-coder reliability. As for the pre-service and in-service preparation, an interviewee stated that he received one formal PD training on inclusion at the directorate level; which he perceived as “generic and irrelevant to EFL teaching”. Other interviewees reported that they didn’t receive any training neither through their pre-service preparation nor within their in-service profession about inclusion. Only one teacher reported reading articles online about learning disabilities.

Concerning instructional methods, four strategies were identified: cooperative learning, simplifying the materials, individualized learning, and using multisensory techniques for presenting materials. In this regards, one teacher agreed that: “I usually try to stress the intelligences that are strong for each student. For example, with my visually impaired student, I use auditory materials and verbal instructions and enhance memorization and rehearsal”. When strategies for classroom management discussed, all teachers noted that they tried to build cooperation and acceptance among students and prevent behavioral problems to maintain discipline. A teacher said: “The classroom environment might cause extra problems to students with disabilities. Martina, the disabled child in my class, acquired violent behaviors from her peers like physical violence and using bad language. I always work on preventing such problems”.

As for evaluation strategies, all interviewees stated that they depended on the objective final exams created by the MoE to evaluate the achievement of SEN students. However, interviewees stated that they didn’t prepare SEN students to pass these exams. In this regard, an interviewee implied: “Why to give those students exams while they will take objective exams prepared by the MoE. I don’t have time to train students on these exams and I am not even trained to do so”. In the third section of the interviews, participants were asked about their ways of identifying disabilities, all respondents demonstrated that they have no roles in assessing students’ disabilities as they are informed by the SEN coordinators in schools about each student disability. Three respondents stated that they were dealing with mentally retarded students, two teachers had a physically impaired student, two teachers had visually impaired students, and a teacher had an autistic student.
In addition, interviewees highlighted a list of challenges in implementing inclusion like: shortage of time, unfamiliarity with students’ disabilities and needs, managing students’ behavioral problems, limited opportunities to cooperate with special education teachers, heavy workload, and difficulty to individualize instruction in large classes. Only two interviewees stated that they sometimes ask the help of school psychologists to overcome these challenges. Regarding recommendations for improving PD programs, interviewees mentioned the following topics: Evaluation strategies; planning lessons for individualized instruction; instructional strategies; and strategies for dealing with behavioral problems of SEN students as well as negative attitudes of normal students towards SEN students.

5.2. The needs assessment questionnaire

Section A: Demographic characteristics

The variables age, gender, years of experience, PD activities, and qualifications constructed the profile of the participants in this study. 53.2% of participants were females and 46.8% were males. The age of the participants varied from 30 to 51+ with a mean age of 2.28 ($SD=.874$); whereas their years of experience ranged from 1 to 25+ with a mean years of 2.54 ($SD=.880$). Out of the 36 participants who received PD in pedagogical instruction; 34 have engaged in formal workshops provided by their educational directorates, whereas one participant read some articles and another attended a conference. Noteworthy, only 6 of those who received formal PD activities reported participated in training about IE or special education. More than three-quarters of the participants stated having Bachelor in Education (77.5%), followed by those with Bachelor of Arts (18.3%), and those with MA in education (4.1%). Demographic characteristics of participants were summarized in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Frequency (f)</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>30-40</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>42.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>29.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51+</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>46.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of Experience</td>
<td>1-5</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6-15</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>39.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>16-25</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25+</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD activities</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No</td>
<td>182</td>
<td>83.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Section B: Professional development needs

As for the second section, descriptive statistics for each item were calculated. The means of items 1-9 presented in figure 1 shows the pedagogical knowledge and strategies that participants needed. The most needed instructional strategies were knowing about teaching methods appropriate for SEN students (84.4%) followed by the need to make curriculum adaptations (83.3%) then developing IEPs (78.1%). In addition, about half of the respondents (44.8%) reported their high need for providing appropriate scaffolding and learning strategies to SEN students while the other half indicated a medium need for the same item. The majority of teachers (74%) recorded medium need for a training to provide further tuition and supplementary resources and (41.7%) indicated a medium need for using strategies to gain and maintain students’ attention. While (43.8%) stated their low need for using technology and multimedia in inclusive classrooms, (32.3%) indicated that they highly recommend training in this area. A good section of respondents (54%-57%) reported that they highly require using peer-mediated instruction and cooperative learning (61.5%) as well as using multisensory presentation of information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualifications</th>
<th>169</th>
<th>77.5</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Education</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>77.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bachelor of Arts</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>18.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1. PD areas for instructional strategies
As for classroom management (items 10-16), results indicated that 76.5% of the respondents highly demanded preventive techniques for problem behaviors of SEN students ($M=2.69, SD=.638$) and 61.5% ($M=2.43, SD=.791$) greatly desired to teach and monitor classroom rules and routines to manage the behaviors of SEN students. Moreover, 40.6% ($M=1.95, SD=.773$) acknowledged their medium need for using appropriate classroom design, groupings and seating arrangements. High needs (42.7%, 57.3%, 59.4%, and 63.5%) were respectively reported for increasing students motivation and positive behaviors ($M=2.20, SD=.790$); creating a positive classroom climate where students feel accepted, valued, and able to interact ($M=2.42, SD=.749$); providing distraction-reduced learning environment ($M=2.49, SD=.724$); and using effective management strategies ($M=2.59, SD=.573$).

When asked to identify the level of needs about evaluation techniques (items 17-23), the respondents prioritized their needs as follows: adapting the questions to students’ needs ($M=2.67$), using summative evaluation ($M=2.50$), using classroom-based assessment ($M=2.48$), using appropriate evaluation tools ($M=2.42$), using diagnostic evaluation ($M=2.39$), providing adjustments in exams ($M=2.36$), and using formative evaluation ($M=2.26$).

When the items about identification of needs were analyzed, it was found that participants had high level need for differentiating between learning disabilities and language and communication disorders (84.4%), identifying the needs of students with emotional and behavioral disorders (65.6%), meeting the needs of sensory disabled students (66.7%), and identifying the needs of students with intellectual disabilities (68.8%). Moreover, medium level need were identified for facilitating the learning of physically impaired students and meeting their needs (57.3%) and identifying the needs of students with autism (53.1%). Figure 2 depicts the means of the needs under this theme (items 24-29).

![Figure 2. PD areas to identify needs of different disabilities](image-url)
As for the non-academic skills and general knowledge (items 30-35), a good section of participants (54.2%, $M=2.36$, $SD=.769$) indicated that they highly need to enhance their knowledge about techniques for overcoming challenges encountered in inclusive classes. In addition, a high percentage of teachers (62.5%, $M=2.52$, $SD=.680$) acknowledged their high need for knowing the special education acts and ministerial decrees. As for non-academic skills, nearly half of the respondents indicated their high need for collaboration with school psychologists and SEN coordinators ($M=2.35$, $SD=.696$) and communication with parents of SEN students ($M=2.28$, $SD=.764$). Medium need was reported by 44.8% for collaboration with school administration to provide effective learning for SEN students ($M=2.14$, $SD=.790$). In addition, about 45% ($M=2.31$, $SD=.715$) recorded their interest in teaching social and daily living skills to SEN students.

Section C: Preferences

These methods were identified as beneficial to be used in training sessions respectively: face-to-face seminars and workshops, mentor-supported learning, project-based learning and teamwork, individual learning, online conference/webinars, and lectures. As for the training time, morning training was chosen by 68.16% of the participants whereas 24% preferred afternoon training. About half of the participants preferred the training session/workshop to last 3 hours while nearly 21% preferred a 45-minute or 90-minute session. 48.9% chose weekdays for conducting PD programs and 43.2% agreed that weekends would be convenient for training.

To answer the third research question and identify the relation between participants profile and needs, it was found that the variables met univariate and multivariate normality and linearity assumptions. Statistical significance level was specified as .01 by using Bonferroni correction in order to prevent increase of Type-1 error due to the examination of five subscales (dependent variables) together. MANCOVA analyses were calculated to identify the relations of demographic information of the participants and PD needs. As presented in table 3, PD needs statistically varied in age [$F(15.486)=26.916$, $p < .01$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .188$, partial $\eta^2 = .427$], years of experience [$F(15.486)=22.702$, $p < .01$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .231$, partial $\eta^2 = .386$], and qualifications [$F(10.352)=8.367$, $p < .01$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .653$, partial $\eta^2 = .192$]. However, there was no statistically significant difference in terms of gender [$F(5.176)=3.031$, $p > .01$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .921$, partial $\eta^2 = .079$] and PD activities [$F(8.176)=.325$, $p > .01$, Wilks' $\Lambda = .991$, partial $\eta^2 = .009$].
Table 3. MANCOVA results for differences in needs by participants’ profile

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Profile</th>
<th>Wilks' Λ</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Hypothesis df</th>
<th>Error df</th>
<th>P</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.188</td>
<td>26.916</td>
<td>15.000</td>
<td>486.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.427</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.921</td>
<td>3.031</td>
<td>5.000</td>
<td>176.000</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.079</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.231</td>
<td>22.702</td>
<td>15.000</td>
<td>486.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.386</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PD activities</td>
<td>.991</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td>8.000</td>
<td>176.000</td>
<td>.897</td>
<td>.009</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Qualifications</td>
<td>.653</td>
<td>8.367</td>
<td>10.000</td>
<td>352.000</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.192</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The follow-up ANOVA were conducted to find out where the differences occurred between variables that were significant with needs; namely age, years of experience and qualifications. As for age, significant differences were found in the five subscales (p=.000<.01). Bonferroni tests were used to identify in which age group there were differences. The needs of the participants aged 30-40 (means ranging from 2.49-2.74), 41-45 (M=2.33-2.54), and 46-50 (M=2.31-2.56) for the five subdomains were greater than the needs of the participants aged 50+ (M=1.51-2.21); with the lowest needs for general knowledge in all age groups. Therefore, the needs of teachers aged 50 and below were greater than those whose age was 50+ in terms of strategies for teaching, classroom management, evaluation, identification of needs and general knowledge.

In addition, according to the follow-up ANOVA results, years of experience were found to be significant for the five subscales (p=.000<.01). Bonferroni tests revealed that the needs were high among participants with 1-5 years of experience with means ranged from 2.55 to 2.73 followed by 6-15 years of experience (from M=2.52 to M=2.60), then those with 16-25 (from M=2.21 to M=2.53). The lowest needs reported by the group of 25+ years of experience with a range of M=1.87 and M=2.36.

In addition, there were significant differences on the follow-up ANOVA between qualifications and needs for teaching methods, classroom management techniques, evaluation tools and identification of needs (p=.000<.01), but not in general knowledge (p=.226>.01). According to Bonferroni tests, participants with master degrees had the highest means on the four
subdomains respectively ($M=2.70, 2.65, 2.67, 2.64$); which indicated higher needs compared to participants with bachelor degrees.

6. Discussion

As shown in the data analysis section, differentiating between learning disabilities and language disorders, knowing about teaching methods, making curriculum adaptations, developing IEPs, and using preventive techniques for problem behaviors were respectively the most in-demand needs specified by the respondents to the questionnaire. These needs are consistent with the suggestions of the interviewees in this study. In accordance with these results, Sadioglu, et al. (2013) identified adapting curriculum, providing one-to-one activities, using teaching equipment, developing IEPs, and encouraging SEN students’ engagement with ordinary students as the most used strategies by participants in their study. Similarly, Tanyi (2016) and Batista-Arias (2011) concluded that curriculum accommodation influence teachers’ attitudes towards teaching SEN students and reported that EFL teachers felt PD programs should train them on developing IEPs, using methods for teaching foreign languages, understanding special education terminology, and adapting curriculum.

Concerning classroom management, the majority of the respondents desired to be trained on how to use preventive techniques with the behavioral problems of SEN students. By the same token, Hristovskaa and Jovanova-Mitkovskaa (2010) concluded that supportive learning environment, positive attitudes towards SEN students, and proper school physical conditions and equipment contributed to the successful implementation of inclusion. In addition, Lucia Potgieter-Groot, Visser, and Beer (2012) found out that participants in their study used good practices to deal with SEN students, including giving individual attention, maintaining security through well-established routine and reinforcing positive behaviors.

The results also revealed that respondents specified some techniques to be beneficial for evaluating SEN students including using adapted questions, different types of evaluations, and appropriate assessment tools. Comparably, Sadioglu et al. (2013) indicated that teachers made adaptations in evaluation of SEN students in the lights of IEPs followed by using suitable grading systems and evaluation tools. Furthermore, Batista-Arias (2011) and Pinar (2014)’s findings agreed with current findings in that EFL teachers need to be prepared on identifying disabilities and methods of meeting the needs.

Teachers in the current study noted their need to increase their knowledge about acts and decrees about special education and ways to overcome challenges in inclusive classes. Communication and collaboration with special education specialists and parents were reported to be the most vital non-academic skill to deal with SEN students. In the same way, Pinar (2014) found out that knowing general knowledge, learning about learning disabilities, and teaching social
Skills are critical in PD programs about inclusion. However, Pinar (2014) reported that the participants considered teaching academic skills, instructional methods, controlling students’ behaviors, preparing IEPs, and assessment techniques not very important. He attributed this finding to the lack of awareness of the significance of these skills at the participants’ side; which might be due to the inadequate pre-service preparation programs.

The majority of the participants preferred future training to be arranged in a face-to-face format and to take part in weekdays. They also preferred constructive teaching methods (group works, project based learning). This is in accordance with Moeini (2003) and Siddiqui (2006) who found that professionals preferred PD activities in workshops over online training as the former gave them opportunities to practice what they learned. Furthermore, the findings revealed that there were significant relationships between participants’ professional needs and age, years of experience and qualifications. However, gender and previous training didn’t influence participants’ needs. The younger the participants, the more passionate about satisfying their needs. Likewise, participants with less experience were found to be more curious about knowing about inclusive education than colleagues who are more experienced. Participants with master degrees recorded the highest needs in comparison to bachelor holders. Khan and Sarwar (2011) concluded that academicians with less experience tend to be more open to learning and need more training than do more experienced colleagues. Similarly, Moeini (2003)’s findings showed that professional needs decrease as age and years of experience increase.

7. Recommendations and pedagogical implications

In the light of the findings, the researcher offered some recommendations for decision makers, teachers and researchers. First, systematic and high-quality PD programs should be prepared for in-service EFL teachers to familiarize them with necessary strategies and knowledge to deal with SEN students. Second, PD activities should be provided at school level to foster ongoing PD communities among co-workers at schools. Third, to improve professional practices and practical skills, teachers should be encouraged to observe more experienced colleagues when teaching SEN students and collaborate with special education teachers and experts. Fourth, it is recommended that all PD programs for in-service teachers be evaluated to provide necessary improvements to tailor them to teachers’ needs. Furthermore, rules and regulation that guide the implementation of inclusion in schools should be made clearer and flexible and should be monitored to ensure appropriate implementation. Inclusive Education and Special Education courses should be compulsory to pre-service teachers at university level. Last but not least, integrating technology can upgrade teachers’ knowledge and skills and facilitate their access to updated materials along with rich experience of professional networking with other teachers overseas.
Further research should explore the factors for effective inclusion. More research is needed to identify the needs of EFL teachers in other contexts to design or tailor PD programs to anticipate their needs. It would be interesting to compare how teaching practices differ with other countries that implement inclusion and investigate teachers’ experiences and needs. Further research to examine the effect of a proposed PD program based on the findings of this study on the participants’ performance and attitudes are highly needed.

This study is geographically limited to one governorate; Gharbia. Participants were selected by cluster sampling technique; though less precise, it is more cost-effective and time-efficient than the other methods. This research can be replicated to include other governorates in Egypt, other primary and preparatory schools, larger number of EFL teachers to maximize the opportunity of generalizing the findings. The study is also limited to the instruments used to collect data; therefore, utilizing more instruments for collecting data like observations and journals will help in understanding the gaps in teachers’ practices. Another limitation resulted from the aspects specified in the questionnaire and the needs specified by the participants.

8. Conclusion

The Egyptian ministerial decree (No.42/2017) posited that PD training should be provided to school staff on inclusion with collaboration with private sector and social communities. Special Education Department in the MoE provided a variety of PD training to teachers, however; none of these PD dealt with adapting EFL content area or instruction to the needs of SEN students. To address this deficiency, MoE should offer PD directly applicable to EFL teachers and support them with resources and facilities. To that end, the researcher conducted semi-structured interviews, reviewed archival data, and administered a need assessment questionnaire to collect qualitative as well as quantitative data about teachers’ needs concerning inclusive education. Data analyses showed that PD programs must provide EFL teachers with adequate knowledge in teaching methods, individualized instruction and creating IEPs, classroom management techniques, evaluation methods, knowledge to identify and meet the needs of SEN students, and non-academic knowledge and skills.

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References


How learners of English learn best in a foreign language context? A glimpse of the debate over the written versus the spoken form

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Abstract
The primacy of speech in second language learning and the relative lack of importance of the written form have triggered a continuous debate in the field of language teaching methodology. The various approaches which have been developed throughout the years emphasise the importance of the spoken language. Therefore, the written form has been taken for granted in most teaching methodologies. This paper considers the question of whether second language learners learn best through spoken or written language. It reviews the literature with regard to how speaking and writing have been taught in the last two decades. In addition, it describes the differences between spoken and written forms of languages. The paper then presents some characteristics and features of both language forms and states the situation of teaching English in a foreign language context. The paper concludes that both spoken and written aspects of any language are important in language learning and they both complement one another. Second language learners need to learn both aspects in order to master the language. The degree of exposure to spoken or written language is yet determined by the learners’ purpose for learning the language.

Keywords: English as a foreign language, language learning, spoken language, teaching methodologies, written language

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Introduction
The debate on the primacy of speech in the various language teaching methodologies has existed since the Seventeenth Century. The original methods of language teaching emphasise the necessity of learning the spoken form of the target language (Banathy & Sawyer, 1969). These methods also particularly focus on conversational ability. It was commonly agreed in the past that learning a language should start by speaking followed by reading. Written language is solely “…a means of representing speech in another medium” (Lyons, 1968, p. 38). The focus on speech has come as a result of many perceptions as noted by Cook (2004). Advocates of the notion that believes in the natural acquisition of the language, such as Harmer (1998), stress that all children acquire their first language without studying its written form. Furthermore, spoken language existed many years before the invention of the written form and that some languages such as Swiss German and Ulster Scots do not have written systems (Cook, 2004). The illiteracy rate has also contributed to some extent to the primacy of speech over writing. That is to say, there are a number of people who cannot use the written language. In addition to these points, some teachers argue that most second language learners favour learning the spoken language and that learners’ purpose of studying the second language is to be good at communicating with speakers of that language.

However, this argument was short-lived. The primacy of speech had been reduced by language textbook writers in the Eighteenth and the first half of the Nineteenth Centuries (Banathy & Sawyer, 1969). Back then, the main language focus was on teaching the rules of grammar and structures and the learners’ mother tongue was used to acquire the target language. This claim can be seen more clearly in the grammar-translation method which ignored the spoken form of the target language and put a great emphasis on the written form. Howatt (1984) asserts that the grammar-translation method required practice and contained exercises of various kinds, typically sentences for translation into and out of the foreign language, which were another novel feature of this method.

Furthermore, the grammar-translation method was described as a means of acquiring a language by analysing its grammatical rules first, and then applying the acquired knowledge through translating texts into and out of the target language (Richards & Rogers, 2001). Speaking and listening exercises in the target language were not included and native language was used as the medium of instruction. The main aim of this approach was to develop the learners’ reading skills and help them to gain knowledge of the grammatical structures. The major representative of the grammar-translation method was Plotz who adopted this method in the late Nineteenth Century (Banathy & Sawyer, 1969). Nevertheless, the trend towards the written language was criticised in the second half of the Nineteenth Century which witnessed an extensive interest in the spoken language. Advocates of this movement claimed that learning a language can be achieved by intensive listening and reading, followed by speaking and writing (Hennes, 1866). This method was also criticised in terms of the learners’ inability to use the target language for communication.

As a result of researchers’ and practitioners’ criticisms and dissatisfaction with the grammar-translation method, the direct-method was developed. It emphasised the importance of the spoken form in second language acquisition. In addition, the audiolingual method was also developed in order to improve the oral skills first, and then the written skills. Yule (2017)
describes this method as follows:

Audiolingual method, a very different approach, emphasizing the spoken language, became popular in the 1950s. This involved a systematic presentation of the structures of the L2, moving from the simple to the more complex, often in the form of drills which the students had to repeat. This approach, called the Audiolingual method, was strongly influenced by the belief that the fluent use of a language was essentially a set of ‘habits’ which could be developed with a lot of practice. (p. 212)

This was strongly supported by Palmer (1917) who states that “We are endowed by nature with powers which enable us to use the spoken form of any language, and that these powers are to be activated to learn the spoken form of the spoken language.” (p.540). He also notes that by ignoring ear-training the learners will be unaware of certain sounds which, in turn, lead them to replace the unknown sounds with ones from their native language. Despite the features of audiolingualism, some arguments arose that were critical of this method. Opponents, such as Harmer (1998), allege that this kind of lesson, which focused heavily on drills and repetition, was teacher-centred in that the teacher played a key role in the classroom. In addition, it required teachers with native or native-like language ability which made it even more difficult to operate.

As a response to the audiolingual method, the communicative language teaching approach was developed with a particular focus on meaning rather than on grammatical structures. It aims at promoting interaction in the target language by using authentic materials and engaging the learners’ experiences in the learning situations (Nunan, 1991). Communicative language teaching endeavours to connect the language learning situations in the classroom to real-life activities outside the classroom; yet, like many other methods, it has been criticised. Swan (1985) argues that learners are aware of the different skills for the negotiation of meaning, but what they need to know are more lexical items in order to help them to communicate successfully in the target language. Furthermore, Aaron and Joshi (2006) conducted a study examining the extent to which the written language can be considered to be as a natural process as the spoken language. Their study revealed that spoken and written language are alike. The written form has an intrinsic importance which develops over time, and it is also comparatively independent of the spoken language.

In contrast to the aforementioned points, Smith (1976) argues that the aims of any language learning should be specific elements of both spoken and written forms of the language. These two forms are needed in learning a language but the question would be, which one is the most helpful, or do they both have the same value? In fact, both spoken and written aspects are important in language learning and they complement one another. Second language learners need to learn both aspects in order to master the language. The degree of exposure to spoken or written language is yet determined by the learners’ purpose for learning the language.
Differences between spoken and written language

Spoken and written forms have often been examined together in the field of language learning. There are two reasons that have led researchers to study both forms at the same time (Garton & Pratt, 1989). Firstly, the definition of the learning process requires both systems. Garton and Pratt (1989) defined learning as the mastery of the spoken language as well as the written form that includes reading and writing. Therefore, both forms of the language are urgently needed to achieve the learning outcomes which eventually led to linking them together. Secondly, although the spoken language preceded the written language by many years, they have been examined historically and developmentally. The development of the written form of the language would inevitably lead to the development of the spoken form (Garton & Pratt, 1989).

Although some similarities between the two forms have been highlighted as both have some aspect in common in the planning or conceptualisation of the message, the differences between them have received considerable attention in the body of research. Garton and Pratt (1989) classify these differences into three categories - differences of form, differences of function and differences in the manner of presentation. The first type means that spoken language is momentary and requires ears in order to listen to the talk, whereas written language is more permanent and requires eyes to read the written word (Cook, 2004). Additionally, the spoken form seems to be more sociable and quicker than the written form, the speaker can involve the listener by talking, whether by using tag questions which request a reply or by using phrases such as ‘you know’ or ‘see what I mean?’. This is different from the written form which is considered as a solitary work in that there is no need for another person while writing. Also, the written form has been seen as a slow process which can be revised as drafts before production. These differences in form generate the second type - differences in function. In the spoken language where there is usually a speaker and a listener, the participants can use informal language and style. Functional differences are correlated with situational differences. In some situations, the written language can have certain functions which do not exist with regard to the spoken language, and vice versa. For instance, the completion of a withdrawal form at a bank absolutely requires the written form, while if someone is interviewed on a radio programme, s/he will have to speak as it is required by the situation. Cook (2004) also stresses the necessity for the presence of both the speaker and the listener in the speech situation. Yet, there is no need for the writer and the reader to meet each other.

It seems difficult to ignore the differences in grammar and vocabulary in the spoken and the written language. There are some words which are rare in the spoken language, but which, on the other hand, exist and are widely used in the written form. With regard to grammatical differences, many new words and grammatical structures have their derivations from the spoken form. Cook (2004) notes that:

Much written language consists of short sentences that do not form part of a longer discourse [whereas] spoken language usually demands a greater coherence; short verbless sentences ...[and] tend to be analysed as part of larger units such as conversations and exchanges. (p. 43)

Furthermore, lexical density is another serious difference between spoken and written language.
as, by comparing content and function words, written language is considered much denser than the spoken form. So, content words such as nouns, verbs and adjectives are very common in written texts and seldom occur in the spoken form.

**Distinctive features of spoken and written language**

Halliday (1989, p. 31) provides many characteristics of the spoken language such as ‘variation in speed’, ‘loudness or quietness’, ‘intonation’, ‘stress’, ‘rhythm’, ‘pitch range’, ‘gestures - body language’ and ‘pausing and phrasing’. Also, hesitation fillers are believed to be one of the most obvious characteristics of the spoken language. These fillers such as, ‘um’, ‘err’ and ‘like’ give the speaker more time to think of what to say next, but are not found in the written language. While speaking we use intonation for signalling grammatical structure or emotional attitudes (Cook, 2004). However, the ‘punctuation system’ indicates parallel meaning to the ‘tone of speech’ although these punctuation marks do not accurately match the meaning of the raising or falling of the pitch of the voice. The use of stress has been identified as a unique marker of the spoken mode as emphasised by Xie et al. (2004) who considered stress as a form of status in the spoken language.

Looking into the features of the written language, obviously punctuation is the most distinguishable feature. Punctuation can powerfully change the meaning of the intended message and it helps in organising the writing. Punctuation has other purposes that are not signalled in speech at all, such as the use of capital letters to signal proper names and sentence beginnings (Cook, 2004). The written form can offer a different vocabulary by utilising different types of spelling which may not be feasible in the spoken form. The written system is also a planned work that can be written and revised many times as drafts, compared with the spontaneity of speech.

**Evaluating the teaching of English in EFL contexts**

In most contexts where English is taught as a foreign language (EFL), English is only practiced inside classrooms; and there is little chance for learners to speak English and improve their speaking skills outside. However, the sole focus on the spoken language with beginners may not be recommended in an EFL context for some reasons. Namely, the English writing system needs to be emphasised in the language curriculum, especially in the early stages of learning. There is a great need to make learners aware of the different system of the target language. Furthermore, teaching learners the basics of writing and the grammatical forms may work as an advance-organiser which can help them recognise the different patterns of speech (Thornbury, 1999). Helping learners to communicate effectively in the target language is one of the aims of teaching English in most EFL contexts; however, this aim seems hard to achieve. In reality, the speaking skill is paid little attention to unless the teacher asks a direct question in which the focus would be on the information provided, rather than on practicing speaking. Although learners may show a fairly good mastery of the writing system, neglecting the spoken mode affects their understanding of the spoken discourse and their later communication with speakers of the target language.

In response to the question addressed in this paper’s title about how learners of English language learn best in an EFL context, it can be said that learners should be exposed to both the spoken and written modes equally at all stages of language learning. The spoken form enhances learners’ communication skills, and the written form strengthens their knowledge of the writing
system and the grammar of the target language. Since the issue of spoken and written language is still being debated, educationalists and text-book writers in EFL contexts should adopt more effective teaching methods and the proportion of each system needs to be balanced in the curricula. The purpose of studying a foreign language differs among learners; so, their needs and purposes should be considered when it comes to the teaching methodology. Furthermore, focusing on one part of the language and neglecting the other is neither a satisfying nor an effective method of teaching a foreign language. Hedge (2000) calls for a multi-dimensional syllabus such as: organization, meaning, skills and topics. Additionally, Swan (1985) emphasises that form and meaning should receive the same emphasis in teaching a foreign language. Smith (1976) also notes that second language learners need certain elements from both the spoken and the written form in the learning process.

Additionally, the use of mother tongue in language classrooms should not be completely banned in early stages of language learning. Learners at this level need to use their language in order to comprehend the target language. They also communicate better if the teacher speaks their first language (Schweers, 1999). However, this should not be overused as it may affect the learners’ abilities in expressing themselves in the target language (Harbord, 1992).

**Conclusion**

This paper has tried to shed some light on the debate with regard to the primacy of speech in various language teaching methods. Spoken language has been the deterministic form in most teaching methodologies, yet some methods considered the written mode as a significant part of language learning. The relationship between the spoken and the written language has been debated for a long time. They are both crucial in all stages of language learning, especially for beginners. Therefore, there should be a balance between the two aspects when a syllabus is designed for language learners.

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How learners of English learn best in a foreign language context?


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Reflective Professional Development Journals for Constructivist Evaluation of Teacher Learning and Reactions

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Abstract
Limited in scope, this paper deliberately foregrounds the evaluation stage of a suggested 5-month constructivist professional development (PD) programme for Algerian novice middle school English teachers (N=14) who were willingly involved in the whole process of its planning, implementation and evaluation and whose needs, preferences and reflections were valued. Evaluating this programme, assessment rubrics, classroom observation notes, project presentations and professional development journals (PDJs) were analysed. Precisely, amongst these constructivist evaluative tools, this study aimed to explore the participants’ post-programme learning and reactions through a qualitative content analysis of their reflective PDJs. The revelations of this evaluative analysis about the participants’ learning and reactions would inevitably assess the value of this constructivist programme as well as its effectiveness and help make decisions for its improvement. Additionally, this analysis would significantly confirm the usefulness of PDJs as effective constructivist reflective tools for teachers’ conceptual and practical development. After being collected, repeatedly read and qualitatively content-analysed, the participants’ coded PDJs (N=14) disclosed themes (N=6) and sub-themes (N=14) reflecting an amalgam of their learning and reactions. This cognitive and affective analysis of the participants’ reflections revealed signs of constructions of different ELT- and PD-related concepts, correction of some misconceptions together with traces of satisfaction, self-confidence and willpower. In the light of this study, the researcher strongly recommends PDJs for teachers to self/peer-assess and develop their teaching concepts and practice, and for programme facilitators to uncover and, therefore, meet teachers’ individual cognitive and affective needs.

Keywords: Constructivist evaluation, professional development, reflection, reflective journals

I. Introduction
Evaluation of teacher education (TE) and professional development (PD) programmes is unquestionably necessary to assess their value (Guskey, 2000) as well as their effectiveness and to help make decisions for their improvement (Brown, 1995). Given its importance, the current study purposefully spotlights the evaluation stage of a suggested original 5-month constructivist PD programme for Algerian novice middle school teachers of English who were involved in the whole process of its planning, implementation and evaluation and whose needs, preferences and reflections were valued. Since this programme was constructivist from head to toe, as it adopted the main constructivist tenets of an effective PD (Borg, 2015), the use of constructivist (alternative rather than traditional) assessment tools (Brooks & Brooks, 1993; Santrock, 2011) was more than relevant. Thus, in the evaluation stage, instead of the traditional pencil-paper tests, assessment rubrics, classroom observation notes, project presentations and professional development journals (PDJs) were employed and analysed.

Due to scope limitation, this paper aims to reveal about the participants’ post-programme learning and reactions (Guskey, 2000) through a qualitative content analysis (Griffee, 2012) of their reflective PDJs. Original in an Algerian PD programme, the analysis of participants’ reflections (PDJs) would significantly provide rich insider sources and self/peer-assessment outcomes for improving PD programmes and developing teachers’ concepts and practice in a safe evaluative learning context. Accordingly, this paper aims to investigate this research question: What would a post-programme qualitative content analysis of EFL novice teachers’ reflective PDJs reveal about their learning and reactions?

2. Theoretical Foundations
2.1 Constructivist Professional Development
Borg (2015), though implicitly, suggests a set of constructivist characteristics for English language teachers’ PD and admits their occurrence in English teaching arenas. Wearing a constructivist lens to scrutinise Borg’s (2015) proposals discloses the following PD’s features. First, teachers are knowledge generators who engage in enquiry-based experiences to build up new understandings from within (Von Glasersfeld, 2002) or as a result of collaboration with other peers (Vygotsky, 1978). Second, as individuals, they are responsible for the construction of their own interpretations of knowledge through reflection on their experiential acts (Dewey, 1900; Piaget, 1964). Third, their needs, prior knowledge and experience are valued as they represent the foundation for further constructions (Piaget, 1964) and determine the degree of the required scaffolding and support. Finally, constructing from and reflecting on their beliefs and experience, those teachers are provided opportunities to interact using authentic materials in relevant contexts (Vygotsky, 1986, as cited in Johnson, 2009). Other suggested strategies that have the potential to adopt and promote constructivist principles abound in the literature on effective PD (e.g. Burns & Richards, 2009; Richards & Farrell, 2005; Richards & Lockhart, 1996); most important of which are approaches to reflective practice.

2.2 Reflection and Reflective Practice
Reflective practice is to view teacher learning as a process of a critical examination of teaching experiences through which teachers can better understand their own practices and routines (Richards & Farrell, 2005). A reflective act is an ongoing online and offline process of “shuttling
back and forth between thinking and action” (Jay, 2003, p.12). Henceforth, different reflective practices would logically take place in different periods of time: past, present and future. Following this timeline, reflection-on-action (Shön, 1983) involves an action followed by thoughts. In other words, it refers to a post-action pause and an offline activity to think about what went well (past), what didn’t (past) and what changes could be brought about for the betterment of (future) actions (Jay, 2003). Reflection-in-action is another Shön’s (1983) coinage that refers to an online and a while-acting process of rational examination and analysis of what is happening (present). These two types of reflection can be well grasped in teaching-learning contexts. Teachers can think critically on their actions after a class, a whole school day or a year to improve their teaching acts and therefore upgrade their learner learning. They may also react during action using alternative techniques to restore learners’ motivation or to figure out a solution to an unexpected learning obstacle. It is worth noting that in addition to schools and classrooms, TE and PD arenas can also be fruitful loci for reflective practice, a lens to assess teachers’ learning and reactions during and post-programme evaluation.

2.3 Constructivist Professional Development Evaluation

Evaluation is the cornerstone of constructivist PD programmes, as it is a thoughtful, focused and intentional process whereby pertinent information is collected and analysed by means of appropriate methods and techniques to assess the value of such programmes (Guskey, 2000). Among other evaluative levels, Kirkpatrick (1988, as cited in Richards & Farrell, 2005) and Guskey (2000) propose that during the process of evaluation, participants’ reactions and their learning after a PD experience have to be assessed. Guskey (2000) further explains that participants’ reactions and learning can be assessed by means of a combination of, but not limited to, rating-scale items, open-ended questions, oral or/and written reflections. Focussing on the latter, this study spotlights the participants’ written reflections on their learning (cognition) and reactions (feelings and attitudes) through a qualitative content analysis of their PDJs.

2.4 Professional Development Journals (PDJs)

Journal writing is one of the invaluable reflective ways for a teacher to develop professionally. Teaching journal (Richards & Farrell, 2005), PDJ (Scales, 2008) or teacher journal (Griffee, 2012) can be interchangeably employed in the literature. Because the concern of this paper is teacher development, opting for PDJ as a unifying concept is more than relevant. PDJ stands for whatever script or any other electronic written form in and through which, particularly, teachers keep records of their continuous reflections, evaluations as well as the confronted issues and the witnessed events and incidents. Precisely, teachers use PDJs to describe and reflect on teaching and learning, including their actions and reactions during, for or after learning planning, preparation and delivery (Scales, 2008). PDJs take several forms that range from a single sheet of paper or a bond of sheets in a folder to notebooks or e-files on a computer. Although a PDJ is subjective (i.e., by and for the teacher), this subjectivity can be shared with or even assessed by a peer, a group of peers or any other facilitator, as it provides diverse themes to discuss and a chance for practitioner-practitioner conversations.

PDJs, among others, can be effective constructivist tools of assessing what learners (teachers) have internalized and learnt (Brooks & Brooks, 1993; Santrock, 2011). Henceforth, interchangeably employed, diaries or journals/PDJs are likely to mean the ongoing process of
reflective writings for intentional enhancement of learning (Moon, 2006). In this paper, the deliberate analysis of the participants’ reflections (PDJs) is premised on these assumptions: (1) during the process of reconstructing and interpreting their teaching-learning events, teachers will make sense of what they experienced (Johnson, 2009), and (2) writing about the process of how an event unfolds will inevitably disclose new insights about the event itself (Richards & Farrell, 2005).

Given their supreme importance, these tools have also been used as instruments for data collection in diverse research projects (Griffée, 2012) such as TE programmes (Dörnyei, 2007). Albeit different in purpose and terminology, teacher reflective writings or narrative accounts (Johnson, 2009) were used to assess Turkish prospective teachers’ achievement (Akar, 2003), to self-assess learning and reactions (Brock, Yu & Wong, as cited in Richards & Farrell, 2005, p.20) and to follow up teachers during a teacher development programme in Namibia (O’Sullivan, 2004).

3. Methodology

3.1 Participants

In this study, the participants (N=14) were novice middle-school teachers of English holding BA degrees (1999-2001). Although almost all of them were over 35 years old, they had an English teaching experience of less than 5 years, for they were recently recruited as full-time teachers after working as temporary substitutes for years.

Adopting a constructivist emic approach, the four-year experienced middle-school English inspector (researcher) was another participant in this study. This enquiry is a normal event in inspectors’ calendar, as abiding by the recommendations of the Algerian Ministry of National Education (MNE), conducting research and testing innovative ideas are among other inspector’s duties and rights. It is worthy of note that when necessary, English inspectors are allowed to design weekly PD programmes (mainly on Tuesdays) that very often target neophytes.

3.2 Research Context: A Succinct Description of the Programme

The participants willingly and collaboratively worked with the researcher (facilitator) during planning (Jan–Feb 2016), implementation (March-May 2016) and evaluation (June 2016) events of a weekly 5-month-constructivist programme, aiming at improving their ELT-concepts and practice of lesson planning, presentation, classroom management and assessment and at encouraging them to use some effective strategies for their PD such as peer observation and reflective practice using PDJs. With these aims in mind, this conceptual and practical programme provided a constructivist learning environment in which participants with the facilitator’s assistance worked individually and collaboratively to solve authentic problems, study class-related cases, conduct and present projects, practise micro-teaching and peer observation (full description of the programme is beyond the scope of this paper).

3.3 Data collection Procedures

Among other constructivist evaluation materials, participants’ PDJs (N=14) were collected at the end of the suggested programme, coded using this pattern (e.g. TBF: T/teacher & BF/ initials of the participants’ real names) to ethically protect their identities, and then thoroughly and
repetitively read and deeply analysed. Note that although the participants initially had briefings about the rationale for and the way to use PDJs, they were given freedom to record their reflections about their learning and reactions according to their preferences, so the use of graphic organisers was one additional option.

3.4 Data analysis procedures
Under the umbrella of diaries (Dörnyei, 2007; Griffee, 2012) that can be qualitatively content-analysed, the participants’ reflections through their PDJs were coded and analysed in accordance with the most recurring themes (Griffee, 2012) or patterns (Brown, 2005) in line with the predetermined categories of learning and reactions. Needless to add that the researcher’s interpretations were backed up by carefully selected participants’ quotes to get a solid account of evidence (Brown, 2005). It is worth noting that it was so tough to delimit their reflections into exact corresponding categories because of the diversity of their constructivist idiosyncratic interpretations (constructed realities) of the encountered reality (the programme). Besides, due to the difficulty of foregrounding their learning and reactions as separate categories, a blended presentation was opted for.

4. Results and Discussion
The initial cognitive and affective analysis (Akar, 2003) of the teachers’ reflective products revealed that well nigh all of them plumped for following a comparative style to describe and reflect on their past and present experiences as two critical periods in the ongoing development of their professional career. This comparison merely represents their teaching experience before and after their participation in the suggested constructivist programme, which would inevitably imply some signs of change. Bearing in mind categorisation difficulty due to the nature of constructivist personal interpretations, the qualitatively selected themes (N=6) and sub-themes (N=14) reflecting the participants’ blend of learning and reactions were as follows (See Appendix A). Note that since this analysis is qualitative, there was no need for quantitative ranking intentions; the attached table in Appendix A was employed only to help identify and foreground the emerged themes and sub-themes and to signpost this qualitative analysis.

4.1 Participants’ Comparative Reflections
Well nigh all participants avowed and acknowledged that this more or less short experience of teaching English was beneficial for them, for it was an opportunity to test their intuitive trial-and-error actions. However, the programme caused them Piagetian disequilibrium (Piaget, 1964) because it was another reality by means of which they could reflect on the realities they previously constructed about English teaching and learning; for them, it was a mirror to realize that some of their planning, presentation, classroom management and assessment practices were not adequate.

4.1.1 Participants’ Pre-Programme Assessment of their Teaching Experience
“The teacher of yesterday and the teacher of today” (TBM) and “before training and after” (TBS) are two quotes to clarify the participants’ pre-and post-programme reflections. Before this constructivist experience, some teachers revealed that they used to work without any rationale, thinking that it is enough to blindly follow the syllabus, plan lessons and test learners in a mechanical cyclic manner. In line with this thought, one of the teachers (TRK) reported: “I used to teach and follow the syllabus, test and do exams to my learners. [It] seemed enough for me.”
Another highlighted that “I’ve been teaching English since 2008… [But] I had no idea about the rationale. Why am I doing this now … and not another activity” (TBF). Others confessed that most of their work was unorganized, done at random. This confession is a striking example: “Before this training, I used to work at random … there were no specific objectives” (THF). The hallmark of the participants’ reflections on past experiences is that some teachers were not sure of their practice and were in need of being guided and judged to be satisfied. “I was working and cannot judge my work…. I was never satisfied about my work.” (TMF) and “Maybe I was doing something right, but…” (TBF) can be suitable excerpts.

4.1.2 Participants’ Post-Programme Construction of Self-Confidence

The teachers’ reflections before and after their participation in the suggested constructivist programme depict a positive affective change in their self-confidence. Expressions like “I was afraid” (TBS), “I was terrified” (TBM) or even “before, I was lost… I was nervous and not confident” (TYH) were included in their PDJs to describe their stress and anxiety, doubting their abilities to perform well. These pre-programme feelings were also marked by wondering and self-questioning: one teacher (TMH) wrote “Am I able to do this?” Another participant avowed that she was afraid of standing in front of her learners with their open eyes gazing at her. Worse was this teacher’s confession: “I was about to leave the profession” (TRK). Conversely, as they reported, due to the programme, they became surer and began to trust their work with their learners. “Now, I feel better, I am better, I am more confident” (TBS) or “I am proud of myself and my learners” (TMF) were some of the participants’ positive signs of affective shift.

4.1.3 Participants’ Post-Programme Construction of Willpower

Remarkable were their commitment and the will to do better in their classes, implying that the programme is not an end but just a means among others to improve their practice. This teacher, for instance, seemed much determined to implement what she learnt for the benefits of her learners as she put: “I will apply some successful techniques and tips that work” (TCA). Another committed practitioner said: “We have to be deeply engaged to make our teaching getting better” (TBM). “All what we have to do now is to be creative and involved,” said (TMK). Accordingly, this analysis mirrors the participants’ motivation and engagement to implement what they have already constructed in their classes due to their self-confidence.

4.2 Correction of Misconceptions

Abiding by Piagetian constructivism, the internal structure of the human mind and the external world of experience are in a constant dynamic activity of assimilation and accommodation where previous constructs may be modified and corrected due to contact with a new different concept or experience to regain equilibrium (Piaget, 1964). Scrutinising the teachers’ reflections disclosed that due to the encounter with ideas and experience other than what they used to believe and live, they were able to correct some wrong conceptualisations related to teaching, learning and learning environment. For instance, this teacher used to believe that classroom management has to do with authority and keeping discipline per se, that a good teacher should be authoritarian and the only source of knowledge, and should play the role of the teacher rather than being just herself. Her words were as under:
… I was dominated by the image of a good teacher, the authority, as one who is able to maintain discipline. The teacher… who can leave the classroom door open because pupils are working quietly… a pool of knowledge untouchable as a person… a different person in classroom than in private. Now I am not of that sort. (TOI)

As a solution for controlling her class, another teacher averred that she learnt that keeping discipline begins by establishing rules early during the first day of teacher-learner contact; before, she used to shout a lot thinking that this can make her learners silent. She voiced:

I start with establishing rules in my class. I tell my pupils about what they are allowed to do … and … mustn’t do (contract of September). Today I speak in low voice. Everybody is silent in order to hear me… I will never shout. (TBF)

Another teacher clearly stated that she was tough because she used to respond to her learners’ wrong answers, saying “no… as if they committed a crime. Instead … I use … try again, not far, justify your answer, why” (TMH). Another teacher acknowledged being unfair to her learners by providing complicated written tasks, texts and examples. Reflecting on her way of teaching writing, she said:

Before, I found difficulties in teaching writing. I used to blame my learners for their weak products. In fact, I did not lead them and teach them how to do. But now I am teaching writing with confidence. My learners are able to produce a piece of writing because I provided them with a model. (TMF)

(TMF) also explicated that she had “so many misunderstanding about teaching, but after this period [PDP], things became clearer than before” One of her corrected misconceptions follows: “It seemed to me difficult to teach using games, but I was wrong. I learnt that it is easy to learn English in an enthusiastic way” (TMF).

4.3 Participants’ ELT Conceptual Constructions

Understanding of concepts implies the ability to explain how and why they function the way they do (Von Glasersfeld, 2002). In line with this constructivist postulate, although the participants’ subjective interpretations released some light on their understanding of the already presented ELT concepts, some selected idiosyncratic conceptual constructions were worthy to analyse.

4.3.1 The Concept of Lesson Planning

One of the teachers explicated that “the aims of the lesson or a sequence (a series of lessons) should be SMART (Scales, 2008), which means specific, measurable, achievable, relevant and time-bound” (THF). Additionally, she showed her awareness of the importance of planning before class begins, stating that “The teacher should plan his lesson before coming to classroom in order to avoid confusion, poor performance; to be well organised and more confident” (THF).
4.3.2 The Concept of Classroom Management

Most teachers conceptualized that classroom management is the sine qua non of a successful lesson (Scrivener, 2005) and the responsibility of the teacher. Aware of its importance, a teacher wrote that “classroom management is one of the secrets of the lesson success” (THF) or “a half success of the teacher” (TGN). Also, the participants interpreted this concept differently. For instance, (TGN) associated classroom management with time management, keeping discipline, teacher roles and interaction patterns. (THF) understood it as time and space management and teacher roles. Whereas (TMF) highlighted that a successful classroom management is based mainly on teacher-learner relationship and communication: 

One of the things that we rarely discuss is human connection and relationship. We should think of how to take our learners from where they are to what they need to be. It will never happen if we don’t understand them, their needs to have a relationship, to make them trust us. (TMF)

Additionally, teachers grasped that problems of misbehaviour are a result of boredom, routine and teacher-learner distance; hence, they conceptualized that it is their own role to create a motivating learning environment and be closer to their learners’ needs and problems. To keep discipline, a teacher suggested these solutions: “rewarding learners to motivate them and using tutorial sessions to solve some of their problems” (TCA). This teacher found that the key for this problematic situation is in providing “a motivating learning atmosphere that helps them to be motivated using supports that connect to real-life situations” (TGN).

4.3.3 The Concept of Assessment and Related Concepts

Casting light on their understanding of the concept assessment, its types (i.e. (diagnostic, formative and summative) and the rationale for its use in an ELT classroom, (TOI), (TGN) and (THF) respectively voiced:

Assessment: T collects evidence concerning his work. Learners’ problems should be detected and solved through asking questions, observing, listening and testing. (TOI)
Collecting evidence about Ss’ progress to find out … what Ss have learnt in the lesson and what I am going to teach next… it can be all the time… it can be formal in tests and exams and informal during classroom activities… through it I can assess Ss’ language and language skills. (TGN)
[Diagnostic assessment] is to make decisions about their [learners‘] level at the beginning of a year, term or a lesson. [Formative assessment] can be during the sessions to provide T/L with feedback showing progress and to spot the learners’ problems. [Summative assessment] is formal, individual and marked. (THF)

Highlighting the primordial role of using peer-correction to make learners responsible and autonomous, learning from their peer mistakes, this teacher (TYH) wrote: “The peer correction of the home work … made my pupils aware of the mistakes of their class mates and of the hard task that the teacher is doing.” The definitional interpretations of the two concepts, ICQ and CCQ, as well as their uses were also demystified. The following is a selected quotation:
CCQ or concept checking question [is used] to assess learners’ understanding of the target language [e.g. the future]; I test them by the end of the lesson to know whether they grasped the new TL or not. ICQ or instruction checking question is used in place of the expression (have you understood?). It is a kind of assessment through questions about what the instruction is about. (TOI)

4.3.4 The Concept of Reflective Practice through PDJs

Some teachers preferred to pinpoint the benefits they got from using PDJs as useful reflective documents to develop their reflective practice. They voiced:

The journal has an effective role which is improving the status of teaching and learning. As a professional activity, it focuses on how teachers can improve pupils’ learning. (TCA) PDJ raises my self-confidence. It helps me to discover myself and weaknesses. Writing my professional progress helps me to build myself. It gives me answers to my questions; where was I? And where Am I? (TMK)

Writing reflections about my teaching helped me a lot to become the teacher I always wanted to be. Of course I am still on my way, but now I know the direction. (TOI)

4.4 Participants’ Constructivist Mindset

Wearing a constructivist hat, contemporary TE and PD designs view teachers as active, thinking and decision-making learners “whose actions are influenced by their unobservable cognitive (and affective) dimension of teaching” (Borg, 2011, p. 218). Being “unobservable”, “teacher cognition …what teachers know, believe and think” (Borg, 2003, p.81) is hard to access unless indirect strategies such as visual symbols (e.g. drawing), a teaching material (e.g. lesson plan) or any stimulating proxies are used (See Birello, 2011). Therefore, the participants’ reflections would serve as indirect strategy to explore their mindset through their written verbalization and externalization of their internalized thoughts (Johnson, 2009). Maybe the participants’ reiteration of these phrases such as “I constructed”, “I learnt”, “I’ve learnt”, “I built”, “I recognized” as well as their use of dictums and metaphoric images can be conceived of as evidence of the construction of a constructivist mindset on teaching and learning.

4.4.1 Teachers as lifelong learners

Under the umbrella of constructivist epistemology, teachers are regarded as learners (Farrell & Jacobs, 2010; Johnson, 2009) who continuously learn and scaffold others’ learning, and their loci of activity are thought of as “learning communities” (Clarke & Hollingsworth, 2002, p.949). In spite of their idiosyncratic constructions, some teachers’ beliefs seem to align with these proposals. As an example, this teacher voiced: “I learnt that the teacher is an old learner… classroom is a micro society” (TGN). “I constructed that a teacher is a person who is learning and teaching all his life”, said (TBM). Maybe in indirect metaphoric style, this participant appears to say that along their continuous growth and development, teachers constantly learn. She put it thus:

I learnt that [teacher] professional development is like a seed which springs forth in spring… You must have constant sunlight, constant water and constant nutrition for constant growth. (TBS)

4.4.2 Teachers as self-directed and co-learners
Referring to Vygotsky’s (1978) thoughts of ZPD, the zone between independent performance and aided-joint performance in which the development of the former is fully determined by the latter (van der Veer &Valsiner, 1991), these participants demonstrated their understanding of being dependent on peer’s collaborative assistance to understand and do is just one of the means that leads to independent thinking and idiosyncratic decision-making through continuous comparative reflections. They grasped that although dependence on other peers is crucial to share and discuss diverse ideas and beliefs, it is not an end in itself but rather a tool, leading to independence, for learning is “understood as a self-regulating process of resolving inner cognitive conflicts that often become apparent through concrete experience, collaborative discourse, and reflection” (Brooks & Brooks, 1993, p. vii). In summary, four excerpts are selected as under:

The training days were fruitful for us … we share many ideas, many experiences; different ones through open debate. Maybe my lesson plan is not the same with my colleagues… I share mine and I take what is necessary and different… I recognized my way and style of thinking. (TBM)

I changed my philosophy to make my learners understand and learn English… I watched some [Y]ouTube conferences; I attended lessons with my colleagues to find answers to my questions. I took what I noticed and experienced it with my learners… to see their reactions. I found it useful to use games and grouping learners. (TMF)

The difference is that now I work with reflection in, on and for action. The rationale became a nature/something natural and I am ‘contaminating’ my colleagues, I know now that I should. (TOI)

Meetings and different contacts with my colleagues gave me ideas about new strategies to present a successful lesson and to assess my learners correctly. (TMK)

4.4.3 Teachers as facilitators of learner-centered learning

Teaching and learning are not synonymous; how best we teach does not necessarily make others learn, that’s why all foci are on the learner being the centre of learning. The teacher’s role is just to scaffold the process of his/her cognitive development through modelling, coaching in an authentic problem-solving learning environment (Jonassen, 1999). Yet, without a closer safe contact with this learner to understand his/her characteristics and needs, the teacher cannot achieve the ultimate goal, learning. This contemporary constructivist discourse is conceptualized and adopted by these participants. Highlighting the importance of using learner-related authentic materials, a teacher advanced: “The successful lesson is that what is touched by learner’s skin, feelings and hands” (THF). This participant seems aware of her role as an educator, a facilitator whose way of teaching is learner-governed, as she averred:

What I believe in is that every teacher is an educator. Every child needs a champion, a hero, and the teacher educator can be this hero… to be a good teacher is to love what you teach and who you teach. If the child cannot learn the way we teach, maybe we should teach the way he/she learns. Every child needs a coach, why won’t be our learner’s coach. (TMF)
Emphasizing the primordial role of teacher-learner rapport, fuelled by an encouraging discursive exchange to furnish a tolerant just learning environment, another view goes as under:

I built some ideas: I have to build talents rather than criticising them… To encourage my learners to reach their goal, I have to be sensitive and attentive… I have to plant justice and tolerance between my pupils to keep the channel of communication always open… be advisor, helper… (TBM)

Asking about whether her “…preparation, planning and control can guarantee that [her] learners will learn” and whether she can control her learners’ learning, (TCA) conceptualized that:

Pupils’ learning should be eventual outcome of all my efforts… It’s not me who is going to make [them] learn. The pupils have to do it themselves. I should orient them and put them on the road… Getting curious not furious about my learners will help me in preparing my best year. (TCA)

4.5 Participants’ Reflections on Praxis

Since writing about and reflecting on a teaching event, teachers will make sense of what they experienced in their classrooms (Johnson, 2009), the participants’ PDJs also included some narrative accounts (Johnson, 2009) coupled with reflective thoughts about their or other witnessed in vivo classroom practices (Richards & Lockhart, 1996). Diverse actions and reactions about their (un) successful lessons, problems faced or even their feedback on the inspector’s (researcher’s) visits were analysed. The following are selected accounts of the participants’ self- and peer-assessment of some scenes of their classroom practice.

4.5.1 Self-assessment of teaching acts

Throughout her narrative account, this teacher (TMF) appeared to be satisfied after being able to support and motivate her slow beginner learners. Additionally, she raised the issue of heterogeneous learner achievement during summative assessment. Puzzled about her pupils’ poor results in the written test, she wrote: “I thought the test was easy and we practiced a lot… I noticed that they did well in oral test, but the written test was difficult for them.” Conscious of this dilemma, she added that “I tried to answer my learners’ needs to make them develop.”

What follows are three samples of the teachers’ feedback on the inspector’s (the researcher’s) observations of their classes. Self-assessing the presented lesson, this teacher was fully conscious that her lesson was “70% successful” because “some pupils were disconnected” (THF). Conversely, she positively reflected on the inspector’s satisfaction (constructive feedback). Giving examples of her strong points, she advanced that “the inspector was satisfied about the use of materials [the map of Algeria with colourful slips of paper to describe the weather forecast] and the use of ICQ and CCQ” (THF). In spite of her fear (lesson syndrome) of the visit, this participant joyfully accepted the inspector’s constructive feedback, a mirror to her areas for improvement. Reflecting on this experience she pointed out:

The inspector visited me on May 5th 2016. I was so afraid. I had the 3rd year class. He showed me the right way to prepare a writing lesson. He told me also that pupils always need a demo [demonstration] before starting any step or task. (TBN)
Unlike the former, (TYH) revealed her enthusiasm for being visited by the inspector because she wanted to be assessed, as she said: “I was very happy because I wanted to know where I am.” She found the observation an opportunity for signposting her areas for improvement albeit dissatisfied about her performance. The focal point in her reflective narrative is the adequate use of some concepts dealt with during the programme such as reflection on and for action, advice and areas for improvement instead of the pejorative term, weaknesses, and her initiative to better exploit the given feedback in her future classes. Highlighting some concepts in her reflection, she voiced:

I was not satisfied of my work, but at least I discovered my areas for improvement. In the debate, he [the inspector] reflected on my actions and gave me some advice. After the debate, I reflected for my actions and I brought change to my lesson plan and to the support [it was a long boring text]. It was really a successful lesson [the modified one]. At that moment, I wished … my inspector was again present in my classroom. (TYH) (Researcher’s emphasis)

Delving into her reflections on a peer-observation event, as she invited her colleagues to attend a lesson she presented herself disclosed the participant’s awareness of the key elements of a successful lesson. Chief among them are the following: learner engagement and interaction, accurate use of learning for objective achievement. Satisfied with her performance she put it thus:

I was really happy and satisfied because my pupils were fully engaged with me… my colleagues appreciated my way of presenting the lesson … and the way of preparing my learning sequence … the way they [learners] interacted… They thanked me and my pupils. At that moment, I realized that I have reached my objective. (TBF)

4.5.2 Peer-assessment of teaching acts

Contrary to former analyses, this scrutiny targets the teachers’ reflections as observers of their peers in action. Among the four teachers who reflected on their peer-observation acts, (TOI) is selected. The striking point about her (TOI) narrative is her analytic style, the outcome of which is the concluding take-away tips. Reflecting on a text-based grammar lesson, she grasped that the text itself should be read silently by learners; that throughout the comprehending process, the teacher should guide and assess learners’ understanding of the text via goal-oriented tasks and carefully chosen questions; that explaining and demonstrating what to do are keys for lesson or task success. Here is an excerpt of her thoughts:

Pupils should read the text themselves. The teacher should not read for them, but through activities, the teacher will ensure their understanding… the teacher explains the instruction through doing the first question as an example and helps them to form correct sentences… and at the same time she asks some questions to guide and ensure their understanding. (TOI)

4.6. Participants’ Opinions about the Inspector (Researcher)

(Social) constructivist underpinnings do favour a learning environment where mutual respect, trust and empathy should be fostered among all learning parties. Collaborative-cooperative rather than superior-inferior spirit should haunt facilitator-participant relationship. In such democratic scene, the facilitator can be considered as the powder keg’s igniter of motivational learning. The
in-depth analysis of the participants’ PDJs disclosed their satisfaction with the work of the facilitator (the researcher), his motivating character and dialogic methodology. They revealed that the facilitator or leader provided them with new concepts and techniques, changed their philosophy and approach and raised their self-confidence to progress in their performance. (TFS) subscribed to this view: “We have learned from our distinguished leader the best instructions and the best ways.” Closer to this thought, (TBF) avowed that “He [the facilitator] gave us many techniques that lead to progress.” Following similar positive reactions of commitment and self-confidence, (TYH) put it thus: “The leader changed my attitudes towards teaching. My aim today is not to become a good teacher but a professional one.” (TMF) corroborated this reaction:

I became happier when the inspector [the researcher] remembered me… really he raised my confidence and trust on myself… after his compliments [constructive feedback], I became self-confident and tried to do my best in my work (TMF)

5. Implications and Recommendations

The qualitative content analysis of the participants’ reflections (PDJs) revealed some promising idiosyncratic signs of constructivist learning and positive reactions. In terms of constructivist learning, the participants, though with different interpretations, constructed new concepts (e.g. SMART Objectives, ICQ, CCQ, assessment and reflection) and corrected some misconceptions (e.g. unsupported writing tasks, games’ ineffectiveness, authoritative teacher and discipline) about English teaching/learning together with other conceptual constructions about themselves as reflective self-directed and co-learners who can learn individually from their self-assessment or collaboratively from their peer-assessment of their teaching acts. Their positive reactions were also flagged up in their PDJs, as they expressed their satisfaction about the motivating facilitator, their learning and the constructivist techniques that raised their self-confidence and willpower to boost their English teaching practice.

Since data from diaries or journals/PDJs of a meager number of individuals (14 teachers) in a given context (Algerian PD evaluation) can be generalized to other people within other settings through the theory they create, confirm or disconfirm (Griffée, 2012), the researcher suggests that if well exploited, PDJs can be fruitful constructivist evaluative tools of TE and PD programmes. Instead of using pencil-paper tests with their high affective filter, teachers through reflections are more likely to deliberately and willingly reveal about their learning and reactions in a safe learning environment, a means to improve future programmes and meet teachers’ idiosyncratic affective and cognitive needs.

For better use of reflective PDJs as constructivist self- and peer-assessment tools in schools and TE and PD loci, the researcher recommends that first and foremost both facilitators (be they inspectors or mentors) and teachers should construct the concepts of constructivism, reflection on and in action, reflective practice and PDJ in addition to the rationale for using them. Besides, they should see some preliminary how-to-do models and hands-on practice for writing, categorising and analysing their reflections. Otherwise, it would be odd and an intellectual dictatorship to expect sound reflective practice from teachers who have never learnt about and practised reflection nor used PDJs.
6. Conclusion

The cognitive and affective analysis of the participants’ PDJs revealed signs of their construction of different ELT- and PD-related concepts, correction of some of their misconceptions together with traces of their satisfaction, self-confidence and willpower. This qualitative study, thus, confirms that the correct use and analysis of PDJs as reflective tools for evaluating teacher education and professional development programmes would inevitably provide teachers themselves with rich safe opportunities to self/peer-assess and develop their teaching concepts and practice and would help facilitators to detect teachers’ learning and reactions in order to meet their individual cognitive and affective needs in future programmes.

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References


### Appendix A. A Summary of the 14 Most Frequent sub-themes about Participants’ Learning and Reactions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Themes</th>
<th>Sub-themes</th>
<th><em>F</em></th>
<th>%</th>
<th><strong>N</strong></th>
<th>%</th>
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<tr>
<td>Comparative Reflections</td>
<td>Pre-programme Experience</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Construction of Self-Confidence</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>50</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Construction of Willpower</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>71.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correction of Misconceptions</td>
<td>Lesson Delivery &amp; Management</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>ELT Conceptual Constructions</td>
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<td>Classroom Management</td>
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<td>Assessment</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Reflective practice</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57.14</td>
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<td>Constructivist Mindset</td>
<td>Lifelong learning</td>
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<td>Self-directed and Co-learning</td>
<td>10</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Facilitators of Learning</td>
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<td>Reflections on Praxis</td>
<td>Self-assessment of teaching acts</td>
<td>6</td>
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<td>Peer-assessment of teaching acts</td>
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<tr>
<td>Opinions about the Inspector (Researcher)</td>
<td>Methodology &amp; Character</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>57.14</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

* Frequency of sub-themes across PDJs. ** Number of the analysed PDJs
Effects of Extensive Reading on Thai Tertiary Students’ Reading Attitudes

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Abstract
An exposure to free choice of inspiring reading materials among Thai students has not been largely promoted in English language class, affecting negative language learning attitudes and development of a reading habit. This present study examined the effects of extensive reading (ER) on Thai university students. To measure their attitudes towards comfort, anxiety, intellectual value, practical value and linguistic value before and after 15-week extensive reading. 68 undergraduate students were asked to complete the 5-point Likert scale questionnaire of 23 items adopted from Yamashita (2013). A semi-structure interview was also employed. The results revealed students had positive feelings in which ER increased their comfort and decreased their anxiety at the significance level of 0.05. They also had positive beliefs about the intellectual benefits. However, the practical value that ER might bring advantages to students’ study or future career was lower in the posttest. There was no significant difference between the pretest and posttest in their beliefs about English language study benefits. Qualitative data from the semi-structured interviews showed that students satisfied with their own choice of reading preference. The findings suggested the use of ER approach in English as a foreign language (EFL) classes to increase students’ positive attitudes, decrease their negative ones towards reading, and develop good reading habits through their reading engagement.

Keywords: English as a foreign language, extensive reading, reading attitudes, Thai tertiary students

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Introduction

The average reading comprehension of EFL Thai students at the tertiary level is often found to be at a low level (Pratontep, 2007). Owing to their minimal exposure to the target language, they neither read well nor have good reading habits—they see reading as a tedious and arduous activity that demands tremendous effort (ibid.). As a result, they are likely to develop negative attitudes toward reading in English. However, even with their limited English reading proficiency, they still need to read English textbooks in order to pass exams and to fulfill their studies requirements.

As advocated by a large number of researchers, ER has been proposed as one way to foster students’ interest in reading (Nuttall, 1996; Day & Bamford, 1998). ER is an approach to reading that provides students with massive amounts of comprehensible input that exposes them to a large amount of vocabulary effortlessly. They can choose what they want to read, which can contribute to their developing more positive attitudes towards reading than when they are forced to read textbooks or passages chosen by their teachers. Nuttall (1996, p. 127) has stated that ER offers “the private world of reading for our own interest”. It helps improve students’ reading skills easily and effectively; students can read better “in a favorable climate…with enjoyment”. It can also increase students’ word recognition and discourse structures, which are parts of their implicit learning system (Ellis as cited in Kirchhoff, 2013). ER, as highly supported in the study of Yamashita’s (2013), can created positive effects on EFL Japanese students’ attitudes towards reading.

Given that, the present study was conducted in order to investigate the effects of ER on Thai tertiary students’ reading attitudes.

Literature Reviews

Extensive Reading

ER is a teaching and learning approach to the second language or foreign language (L2/FL) reading in which students read a lot of books or other materials that are selected by themselves within their language competency (Day & Bamford, 1998). The exposure to practicing reading written comprehensible input in the English language which is slightly beyond the students’ current existing knowledge can stimulate language acquisition to occur (Krashen, 1992) and develop their L2/FL vocabulary and structural awareness. Through large amounts of ER, readers can better read affecting their comprehension skills and background knowledge development. ER also helps to develop students’ autonomy through repeated exposure to comprehensible materials in order to boost all of their language skills, apart from the reading skill (Maley, 2009); and learners can become exposed to the real world through reading various types of target-language materials. The students that always participated in ER outperformed those that underwent a regular instruction program (Krashen as cited in Maley, 2011) and this pays off in their exam success (Prowse, 2002). The best result that may occur is a positive attitude towards EFL learning because reading is chosen according to students’ preferences and interests which influences students’ confidence and motivation towards L2/FL reading (Grabe, 1991).

ER is good at getting students to read in English and to like reading, and it is also good at motivating them to spend more time on reading. Furthermore, ER can be done through non-printed
or printed materials, such as graded readers written in a simplified language and graded according to different difficulty levels in terms of vocabulary, grammatical structure, and a number of headwords in order to help EFL students read and learn L2/FL focusing on top daily words lists and uncomplicated grammatical structures at each level. Most of the books are graded from the beginning level (300-500 headwords) to the advanced level (2,000-3,000 headwords) with an aim to enable EFL readers to eventually read authentic materials written for English native speakers. Reading graded readers helps to motivate students to read and develop fluency in reading English, enhance and extend their grasp of vocabulary and grammatical structures, and also offer the most accessible source to expose them to the English language (Hill as cited in Wan-a-rom, 2012). Day and Bamford (2002) suggest that at least one graded reader book per week is the appropriate amount and a realistic target for learners at all proficiency levels, as books written for beginners and low-intermediate learners are very short so that they can benefit from reading extensively and establish good reading habits. However, non-printed materials mostly are online passages students can read easily through their smartphone or tablet, which is very trendy for costs saving and EFL learners can read extensively at anytime, anywhere, and at their convenience with little help from teachers.

**Reading Attitude**

Reading attitude is “a system of feelings related to reading which causes the learner to approach or avoid a reading situation” (Alexander & Filler’s, 1976, p. 1). Students’ reading attitudes are usually connected to their previous reading experiences and events, the exposure to people that read, and their perceptions about the usefulness of reading (Grabe & Stoller, 2002). Studies by Yamashita and Takase as cited in de Burgh (2011), found that students’ perceptions of the usefulness of their first language (L1) reading are more likely to be transferred to their L2/FL reading than their own feelings. When students believe in the benefits of reading, their belief will affect their attitude towards reading and their reading attitude will affect their behavior regarding reading (Fishbein & Ajzen, 1975). Day and Bamford’s (1998) model of L2 reading motivation show that materials and attitudes towards L2 reading have an equally strong effect on the desire to read, while uninspiring reading materials can cause negative attitudes towards reading and bring about boredom instead. However, the graded reader which is specifically designed to serve ER programs can inspire and possibly affect students’ positive attitudes towards foreign cultures and people. The EFL class environment where students can have their own choice of reading based on their interest and curiosity also affects positive language learning attitudes and development of a reading habit (de Burgh, 2011).

Yamashita (2013) studies the effects of ER on reading attitudes toward the English language of 61 second-year undergraduate Japanese students using a reading attitude questionnaire created by Yamashita (2007). Five attitudinal factors were examined under 22 items. The first variable is comfort, which is relevant to students’ positive and negative feelings towards ER. The second variable is anxiety or an uncomfortable feeling of nervousness about ER. Both variables represent the students’ feelings or emotions towards ER. The other three variables indicate the students’ evaluative beliefs about the three different values, which consist of intellectual value, or the students’ beliefs concerning the intellectual benefits that they might receive from reading extensively, practical value, or the idea that ER might bring benefits to them in terms of study or work, and linguistic value, or the students’ beliefs about the benefits of FL study. However, the
linguistic value was not included in the study analysis due to a ceiling effect and a small number of items under this variable. The findings revealed students’ positive feelings in which ER increased their comfort and intellectual benefits and also decreased their anxiety. However, there was no significant difference between the pretest and posttest in their beliefs towards practical value.

**Reading Anxiety**

Reading anxiety is an uncomfortable feeling of nervousness while reading the target language texts (Saito et al., 1999). To measure this variable, Saito et al. (1999) devised the 20 items of foreign language reading anxiety scale (FLRAS), examining 383 university students FL reading anxiety while taking Spanish, Russian, or Japanese course. These students’ FL classroom anxiety were also examined under 33 items scale. The findings reveal that “FL reading anxiety [exists] as a phenomenon related to, but distinct from, general FL anxiety… [both FL reading anxiety and general FL anxiety have] a negative relationship with student performance as measured by final grades” (p. 211). Reading in Japanese provoked the highest anxiety “due to the unfamiliar and non-Roman writing system as well as the foreign cultural content” (p. 212). Asking students to read the sentences aloud also caused reading anxiety in this study (p. 215). Worried and nervous participants felt uncomfortable when facing unknown words, grammar, and culture of their particular target language texts because they “expect that they should understand all the material that is presented to them” (p. 214). They devoted their effort and time to translation in order to get the tremendous understanding towards the written texts (p. 215). The participants’ beliefs towards the difficulty of their particular target language had a positive correlation with their FL reading anxiety level (p. 215). The study suggests that when implementing authentic materials in class, EFL teachers should make sure that the difficulty levels of materials are matched well with students’ literacy and also pre, while, post-reading activities should be listed explicitly in the lesson plans (pp. 216-217).

**Previous studies on extensive reading**

Numerous studies have found that ER has a positive influence on L2/FL development and learners’ attitudes toward reading. For example, considerable studies on extensive readings have been conducted from different perspective such as the relationship between ER and vocabulary development (Lee & Mallinder, 2017; Pigada & Schmitt, 2006); ER and vocabulary teaching in the study of Benettayeb (2010). ER and its effect on reading comprehension (Tanaka & Stapleton, 2007; Robb & Susser, 1989). The study of both simplified and unsimplified materials for pleasure reading by Beglar, Hunt, and Kite (2012) report an increase in the reading rates of Japanese university students. Yamashita (2004, 2007, 2008, and 2013) studied the effects of ER on Japanese university learners’ reading attitudes in their L1 and L2 and found that ER increase the students’ positive attitudes towards reading and improve their reading abilities. In her recent study (2013) she suggested more studies on reading motivation.

Several ER studies have been done in the context of Thai EFL tertiary students. Pratontep (2007, p.5), for instance, examined 76 Thai undergraduate students’ self-regulated learning strategies and their English reading comprehension in a 10-week ER program. The participants were divided into two groups of 38 each; group one was taught regular ER instruction and the other group with regular ER instruction, plus self-regulated learning strategies. The results from
the English reading comprehension posttest mean scores showed no significant difference between the two groups. Both groups used “all three categories of self-regulation—metacognitive regulation, performance regulation, and learning environment regulation”. Channuan (2012) examined second-year undergraduate Thai students’ learner autonomy strategies and their English reading ability in a 10-week ER program. Based on the findings, 37 participants often used cognitive and metacognitive strategies and their English reading ability was also improved together with positive attitudes towards ER and learner autonomy. With unmotivated students taking a reading course at one university, Laoarun (nd.) investigated 30 participants’ attitudes before and after attending an ER program using tales, there was an increase in the participants’ positive attitudes toward reading. Tamrackitkun (2010) explored reading comprehension, fluency, and students’ attitudes after being exposed to ER. 284 EFL Thai participants, under two experimental groups and four control groups, reported their positive effects of ER on the students’ reading comprehension and improvement in reading fluency plus their positive attitude toward ER. The findings also suggest that giving additional marks helps encourage the students to read. Controlled reading in class with timed reading tests was preferred in this study.

Research Question

1. How does extensive reading affect Thai EFL tertiary students’ attitudes towards reading?

Methodology

Participants

The participants were 68 second-year undergraduate students enrolling in an elective reading course, 40 of whom were from engineering and 28 from applied science. They were between 18-21 years of age and did not take any other English courses while the study was conducted.

Instruments

The original twenty-two item reading attitude questionnaire with five attitudinal factors using a 5-point Likert scale by Yamashita (2013) was used. One additional item was added on linguistic item (item 23) in this study because the original questionnaire has only three items asking for linguistic value while the other values have at least four items. Additionally, Yamashita finally deleted this variable out of her study analysis due to a ceiling effect and a small number of items used for it. The questionnaire measured the participants’ feelings of comfort (6 items), feelings of anxiety (5 items), the intellectual value (5 items), the practical value (4 items), and 4 items of linguistic value at the beginning and the end of the study. The 23-item reading attitude questionnaire was translated into the Thai language and checked by an expert in the field of language translation. The content of the revised version was validated based on the Index of Item-Objective Congruence (IOC) by three English language teaching experts. The estimated reliability of the instrument using Cronbach’s alpha coefficient (α) was 0.75.

To elicit in-depth information regarding students’ attitude, ten participants (15%) with the highest and lowest reading times were selected and asked to have an individual semi-structured interview at his/her own time of convenience. The interviews were audiotaped and conducted in Thai for participants’ full understanding. The researcher followed a pretest-set list of questions as a guide to facilitate the informants’ interactions at the beginning, “but can digress and probe for
more information” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 365) to let the discussion moves without constraints from the researcher’s preconceived ideas and complement the data from the questionnaires.

Procedure

This study used a pretest-posttest design to compare the results from the participants’ pretest and posttest reading attitude questionnaires. During the experiment, the participants attended a three-hour class for fifteen weeks of a reading course. In week 1, the author, as the reading course teacher, met and got to know the participants. After most of the participants came to the classroom and finished the “getting to know you” activity, the teacher asked them to complete the reading attitude questionnaire as a pretest. They were told that there was no right or wrong answer and that their opinions would not affect their grade so they could feel free to express their real opinions. Next, the reading course description, objectives, material, and evaluation were introduced. Then the ER concept, the significance and benefit of the study, and materials selection were explained. Finally, the participants selected their preferred graded readers from the Self-Access Learning Center. Certain web links were also provided as another source for reading selection since some students might prefer reading through their smartphones, tablets, or computers.

The participants were asked to read extensively both inside and outside class at least twelve times during fifteen weeks—seven times before the midterm exam and five times after that, approximately one reading a week. They were suggested to spend at least fifteen minutes outside the classroom on their self-selected reading materials. Four to seven participants were assigned to talk about their two materials weekly before the midterm exam week.

From weeks 3 to 8, four to seven participants came to talk about their two ER materials before and/or after the class time. The teacher listened to the students and asked some questions or discussed problems they found while reading and encouraged them to continue reading. Twenty minutes before the end of the class time each week, the participants read their self-selected and easy-to-understand material without any interruption from the teacher. The participants had to find time to read outside of the class for at least fifteen minutes continuously. Totally, before the midterm exam participants had to complete seven ER materials.

During week 9, the rest of the participants came to talk about their ER materials. The teacher reminded them to continue their reading after their midterm exam.

From weeks 10 to 14, six to eight participants talked about one of their five ER materials before and/or after the class time. Twenty minutes before the end of the class time the participants read independently, and they also had to find time to read outside of the class for at least fifteen minutes continuously to complete five ER materials before the final exam arrival.

During week 15, the teacher administered the reading attitude questionnaire as a posttest to the participants and told that ten of them with the highest and lowest reading times would be invited to have an interview with her on the 11th - 14th January 2016.

One limitation of this study is that the researcher as a teacher conducted the interviews with her own students. The negative effect due to the teacher-student power relationship may exist in
the interview. The students as informants may provide data to please their teacher, which does not fully reflect reality, or what is known as *Halo effect*. To avoid their feelings towards the teacher-student power relationship, the semi-structured interviews were scheduled after the official grading announcement was made.

**Results**

To answer the research question, a dependent sample *t*-test was used to compare the data obtained from the pretest and posttest reading attitude questionnaires. The results revealed that there were differences between the pretest and posttest mean scores regarding the four attitudinal variables; namely, comfort, anxiety, intellectual value, and practical value at the .05 level (*p*<.05), but no difference regarding linguistic value was found.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S.D.</th>
<th><em>t</em></th>
<th><em>p</em></th>
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<tr>
<td>Comfort</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6.258*</td>
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<td>Anxiety</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
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<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
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<td>Intellectual value</td>
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<td>.020</td>
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<td>Practical value</td>
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<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
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<td>0.38</td>
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*p*<.05 (2-tailed)

**Discussion**

According to the findings, ER, implemented during the 15-week elective EFL reading course, positively affected students’ attitudes with increases in terms of comfort, intellectual, linguistic whereas showing the decrease in students’ posttest of anxiety and practical value. The posttest mean scores of comfort increased to 0.37, but for anxiety, the only negative variable, the posttest mean scores decreased from the pretest to 0.24. Both magnitudes of mean scores differences were at the top two. From cognitive perspective, *choice* as Williams and Burden (1997) stated, is of central importance. It allows people to have choice over the way in which they behave and, therefore, have control over their actions” (p. 119). ER is given the wide choices of material selection, difficulty level, place, time, and reading pace for the participants to be able to control over their action and decision, thus contributing to positive attitudes towards reading. After success in the first few English readings, they would have more confidence in their reading ability, have less anxiety to overcome and be willing to continue their independent reading. Krashen
(1982) emphasizes the significance of these factors—motivation, self-confidence, and anxiety in language acquisition. Positive attitudes regarding these three factors were shown in the qualitative data:

“ER was useful…Normally, I do not read any books but I immersed in Swan Lake and I developed my reading skills”. (Student#15)

“I become fluent in reading English and open the dictionary less than before due to the assigned ER activity”. (Student#40)

“This course taught me how to spend my free time effectively and usefully and I could improve my language skills”. (Student#45)

“I was satisfied with what I was interested in reading and I really liked to read. I preferred printed reading materials because they are easy to read”. (Student#60)

“I felt satisfied reading fairy tales because they were easy to understand and I could search and read directly on the Internet”. (Student#64).

The findings of present study is resonant with those of Yamashita’s (2013). The Thai EFL university participants’ feeling of comfort increased whereas their anxiety was lowered.

The findings also showed the posttest mean scores of intellectual and linguistic increased to 0.13 and 0.02 respectively. It is interesting to note that the posttest mean scores of the practical value were lower than the pretest at -0.25 even though it was not a negative variable. At the beginning of this study, the participants did the pretest reading attitude questionnaire before knowing anything about ER. They simply defined reading as part of testing to get good grades or screen people for institutions or workplaces. They associated the English language reading with either academic studies or better opportunities for jobs in the future. The sole prior reason was to mark their progress. Reading as an assessment tool for their desired educational degree. Therefore, the pretest questionnaire items of the practical value mean scores were at 4.13, which were the highest pretest mean scores and consistent with their expectations. After exposing to ER for a semester, the participants understood more about the characteristics of ER. They realized that it was reading for enjoyment and pleasure and was meant to motivate them to spend more time on reading in large quantities and varieties with no requirements for exercises, comprehension questions, or evaluation. Consequently, the participants had negative perception on the future outcome that ER could bring benefits to them in terms of study or work reflecting through the posttest mean scores of the practical value was lower than that of the pretest ($\bar{x} = 3.88$). Some participants in this study may misinterpret the nature of easy and enjoyable English reading materials as shortcomings, comparing to their expectations of reading in English

The insignificant gain score of the linguistic value with the lowest mean scores differences at 0.02 was possibly caused by the characteristics of ER as reading for pleasure, with no effects on the course grade like other previous reading passages with a list of comprehension questions. ER just prepares students to be able to read more academic reading (Grabe as cited in Yamashita,
Effects of Extensive Reading on Thai Tertiary Students’

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2015). This is in line with Yamashita’s proposition; “the expectations for cognitive demands and levels of professional specialization are higher in academic reading than in ER( ”2015, p. 171 ) since students then may not regard ER in the aspects of cognitive view because ER does not give them immediate feedback in terms of thinking and understanding complicated things, bringing no FL study or work benefits. This is unlike their feelings of comfort or anxiety that they could receive immediately while reading extensively as a real-time feedback toward reading materials. After finished the ER materials, the participants in this study did not have any assessment of their reading such as quiz, listing vocabulary, or comprehension questions. Instead, they just reflected their happiest moment of their reading, explaining why the affective variable was dominant in the present study. Macalister argues that “students often have clear expectations about the role of the teacher and the outcomes they seek from the course; reading for its own sake does not fit these expectations” (2010, p. 68). In the present study, the participant perceived negative effects of ER on their language learning. This may stem from the fact that the ER approach is not designed to distinguish students in terms of reading abilities or language proficiencies so students are not likely to perceive the plausible benefits in their studies. Moreover, these sixty-eight participants were in their second year so the benefits that ER could bring for their future work were too far for them to realize. Finally, due to limited exposure to ER, “15 weeks is not necessarily sufficiently long for the full benefits of ER to materialize” (Yamashita, 2013, p. 256). For the cognitive variables to develop, it takes a longer time span than the affective variables in order to see the inherent ER effects. This is supporting by the qualitative findings when asking the participants whether they still continue their English ER or not. Only three participants out of ten mentioned that they would continue their extensive reading. This can vividly reflect the very characteristics of ER, largely affecting reader’s feelings rather than cognitive perspective. Readers need to have an interest and curiosity to start reading. The similar findings about the impact of ER on affective than cognitive domain can be found more in the studies of Karlin and Romanko (2010); Yamashita (2008); Greenberg et al. (2006).

Conclusion

The present study contributes to research in the area of ER and reading as it confirmed the positive effects of ER on EFL reading attitudes. The five-point Likert scale for the reading attitude questionnaire in the present study measured the students’ attitudes, consisting of five variables—comfort, anxiety, intellectual value, practical value, and linguistic value—before and after reading extensively for 15 weeks. The study revealed students’ positive attitudes towards reading gained from ER. Their comfort increased while their anxiety decreased when reading EFL materials. The study also reported positive beliefs about the intellectual benefits. However, the participants perceived no practical value that ER might bring advantages to students’ study or future career. Negative perception on cognitive domain of ER was found. In order to verify the cognitive value of ER, future research should be conducted for a longer period than 15 weeks.

Pedagogical Implications

This study serves as one of the research studies that have examined the attitudinal variables regarding the ER of EFL Thai tertiary students. The findings from this study shed lights on the use of ER as a teaching method for motivating Thai tertiary students to spend more time on reading with enjoyment to develop better reading habits to become avid, autonomous, and life-long readers. Perceiving ER benefits takes time and needs students to pursue reading continuously
during such a longer period of time so giving marks as a reward to motivate desired and persistent behaviors to pursue their reading goals is considered as an initial and external force to begin to read. Hopefully, they will develop their internal desire to do ER, which is considered to be more important in L2/FL achievement and sustain their learning ability (Williams & Burden, 1997; Komiyama, 2009).

This study does not cover an in-depth investigation on personal meanings and value in a reading community. For the future ER practice, the teacher should provide chances for students to share their readings with friends in class such as having an ER club in order to increase their reading engagement and encourage their motivation to read in large amount that can sustain their prolonged reading behavior. As a social being, students may form or construct their identities in accordance with a group they share the same interests with, they also may be proud of themselves when someone is interested in what they share. Therefore, ER appears to be one of the best choices to bring students’ low intrinsic motivation back and stay engaged with language learning through the self-control over attractive reading materials based on students’ preferences.

For educators and educational administrators, the findings of the present study will enable them to adjust their course content or curriculum so as to promote ER in the language classroom.

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**References**


Appendix A

Yamashita’s (2013) Reading Attitude Questionnaire (*Item 23 was added in this study)
1. I can become more sophisticated if I read English.
2. I can get various kinds of information if I read English.
3. Reading English is troublesome.
4. Reading English is useful for my future career.
5. I feel anxious if I do not know all the words.
6. I can acquire vocabulary if I read English.
7. Reading English is useful to get a good grade in class.
8. I can acquire broad knowledge if I read English.
9. I feel relaxed if I read English.
10. I sometimes feel anxious that I may not understand even if I read.
11. I can develop reading ability if I read English.
12. Reading English is useful to get credit for class.
13. Reading English is dull.
14. I get to know about new ways of thinking if I read English.
15. I can improve my sensitivity to the English language if I read English.
16. I feel tried if I read English.
17. I feel anxious when I’m not sure whether I understood the book content.
18. I feel refreshed and rested if I read English.
19. Reading English is useful to get a job.
20. I do not mind even if I cannot understand the book content entirely.
21. Reading English is enjoyable.
22. I get to know about different values if I read English.
23. Encountering unfamiliar expressions in English improves my English.

Appendix B

Semi-structured interview questions

1. What do you think about English ER activity after you participated in this semester? Do you think English ER is useful? Why? Why not?
2. Were you satisfied with your self-selected reading materials? Why?
3. How do you rate yourself as a reader before and after English ER activity? Did your reading ability improve? How?
4. Do you still continue your English ER? Why or why not?
The Effect of the Use of Technology on the nature of Teacher’s Profession

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Abstract
Educational programmes have recognized the growing need to use computers in the classes as it presents unprecedented challenges that help the students to acquire an inquiring, critical and creative mind to capitalize on the opportunities driven by the growth of information, knowledge and technology. The computer knowledge has begun influencing student’s learning experience for more than 25 years ago, but it was in a moderate manner (Cuban, 2001). However, the past decade has witnessed major trend toward integrating computer technology in all the language classes. The integration has increased because the computer technology represents an accessible and instant information, enormous potential for interactivity and media–rich communication, as well as educational tools which engage the students in the classroom (Mouza, 2002). Undoubtedly the recent advancement in information technology and computer usage in the classroom is rapidly transforming the environment of the classroom. The teachers cannot ignore the reality the today’s classroom must provide technology-supported learning (Angers & Machtmes, 2005). Being prepared to integrate the technology in the classroom has become a paramount skill in every teacher’s professional repertoires. The traditional role of the teacher as the center of the schooling is changing recently with all the introduction of the new technologies in the classroom. One of the effects of the new technologies is the decentralization of teachers in the learning environment (Damrian, 1998). This introduces a very valid point of how the teaching profession will change in the era of digital technologies. What is the role of the teacher in a classroom where he/she is no longer the only source of knowledge? How can he/she teach effectively in a class, where every student has his/her computer and can Google any piece of information? The following study will investigate the effect of the implementation of the technology in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classes on the nature of the teachers’ profession.

Keywords: Digital immigrants, digital natives, integration, new technologies Technology-enhanced environment, Professionalism,

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Introduction

Teaching English for Speakers of other languages (TESOL) has always struggled to construct a professional identity. English teaching has historically been seen as “a natural gift or a talent” (Nunan, 1999b, para.4) rather than a discipline or acknowledged profession. To address and mitigate these concerns, professional organizations, which are concerned with teacher’s professional development, strongly advise those who want to join the English as a foreign language profession to work hard on achieving high standards of practice as well as certification. Yet despite marked progress toward professional recognition, TESOL is still strongly associated with a public perception of language teaching as “nonprofessional.” Untrained teachers who move abroad to teach foreign language often reinforce the idea of teaching English as means to an end: to finance travel adventures, practice a foreign language, or put off finding a “real job” (Lorimer & Schutle, 2011).

The origins of professionalism are traced in law, medicine and clergy (Freidson, 1971). These three occupations framed the key traits of a professional occupation that distinguish them from all the others (Whitty, 2008). However, as Whitty (2008) specifically points out, “more recent sociological perspectives on professionalism have rejected such normative notions of what it means to be a professional” (p. 32). Furthermore, regarding teachers’ professionalism, Hargreaves (2000) identifies such a development through four broad historical phases. a) The pre-professional age, in which teaching was seen “as managerially demanding but technically simple, and its principles and parameters were treated as unquestioned commonsense. “One learned to be a teacher through practical apprenticeship, and one improved as a teacher by individual trial-and-error” (p. 156). b) The age of autonomous professional, which was marked by “a challenge to the singularity of teaching and the unquestioned traditions on which it is based” (p. 161). c) In the age of the collegial professional, there are increasing efforts “to build strong professional cultures of collaboration” (pp. 165-166). Finally, the post-professional age or postmodern “is driven by two major developments in economics and the electronic and digital revolution in communications” (p. 167). These phases can be identified in various countries all over the world but not in the same order.

Moreover, Hargreaves (2000) states that “teaching in many parts of the world is in the midst or on the edge of a great transformation” (p. 151). Indeed, until now, schools and consequently teachers face a broad spectrum of changes and reforms, which raise standards and demands and have impact on their roles and responsibilities. These, in turn, become increasingly extended including current and emerged issues such as new forms of families, parental involvement, multicultural society, new technologies and greater policy control (Hargreaves, 2000; 2001). Teachers’ work becomes more demanding and restricted and teachers are forced to work, in ways they had never been taught. This changing nature of teaching affects teachers’ work and therefore the notion of their professionalism.

This brings us to the background to the proposed study that originated from the increasing demand of implementing more information communication technology in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classes in one of the universities in the Middle East. The continuous push of integrating more technology in the EFL classes aims not only at preparing the students for the
future, but also at making teaching and learning more engaging by enabling the students to construct their own knowledge and explore topics of interest, which is congruent with what we know about how people learn (Cuban, 2001). Traditional approaches to language teaching and learning have been challenged by new and innovative approaches based on the latest advances in computer and Internet technology. The vast resources and opportunities that computers and Internet provide have brought about new tools, approaches, and strategies in language teaching and learning. The success of any initiatives to implement technology in an educational programme depends strongly upon the support and attitudes of teachers involved. It has been suggested that if teachers believed or perceived computers not to be fulfilling their own or their students’ needs, they are likely to resist any attempts to introduce technology into their teaching and learning (Askar & Umay, 2001).

Having said that, the availability of the technology does not necessarily mean that the technology has been properly and successfully integrated in EFL classes. Hence, the term of “new technology” has to be defined clearly, by the “new technology”; The researcher means computers, laptops, digital workbooks, digital boards, YouTube, and Internet connection for all devices. It is very important to differentiate between the new technology, or digital technology from the old technology such as, blackboards, whiteboards, or textbooks (Cuban, 2001). The integration of Communication Technology (ICT) in the foreign language teaching and learning process is still an issue that has not been fully studied. Therefore, it is essential to establish a relationship between what the EFL teachers think about the implementation of the technology activities and how they really use such activities in their classes so teacher’s education can be always enriched for the benefit of the EFL learners. Prensky (2005) All teachers know that digital technology is becoming an essential part in the students’ education. But just how to use it in everyday class is not yet completely clear, and most educators are at the same stage of figuring out how to use technology meaningfully for teaching and epically EFL classes and continue to develop and establish themselves as successful teaching professional.

The theoretical background

EFL teachers encounter now demands of integrating new technologies into foreign language classes. They also look for better ways of providing students with linguistic skills, meaningful communication and culture. In the technology-enhanced environment, EFL teachers are being consistently asked to change their roles in the classrooms that have become more learner–centered. The learners in today’s classroom are able to make their own decisions and become responsible for their work more independently, the EFL teacher, on the other hand, became a “facilitator”, a resource person and a counselor rather than the authority and decision maker. Amongst all these changes, the role of the EFL teacher as a professional has become ambiguous. EFL teachers have to realize that their roles in the new era of technology have changed tremendously. It is not only to transmit new knowledge, but to give students tools to acquire knowledge and recognize value of what they see in books and software as well as the internet. In addition, Jeong (2006) emphasizes that the role of the EFL teachers in EFL settings is more crucial than ever because teachers are able to motivate students and try to create language learning environments which are non-threatening, meaningful and effectively supportive by using web technology. If EFL teachers have variety of positive teaching and learning experiences in using computers, they are likely to be more confident.
and skillful teachers, which consequently make them good representative of the teaching profession (Mollaei & Riasati, 2013).

Undoubtedly the recent advancement in information technology and computer usage in the classroom is rapidly transforming the environment of the classroom. The teachers cannot ignore the reality the today’s classroom must provide technology-supported learning (Angers & Machtmes, 2005). Being prepared to integrate the technology in the classroom has become a paramount skill in every teacher’s professional repertoires (Kumar, et al, 2008).

With the improvements in technology and its use in EFL classroom, the roles of the teachers are also consistently changing. Within this change, the knowledge of the technology use has become a must for most of the foreign learners “The use of technology in teaching becomes more important in present times, because teachers also have to be able to keep up with the technological knowledge of their students” (Richards, 2014, p.2) In order to meet the expectations of the today’s ‘digital natives’, who are quite component, and very dependent to computers and other online instruments. Prensky (2001) advocates that EFL teachers started to use the technology because it submits an altered manner of demonstration and offers a kind of enthusiasm for their students. EFL teachers are fully aware that today’s learners, especially young freshman university students, have learned to focus on what interest them and on the things, that treat them as individuals rather than a group or class. In an increasingly populated world, choice, differentiation, personalization, and individualism have become extremely important necessity for the younger generation. EFL teachers need to realize that there is a huge difference between how younger EFL students think and how teachers think (Prensky 2001).

There are many studies that report the advantages of technology –based instruction for language learners (Wiburg & Butler – Pascoe, 2002), many EFL programs still lack the appropriate integration of technology into their curricula. EFL teachers are not receiving adequate instruction in the integration of technology into their courses (Kavanaugh- Brown, 1998). Consequently, teachers are faced with the challenge of integrating the technology without proper training.

There are increasingly number of technologies that are changing the professional role of the teachers in the language classes, for an example digital workbooks and digital texts. These technologies provide illustrative examples rather than a complete taxonomy various pedagogical functions in the 21st century. In the near future, teachers will employ the two technologies in the class according to the needs of the individual students and the learning goal of the unit (Dede & Richards, 2012).

The first and the easiest instructional technology are the digital workbooks, which have been adapted into computer-based workbook systems (Auzene, Giroire, & Le Calvez, 2009). They have several advantages over paper. First, they are easier to collect and grade. The teachers have access to enormous automated workbooks that the students can use to develop and master the learnt skill. Second, digital workbooks are dynamic and non-linear. Finally, they can track student’s performance over time. Each student has a digital record that track their progress over time on a range of skills and knowledge.
The second instructional technology is the digital texts, for instance, books, films, artwork, and recently ‘you tube’. In literate society, things such as books and movies provide mediated experiences; settings where we experience the events and emotions not directly but through a particular medium (Jenkins, 2006). However, students’ understanding of these experiences will be shaped by conversations with peers and with the teacher through additional learning activities set around the media source used in the class (Gee, 2007).

To start with, it is very important to discuss what being “Professional” means. It is often synonymous with “successful”, or it is always associated with a certain behavior that is expected of individuals in specific occupation (Tichenor, 2005). The definition of “professional teacher” refers to the status of a person who is able to teach, it can also refer to the teacher who presents the best in the profession and sets the highest standard for best practice (Wise, 1989). The definition itself describes the teacher who has a firm grasp of the subjects he/she teaches. He/she is able to analyze the needs of the students of whom he/she is responsible. The term “Professional teacher” also implies that the teacher knows that he/she is accountable for meeting the needs of his/her students. All the above illustrates that teaching at a professional level is a very advanced and complex process. In other words, the word “professional” is a trained or qualified specialist who displays a high standard of competent conduct in his/her practice, however, professionalism is used in a constitutive sense to refer to ‘practitioner’s’ knowledge, skills, and conduct.

The nature of the profession of English as a foreign language and how EFL teachers regard themselves as professional will be affected heavily by the continuous integration of the information Technology, since EFL teachers have to develop new skills to integrate these new tools in their teaching and learning process effectively. It is a bit challenging to EFL teachers because the integration of the technology is one of these situations in which teachers, although familiarized with the tools, are new comers to the scene and have extremely different perspectives from those of their students about their use. Although the EFL teachers know that they have to use technology, their perceptions affect their use in the classroom.

The introduction of more technology in EFL classes is forcing a change in the model of teaching, from teacher- focused approach based on instruction to a student-focused model based on collaboration (Tapscott, 1998). This change is inevitable because the nature of nowadays students have changed radically, they are no longer the people our educational system was designed to teach (Prensky 2001).

Prensky (2001) advocates that the gap between the digital native students and the digital immigrant teachers is considered one of the biggest problems in the educational system. He continued that the preference of the digital native students is incompatible with the practices of their teacher.

Therefore, the traditional role of the teacher as the center of the schooling is changing recently with all the introduction of new technologies in the classroom. One of the effects of the new technologies is the decentralization of teachers in the learning environment (Damrian, 1998). This introduces a very valid point of how the teaching profession will change in the era of digital
technologies. What is the role of the teacher in a classroom where he/she is no longer the only source of knowledge? How can he/she teach effectively in a class, where every student has his/her computer and can Google any piece of information?

The research questions
1- Has the role of the EFL teacher changed after incorporating more information communication technology in today’s classroom?
2- Do the EFL teachers feel the need to include all these new technologies that are being introduced every day?

Research Approach
The study will adopt an interpretive paradigm, which emerged in contradiction to positivism in attempts to understand and explain human and social reality (Crotty, 1989). It is developed from the methods used in sociology and social science research. Interpretivism is primarily concerned with human understanding, interpretation, inter-subjectivity, and lived truth. Any research that adopts the interpretive paradigm looks for culturally derived interpretation of the social life-world. I choose the interpretive paradigm because it captures the uniqueness and the individually of the particular participants, circumstance and their social context (Ernest, 1994).

The research methodology
The study will be exploratory study with the aim to explore the views of the ESL teachers and how they look upon their teaching profession in the light of the introduction of more technology in the classroom. The research in the interpretive paradigm builds up rich ‘thick’ descriptions of the participants under study, since the study is concerned about the teachers and their inter-relationships and contexts. These rich descriptions allow the reader to understand the study through identification, empathy, or a sense of entry into the lived reality of the study (Ernest, 1994). By adopting the interpretive paradigm, I, the researcher, begin with individuals and set out to understand their interpretation of the social context under study. Theory is emergent and must arise from particular situations; and it should precede research but follow it. (Glaser and Strauss, 1967, as cited in Cohen and el, 2007). I, the researcher, will work directly with the participants in an attempt to understand their views on the study and generate a theory based on their interpretation of the social context under study (Cohen & el, p. 18).

The Methods
The exploratory study will implement a semi structure interview. Vale (1996:88, as cited in Cohen and el, 2007) During the process of the interview, I followed the seven stages that should be put in consideration when conducting an interview based research: thematizing: designing: interviewing: transcribing: analyzing: verifying: and reporting. Prior to conducting the semi-structure interview, I had to pilot it first in case I need to adjust or change some of the questions.

The validity
The study is informed in the light of the qualitative research. The researcher, had to abide by the principles of the qualitative research: the natural setting is the principle source of data: data are socially situated, and socially and culturally saturated. I, the researcher, am part of the researched
world. There is a concern of the process rather than the outcome. I have to see and report the situation from the participants’ point of view. Maxell (1992) argues that there are five kinds of validity in the qualitative research to explore the ‘understanding’ of human experience. To start with, some of the validities are descriptive validity, interpretive validity, theoretical validity, and generalizability.

**Credibility**

Credibility is another word for trustworthiness, which is a major characteristic of all the qualitative research. Credibility criteria involve establishing that the results of qualitative research are credible or believable from the perspective of the participant in the research. It considers the breadth and depth of information gathered and how well the researcher appears to have analyzed the data. Credibility is very essential in the qualitative research as it represents one of the four for judging qualitative research. It involves trustworthiness from the perspective of the participants (Creswell 2009).

**Data collection and Analysis**

The data analysis in qualitative research will proceed hand in hand with other parts of developing the interpretive study, the data collection and writing up the findings. The text was very dense, not all the information can be used in the qualitative research. During analyzing the data, I had to “winnow” the data (Guest, Macqueen, & Namely, as cited in Creswell, 2009). During my data collection, I wrote up my analytical memos in which I reflected on the data, searching for themes and evolving ideas (Creswell, 2009). At the end of the data collection, based on the themes identified in the memos, I labeled and organized my data in password protected device.

**The participants**

The participants are six EFL teachers who work in one of the leading western university in the Middle East. They teach in the intensive English Language program. They are also required to use the digital textbooks and the digital texts in their ESL language classes. The teachers who volunteered in the study have more than 10 years of teaching experience. They are two American teachers, one Irish, one Jordanian, and two Lebanese teachers. All the participants were given pseud names to maintain the confidentiality of the data provided by participants.

**The ethical consent**

The researcher, sent the pre – thesis ethics application form to my professor for approval before he/she started the study or collect any. The researcher made sure to give a consent form with fair explanation of the procedures to be followed and their purpose to every participant.

**The limitation of the study**

The findings of this study should not be generalized to all ESL teachers in the Middle East, as the respondents involved were ESL teachers in particular university in the Middle East. This population was selected because of the ease accessibility. The findings rely heavily on the honesty of the participants. Some respondents might have different attitude participating in this study.
Results and Discussion
The study implemented an interpretive approach in an attempt to explore the teachers’ views on the use of the new technologies in the ESL classes and to what extent it affects the nature of their profession. The data from the semi-structured interviews were read thoroughly to present them in themes that relate to the research questions, rather than reporting everything the interviewees said. The data were analyzed through several techniques in order to present them accurately. Some of the used techniques are analysis of words (word repetitions and key-words in contexts) and a careful reading of larger blocks of texts. The analysis of the data lead to two major themes that were very obvious in all the interviewees’ transcription; first, teachers’ resistance to change their roles in EFL classrooms, and second, teachers’ reluctance to embrace technology because it wastes the time of the class. The two major themes will be interpreted to create explanatory accounts.

Teachers’ resistance to share roles with the students
Whenever teachers are asked to describe their role in the classroom, the first thing that comes to their mind is a facilitator. They continue to describe how they facilitate the process of education and encourage teacher-centered classroom. However, all these clichés change the minute you ask them about the way they manage their classrooms. The teachers strive to have the upper hand in deciding what to be taught or discussed in their classrooms. The researcher believes it is part of their nature to have full control on the classroom. This was very obvious when he/she interviewed the participants. All the teachers were reluctant to welcome the use of technology in the classroom, because they made them question their function/role in the classroom.

When the teachers were asked to define their role as teachers and whether this role changes when they use technologies in class, they admitted that the use of technologies make them less in control of their classrooms, or in other words not needed in the classroom. Maria stated, “It makes me not needed in the classroom “. Salma also added “Why do I have to be in class, if they are working on computers?” Susan also added “When the students are on the computers, I feel that the class went out of control, because I am not sure if they are working on the tasks or surfing the web “.

Noha added “To be honest I feel that I am useless. I am roaming around without any use when the students are on the computers. I keep moving around watching them working on their computers. I don’t know my exact role. I never use the e-books or the activities online during my class time. I always assign them as homework”. She also added “I don’t feel I am a teacher I feel I am supervisor with no real job.

I like to deliver my class myself because I feel that the students interact more with me, they understand more it is human base thing”. Jenny also highlighted “ I can’t leave the students for long on the computers because they keep doing other stuff and I can’t monitor their progress. I get annoyed when my students keep asking me to use the computer in class”. She adds that “I sometimes use the computer assisted activities at the very end of the class when I feel that the students are tired.”

John added another point “Students have been learning English for very long time without Technology. I have been teaching for over 30 years and I feel Technology is not a plus.”
This brings us to a very important point of the relationship between EFL teachers and their classes. The teacher resistance to new methods is common in the literature as it describes how it is always associated when you introduce new technology to the teacher; they first resist it because they do not know how to use it (Dawes, 1999 as cited in Mumtaz, 2000). Burner (1996) claims that all teachers have preconceived theories of how their students learn, which inform their approach to teaching. Burner continues to introduce four models of pedagogies: the acquisition of “know how”, where the learners are imitative learners, the acquisition of propositional knowledge, where students learn from didactic exposure, the development of intersubjective interchange, where the students are thinkers; and the management of “objective knowledge” where students are knowledgeable. If you have a look at these pedagogies, it is impossible to see the use of computer or new technologies in them. Until the teachers are trained well enough to integrate the technologies properly, they will not exert any effort to use them. According to Alkins and Vasu (2000), teachers attitudes and concerns have a significant influence on the use of computers in the EFL classroom. Kim (2002) points out that the crucial factors affecting the successful integration of technology into the classroom are strongly associated with teachers themselves, such as teachers’ perceptions and attitudes. She also adds that teachers’ perceptions and attitudes toward technology can be seen as a facilitating or inhibiting, giving them more confidence or a major barrier of technology use.

Teachers’ reluctance to embrace new technologies to avoid wasting time
To start with, the study has adopted the term “new technologies” to refer to the computer-based software, as well as “you type”. When the teachers were interviewed, the researcher identified that these are the types of technologies that are specified in the interview questions.

The teachers who volunteered in the study have more than 10 years teaching experience. They have started their teaching profession long before the domination of the technology over the ESL classes. Maria, who has over 10 years of teaching experience stated, “I prefer my classroom without computers”. Silvia said “The generation these days are really interested in computers and technologies, but the thing when you have a big classroom, you can’t make sure that all of them are accessing the program, so it kind of makes it harder for the teacher to control the classroom”, because the students know their way around the computers, they might go and do something else”. Salma explained her view of technology in classroom, “The use of technology can be beneficial and it can be useless”. Paula also added “I do not like having the computers in class because it is a waste of time”. Noha added a valid point “If you run a class on the computer and you are doing interactive class like blogging giving some discussions and all students interact and give their comments and you give your comments then it is something different because we to let them get into technology because now it is the century so they are going on Facebook and it is easier than before, but having extra activities online is boring in class.”

Jenny added “I feel it hinders the learning because when you have a big class, you can’t make sure that all the students are accessing the program. As you know our students are very good when it comes to using the computer and they might end up doing something else”. 
John added “I don’t like all this issue of the use of computers because it is all about pleasing our young students’. Today’s generations are used of getting everything easily and they think that if they log on the computers they will learn faster”. To summarize, it is very important to highlight the gap between today’s generation, who are referred to as “Net Generation “(Tapscott, 1998) and our EFL teachers, who are digital immigrants to technology, although born before the net generation, they continue to make use of technologies. The data collected from the interviews showed that the EFL teachers did not use the technologies fully, or as their students expected them to use them. The data showed that the ESL teachers limited their use of the technologies in using only digital book, which mainly require the students to make the same type of fill in the blanks and correct the verbs exercises, but online instead of writing them down in their workbooks. The data collected from the interviews showed that the EFL teachers approached the new technologies in the same way they would approach the printed workbook, which clearly explains why they all said that their ESL students do not enjoy finishing the exercises online. Having said the above, a couple of the fresh graduate teachers admitted that they sometimes use “you tube “in their classes and they find it really engaging. This proves the point that in order to use the technologies effectively in the EFL classes, EFL teachers need to understand the difference between the two generations and how they process the information.

One of the major drawbacks in the teachers’ use of technologies, is that they do not know when or how to integrate the technologies in their classes. One of the teachers said that she prefers to assign it as homework, whereas, another teacher said that she assigns them at the very end of the class.

**Conclusion**

Technology can have great potential in EFL classes, but this potential may be underused and undervalued simply because the teachers are reluctant to use them. The teachers are aware that the technology is here to stay, and there will be more and more technology in the future classes. The major problem is that teachers are resistant to equip themselves with more training to enable them to use it affectively in class. The teachers resist the idea that they need to learn the new technology in order to engage themselves more, or may be the teachers do not like the idea that when it comes to Technology, the students know more than them in the classroom.

The issue of integrating technologies will continue to raise so many questions, because it involves so many parties, for an example, the individual differences in using the technologies, the effective ways of using them, their effect as well as suitability on the process of learning the new language. As a final note, the integration of technologies is not a purpose in itself; on the contrary, it is only one of the tools of learning a new language.

EFL teachers need to be prepared as their role as the central role of authority will soon be changed into a guide as every student will take more responsibility for learning. A full understanding of this process will be beneficial for future generations.

**Recommendations for further study research**

This study aimed to explore the teachers’ view on how technology affects the nature of their profession. This study should be complemented by another study to explore the views of the
students on the role of the teacher in a technology-rich classroom. I presume such study will give both sides of the coin, as the ESL classes are composed of teachers and students, and both parties should have their say on the effective ways of integrating the technologies in the ESL classes.

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A Feature-Based Analysis of the Derivation of Word Order and Subject-Verb Agreement in Arabic Varieties

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Abstract

The derivation of common clause-type constructions like negation, interrogation (involving wh-elements) and declarativity (including sentences that involve topics) is a universal of sentence structure that involves a number of functional elements/items for the expression of negation, interrogation, or declarativity, cross-linguistically. However, as the present study on the derivation of syntactic word order (including subject-verb agreement configurations) in Arabic varieties shows, such functional elements/items can take a particular functional dimension within the functional domain they are part of. This study relies on sample examples from the literature on Arabic (the standard variety in particular, but also other varieties such as Tunisian Arabic and Moroccan Arabic – see Jouini, (2014) for typical sentences from these varieties) to demonstrate how functional elements can project as functional nodes or be merged as head or specifier (Spec) elements in the structure of sentences. In the inflectional domain of sentences – or Inflectional Phrase (IP) –, variation in subject-verb agreement configurations in Arabic rests on the premise that a Subject node variably projects giving rise to differing subject-verb agreement configurations. The same is true of the projection of the complementizer domain of sentences – or Complementizer Phrase (CP) – in Arabic, which splits into dedicated functional nodes in the standard variety of Arabic, but not in the modern spoken dialects. These differences in the projection of the IP-CP continuum establish functional relations upon which agreement and movement operations are derived and such notions as ‘topic’, ‘subject’ and ‘focus’ can be represented at the interface.

Key words: features, functional, Standard Arabic, Tunisian Arabic, subject-verb

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1. Introduction
The build-up of structures – and the structural (either ‘thematic’ or ‘functional’) relations that operate thereby – is a universal of grammar. There is variation, however, in what languages ‘choose’ to apply, or not, in the derivation of structural configurations.

The analysis proposed here is an attempt to pin down the unit of parametric variation that sets the standard variety of Arabic apart from the modern spoken Arabic dialects. This study relies on the available literature on the sentence structure of Arabic (Standard Arabic (SA) in particular, but also other varieties such as Tunisian Arabic (TA), Moroccan Arabic (MA) and Iraqi Arabic (IA) – see Jouini, (2014)) to demonstrate how functional elements can project as functional nodes or be merged as head or Spec elements in the structure of sentences. Two observations can be made. The first observation is that there is an agreement asymmetry that differentiates Verb-Subject(-Object) (VS(O)) and Subject-Verb(-Object) (SV(O)) word orderings in the standard variety of Arabic that is absent in the dialects. The following examples are from SA and TA:

(1) VSO word order:

a. kataba T-Tulaab-u d-dars-a (SA)
   wrote.3MS the-students-NOM the-lesson-ACC
   ‘The students wrote the lesson.’

b. kitb-uu T-Tulaab d-dars (TA)
   wrote-3P the-students the-lesson
   ‘The students wrote the lesson.’

(2) SVO word order

a. T-Tulaab-u katab-uu d-dars-a (SA)
   the-students-NOM wrote-3MP the-lesson-ACC
   ‘The students wrote the lesson.’

b. T-Tulaab kitb-uu d-dars (TA)
   the-students wrote-3P the-lesson
   ‘The students wrote the lesson.’

Apart from the fact that the modern spoken dialects of Arabic have lost the case morphology that marks the ending of nouns, such as Nominative (NOM) Case and Accusative (ACC) Case, the data in (1) is significant in that it points to a parametric difference in the realization of subject-verb agreement in such VSO sentences where SA (1a) does not show the same kind of subject-verb agreement we find in TA (1b). In contrast, the realization of subject-verb agreement in the SA sentence in (2a) and the TA sentence in (2b) is the same, as far as the agreement morphology on the verb katab-uu, in (2a), and kitb-uu, in (2b), is concerned. What is important in the data shown in (1) and (2) is that the agreement morphology on the TA verb does not show the kind of agreement asymmetry between the VSO and SVO word orderings, as in the SA equivalent sentences.
The second observation is that SA makes use of an array of dedicated modal elements (such as modal qad, as in example (3)), interrogation particles (such as interrogative qa, as in example (4)) and negation markers (such as lam and lan, as in examples (5–6)), which are absent in the modern spoken dialects.

(3) qad jaaʔ-a ?alʔawlaad-u
   MOD PERF.come-3MS the-boys- NOM
   ‘Indeed, the boys came.’

(4) qa jaaʔ-a ?alʔawlaad-u?
   Q PERF.come-3MS the-boys-NOM
   ‘Did the boys come?’

(5) lam yaktub-i T-Tullaab-u d-dars-a (SA)
   NEG.PAST 3.IMPERF.write- MS.JUSS the-students- NOM the-lesson- ACC
   ‘The students did not write the lesson.’

(6) lan yaktub-a T-Tullaab-u d-dars-a
   NEG.FUT 3.IMPERF.write- MS.JUSS the-students- NOM the-lesson- ACC
   ‘The students will not write the lesson.’

Within such a perspective, the main claim of the present analysis is that the Extended Projection Principle (EPP) and some postulated additional – parametrically available – Definiteness-feature (D-feature) on T(ense) in some Romance null-subject varieties (Biberauer et al., (2010) and Roberts, (2010a)) remain essentially different. Whereas the EPP is a universal characteristic of languages linked to syntactic predication within IP, the D-feature associated with T (though, in the present analysis, not a feature of the T-node per se) is a parameterized property linked to a rich manifestation of subject-verb agreement and verb-raising (i.e., Verb-to-Tense (V-to-T) movement). Furthermore, the present analysis maintains that the D-feature is associated with T only as a result of the raising process that T undergoes to a super-ordinate node (bearing the D-feature) within the IP domain in the relevant constructions/languages (cf. Rouveret’s, 2010 T ‘remerge’ option in a number of Germanic languages where a second Spec position is created for the satisfaction of the EPP).

2. Methodology
The paper is organized as follows: In Section 3, the author deals with the framework of basic assumptions in the derivation of sentence structure. Mainly, the author assumes that variation in only one feature (as in Roberts’ (2010a,b) and Biberauer and Roberts’ (2010) postulation of the additional D-feature on T in some language varieties) may give rise to a difference in the derivation and representation of a sentence. As already mentioned, I differ from Roberts’ (2010a, b) and Biberauer and Roberts, (2010) in the assumption that there is an additional functional node that projects above TP – namely, a Subject (Subj) projection (cf. Cardinaletti, (2004), Rizzi, (2006)), which bears the postulated additional D-feature. A Third main assumption of the present analysis
is that two forms of feature licensing operate in the Grammar: feature-valuation/-checking and the process of ‘identification’. The difference between these two modes of licensing concerns the interpretability of features. There is no ‘checking’/valuation of uninterpretable features within the process of identification. One main case to this effect, discussed in this paper, is the fundamental difference between topic DPs and subject DPs. Unlike subject DPs, topic DPs do not involve EPP-related properties, and as such, they are not subject to any ‘checking’/valuation procedure. Nevertheless, topics DPs have subject-like properties. Both subject DPs and topic DPs involve some kind of predication (Rizzi, 2006, p. 122).

In section 4, the author takes up the question of feature licensing (with its two modes, i.e., feature valuation and feature identification, as mentioned above) in the sentence structure of Arabic, and the core concept of structural connectedness expressing what Roberts & Roussou, (2002) call the ‘T-dependency’ii. The T-dependency operates in the valuation of features in agreement and movement processes in common VSO and SVO clause-type constructions – namely, negation, interrogation (involving wh-elements, in particular) and declarativity. In this section, the author also addresses the issue of the node to which T (after V-to-T movement applies) raises in SA VSO sentences. On a par with the necessity of raising T to a super-ordinate node – namely, Subj in rich subject-verb agreement configurations, VSO agreement configurations in SA – exhibiting ‘poor’ or ‘partial’ subject-verb agreement – involve the raising of T to a node outside IP/TP in the left periphery, namely Finiteness (Fin). This is what the author refers to as the T-to-Fin raising process, which brings the raised verb closer to the articulated ‘focus’ domain in the split-CP (Poletto, (2000), Benincà & Poletto, (2004))

The author draws up general conclusions at the end of the paper. The paper mainly shows that both the derivation of VSO and SVO word orderings in SA involve different structural configurations than those that are derived in the modern spoken dialects. The facts reviewed and further discussed in this paper suggest that the left periphery of sentences in SA is more active than the left periphery in the modern spoken dialects. The author proposes that SA opts for making wide use of projections (Spec and head positions) in the higher functional structure above IP/TP. In other words, SA opts for splitting up the CP domain into disparate discourse-related projections for the expression of such notions as ‘topic’, ‘focus’, and other modes of expression related to negation and interrogation.

3. Framework of assumptions
As the Generative linguistics name of Universal Grammar suggests it, the structure of sentences is universal. This structure takes the general form of CP … IP … vP (a functional ‘verb’ projection above the lexical VP in sentence structure)…, each of which is a maximal functional projection. Nevertheless, as the following discussion suggests, the particulars of a functional domain (mainly, CP and IP, but less probably vP unless an adjunction-to-vP analysis is allowed, as in Chomsky, (2001), for the purpose of Object Shift (Holmberg, (1999)) are a matter of parametric variation. Such an analysis might be correct in relation to the derivation of VSO and SVO structural configurations in the varieties of Arabic, such as SA and the modern spoken dialects, such as TA, MA, or IA.
In the spirit of minimalist analyses that study language-particular constructions on the basis of the ‘T-dependency’ (Roberts & Roussou, (2002)) – i.e., ‘tense’ and other inflectional properties of sentences that enter into dependency relations and link vP to IP and IP-vP to CP – the present analysis seeks to parameterize this structural connectedness in terms of what a language ‘chooses’ to apply, or not, in the derivation of sentences and the agreement processes that obtain thereby. Thus, in this parameterization view of the derivation of structural configurations, there is variation in the derivation of common clause-type constructions, such as negation, interrogation (involving wh-elements, in particular) and declarativity (including sentences that involve sentence-initial DPs that ‘parametrically’ – as in the present analysis – are taken to be topic DPs). These parameterized choices are then taken up by the syntactic operations and processes of the grammar (Merge, Move, and Agree) and generate head-head and Spec-head agreement relations bringing selected items closely together within the functional IP and CP domains for the establishment of ‘functional relations’ (Miyagawa, (2010)). This parameterization idea originates in the assumption that the derivation of sentence structure necessarily involves the Merge (via ‘first’/‘external’ Merge or ‘second’/‘internal’ Merge, in the phase-theoretic terminology of Chomsky, (2004)) of a number of functional elements/items for the expression of negation, interrogation, or declarativity, cross-linguistically. As these functional elements can project as functional nodes (minimal and maximal) in their own right, and can also be merged in the phrase structure of sentences as head or Spec elements, the principles of the grammar allow languages to differ in the possibility of having one domain, or more, ‘extend’ in a particular shape. These principles also allow for parametric variation to target different elements in the functional part of the lexicon of a language (wherein the build-up of sentences originates).

The present analysis of VSO and SVO configurations focuses on narrowing down the comparative study of the derivation of such sentences to varieties of the same language – namely, languages where Verb-raising necessarily applies – in the case at hand, the comparative analysis mainly concerns SA and the modern spoken dialects. The present analysis shows that the focus on closely-related languages, or dialects of the same language, directs our attention towards the possibility that the parametric variation in question is more adequately conceived as micro-parametric variation (as in Kayne, (2000), or more recently, in Biberauer et al., (2010) and Roberts, (2010a)). In this conception, variation in only one feature (for example, the postulation of an additional D-feature on T in some Romance null-subject varieties in Roberts, (2010a,b)) may give rise to a difference in the derivation of a sentence or in the representation of an element in it, such as a subject clitic or a subject DP position.

Picking up from studies in SA and the modern spoken varieties on the derivation of VSO and SVO sentences (such as Ouhalla, (1991), Benmamoun, (1992, 2000), Fassi Fehri, (1993), Akkal & Gonegai, (2000), and Soltan (2006)), the present focus on micro-parametric variation suggests that the derivation of VSO sentences (and their SVO counterparts) in such dialects concerns more than the issue of the positioning of the subject as to the position of the raised verb. The analysis of such sentences brings about the important issue of the interaction of verbal inflection with modality and negation (in negation contexts), the status of sentence-initial DPs as subject DPs or topic DPs in SVO word order, and the derivation of non-argument dependencies (i.e., A’-dependencies) particularly involving wh-movement, which only involves VSO word order in Arabic. In this
connection, it is important to point out that there is a main difference between the standard variety of Arabic and the modern spoken dialects in that there are dedicated modal and interrogation particles (such as modal qad and interrogative ϖa) and negation markers (such as lam and lan) in SA, which are absent in the modern spoken dialects.

A core question within such an approach of the parameters involved in the derivation of VSO and SVO structural configurations in a language variety like SA is the role of ‘functional relations’ (Miyagawa, 2010) that functional elements, such as modal/temporal, focus, and negation elements enter into. Miyagawa, (2010, pp. 8-9), contends that ‘… this intuition that agreement emerges as a Specifier-head (Spec-head) relation is correct…’ and that ‘… agreement requires a Spec-head relation by showing that Agree takes place to establish functional relations’. Thus Miyagawa, (2010) introduces the notion of ‘EPP-triggered movement’ as follows:

“EPP-triggered movement” … is the type of movement that … refer[s] to a broader range of movement than just movement of the subject to Spec, TP. Included in this “general” type of “last resort” movement are certain head movements, which I discuss in conjunction with pro-drop, and movement of the A’ variety such as wh-movement (p. x).

In addition to Miyagawa’s (2010) EPP-triggered movement approach, an equally valuable import as to the role of functional relations in structural connectedness in IP and CP comes from work done within the Cartographic conception of derivations (Rizzi, (1997, 2004, 2006)), Benincà & Poletto, (2004), Cardinaletti, (2004) among others), and other work conducted within the late Minimalist conception of sentence structure (i.e., Chomsky’s, (2001), (2004), (2008) ‘Derivation by Phase’ view). Most notably, the author will rely on Roberts’ (2010b) and Biberauer & Roberts’ (2010) parameterized probe-goal-Agree view of subject properties in null-subject languages, and on Roberts (2010a). Of particular importance in this parameterized probe-goal-Agree system is the role of null pronominals (i.e. the D-element pro both referential and expletive (EXPL)) as ‘defective goals’. Such null elements are introduced in the derivation because of the need to ‘check’ one feature on the probe – i.e., a D-feature on T in Roberts’ (2010a, b) and Biberauer & Roberts’ (2010) system. In the present analysis, the D-feature is a property of Agrs (reformulated as a Subj node projecting above T; cf. Cardinaletti, (2004) and Rizzi, (2006)). The present analysis is mainly in the spirit of Rizzi’s (2006) assumptions.

The Cartographic approach sheds light on the ‘discourse’ properties that together with the modal and temporal properties of items link IP to CP. Cartography acknowledges the importance of Spec-head agreement relations, as much as head-head agreement relations, in the derivation of agreement configurations and movement operations or what Miyagawa, (2010) calls ‘functional relations’. Cartography postulates that CP properties are scattered over a number of nodes within CP (the Split-CP approach). This system of Spec-head and head-head relations forms sublayers with dedicated Spec and head positions and is involved in the expression of such notions as ‘topic-comment’ and ‘subject of a clause’ particularly related to EPP satisfaction (Miyagawa, (2010), pp. 7–8), in addition to other modes of expression such as ‘focus’, which particularly involves wh-movement. According to Miyagawa, (2010, p. 9), this result can only be implemented by the
combination of the two independently motivated operations of the grammar – namely, Agree and Move.

The licensing principles generally operating in the grammar take two general forms, which might interrelatedly work in agreement processes or might apply separately (one applies and the other is dispensed with) for the particular agreement configuration in question. The first mode of feature licensing takes the form of a valuation (inter alias ‘checking’) process, which is mainly operative in wh-dependencies, but also in the EPP-related dependency involved in subject-verb agreement. The second form of feature licensing is the process of ‘identification’, whereby a feature needs to be identified via head-head agreement for the satisfaction of the T-dependency at the interface – i.e., at Logical Form (LF) and Phonetic Form (PF). Ever since Chomsky’s (1995) feature-checking approach, the notion of ‘interpretability’ has been a core concept in all Minimalist approaches, and on an equal footing, it has been an important aspect of Cartographic explanations. The only difference is that the main focus of Cartography is on ‘identification’ in the Grammar. As Rizzi (2004, pp. 5–6) states, both approaches focus on the economy, locality, and licensing principles that operate in the Grammar for the well-formedness of sentences at the interface. Thus, the only difference between these two modes of licensing (feature valuation and feature identification) is whether a feature needs to be eliminated or deleted from the derivation before it reaches the interface due to the assumption that features can either be ‘interpretable’ or ‘uninterpretable’. As far as the present analysis is concerned, the licensing of modal/temporal and negation (Neg) elements in the T-dependency is largely a question of identification unless some contrastive focus (Foc) feature is involved.

The next section deals with the question of feature licensing in the sentence structure of Arabic, and the core concept of structural connectedness in terms of T-dependency. The T-dependency operates in the valuation of features in agreement and movement processes in common VSO and SVO clause-type constructions. These constructions involve interrogation (wh-elements, in particular), negation, and declarativity (i.e., sentences that involve sentence-initial DPs that are, as in the present analysis, ‘parametrically’ taken to be topic DPs, which is the case in SA as opposed to the modern spoken dialects).

4. Feature licensing in the sentence structure of Arabic

In this section, the author proposes the working hypothesis that at least some languages project sentence structure as SubjP (inter alias AgrS) rather than as IP/TP. This hypothesis finds support in the parameterized probe-goal-Agree system that postulates the importance of both Move and Agree, and of Spec-head agreement as much as head-head agreement in the derivation of IP and CP in sentence structure.

4.1 EXPL pro and the feature-based dependency relations in the derivation of subjects

In this section, the author begins by looking at evidence from the literature on null pronominals of the existence of pro (most particularly, the EXPL null category of null-subject languages (Rizzi, (1982), and subsequent work), and the existence of the functional head category.
Subj/Agrs that projects higher than TP. It is then further argued that this functional head is only parametrically available.

Rizzi (2006, pp. 124–125) mentions such examples as in (7)–(9). The examples in (7) for Italian, and (8), (9) for English are Rizzi’s (2006) (his (65) for Italian, and (66), (67) for English, respectively):

(7) a. Chi credi che verrà?
   who do you think that will come
   
b. Credo che verrà Gianni
   I think that will come Gianni
   
c. Chi credi [che [pro verrà t]]

(8) a. I think that [something is [t in the box]]
   
b. I think that [there is [something in the box]]

(9) a. *What do you think that t is in the box?
   
b. What do you think that there is t in the box?

Rizzi (2006) is concerned with the assumption that the thematic subject is able to avoid moving to the EPP position, and escape the ‘freezing effect’ of moving to what Rizzi, (2006) calls a ‘criterial’ position. This follows from the fact that this position is already occupied by an expletive where it satisfies the EPP. Thus, the thematic subject is free to move from [Spec, vP], which is accessible to movement. In Rizzi’s (2006) own words:

If DP is raised to Spec, Subj to satisfy the Subject Criterion, it is frozen there, and is not able to escape the ‘freezing effect’. Further movement as in (67a) is impossible. If the Subject Criterion is fulfilled by the expletive as in (66b), the DP subject of the small clause is accessible to further movement (p. 125).

Rizzi (2006, pp. 122–123) follows Cardinaletti, (2004) in assuming a functional head in the higher functional field, which determines what he calls ‘the Subject Criterion’. The Subject Criterion is the expression of a structural articulation between ‘subject’ and ‘predicate’, which is similar to – but still different from – the topic-comment articulation in that the Subject Criterion can be satisfied by the insertion (or movement) of an expletive to the Spec position of Subj. The Topic-comment articulation does not fulfill this requirement. Note that while Cardinaletti, (2004) assumes that there are two nodes – namely Subj and Agrs (both with a Spec position) –, which project above TP, Rizzi (2006) does not make the same difference between Subj and Agrs in the higher functional IP field as Cardinaletti (2004) does. For him, there is the EPP-carrying functional head category (i.e., Subj) and, in addition, there is the head that carries the Agree features (i.e.,
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Agrs, which compares to T in Chomsky, (1995, 2001, 2004)). He also allows pro to occupy [Spec, Subj], which Cardinalletti, (2004) does not. Rizzi, (2006, p. 121) assumes that ‘a single head cannot carry a complex feature specification, allowing it to enter into an Agree relation with a phrase and at the same time attract another phrase’. He adds: ‘I use the label Agr to designate the head carrying the agreement features, without committing myself to the existence of an independent Agr head.’ Thus for Rizzi, (2006, p. 121), in structure (10) below (Rizzi’s (53)), Agr would be similar to T in Chomsky, (1995, 2001, 2004), i.e., the inflectional head that carries the Agree features transmitted to it by C (together with the EPP feature as in Chomsky, (2008, pp. 144–149, 157)):

(10) . . . EPP . . . Agr . . . DP1 . . . DP2

This section has shown that the postulation of a Subj(P) projection can be linked to the availability of a D-feature that not only represents a defining property of the null pronominal element pro (EXPL or referential), viii but also a defining property of the functional head itself (i.e., Subj). The D-feature is associated with such elements as pro in null-subject languages, or there in English in the process of feature-valuation. On this account, both EXPL elements pro and there share the property of entering the derivation with an intrinsic interpretable D-feature (different from the EPP-feature), which matches an uninterpretable D-feature (a [uD]-feature) on the probe Subj within the T-dependency. Thus, the end product at the interface is that Tense interpretation is satisfied and subject-verb agreement configurations are ultimately well-formed.

4.2 The role of the T-dependency in the derivation of SVO sentences in SA and TA

The bracketed structure in (11) illustrates the derivation of SVO sentences in SA:

(11) SA SVO word order

[ForceP Force[TopP[topic DP] [Top . . . [SubjP [prok] V_i-v_j-T_h-Subj [TP T_h [vp [tk] [v_j [vp V_i ]]]]]]]

In the SA SVO structure (11), the preverbal subject DP is base-generated in a ‘topicalized’, left-dislocated position (i.e., in the [Spec, TopP] position of Rizzi’s (1997) split-CP system). ix

In contrast, the derivation of SVO sentences in TA is represented as in (12):

(12) TA SVO word order

[CP C [SubjP [subject DPk] V_i-v_j-T-Subj [TP T_h [vp [tk] [v_j [vp V_i ]]]]]]

The subject DP in TA SVO word order is raised out of [Spec, vP/VP] and internally merged in [Spec, SubjP].

According to these bracketed representations, SA micro-parametrically differs from a modern spoken dialect like TA in the representation of the sentence-initial DP. However, both SA and TA SVO sentences have SubjP as the highest maximal projection at the IP level (with T raised to Subj forming the V-v-T- Subj complex). As structure (12) shows, the sentence-initial DP in TA in [Spec, SubjP] is directly responsible for satisfying the EPP and subject-verb agreement. The [uD]-feature of Subj is also valued by the same process so that the T-dependency is fully identified at Spell Out at PF for the phonetic realization of the sentence. Full subject-verb agreement ensues.
In SVO sentences in SA, the sentence-initial DP in SA is essentially a topic DP base-generated in the Spec position of a Top head in the left periphery of IP (= SubjP), the [uD]-feature of Subj is valued by the null referential pro D-element merged in [Spec, SubjP] co-referential with the topic DP. Merging this null pronominal D-element in [Spec, SubjP] is a necessary derivational step in such SA SVO structural configurations both at the IP level, and in CP where the sentence-initial DP is merged in [Spec, TopP]. At the IP level, merging pro in [Spec, SubjP] is necessary as it links the valuation of the uninterpretable [uD]-feature on Subj to φ-feature specification via the licensing of the Agree features on T as the inflected verb raises to T-Subj (ultimately forming the V-ν-T-Subj complex). As mentioned above in relation to the Subject Criterion, the EPP-feature of T is also satisfied by the same raising process since both the [uD]-feature on Subj and the EPP-feature on T are valued in the same position – i.e., [Spec, SubjP] – by the interpretable D-feature on the pronominal. At the CP level, the interpretable D-feature on Top and the sentence-initial DP merged in [Spec, TopP] are now linked to the V-ν-T-Subj complex in relation to subject-verb agreement. The purpose of such processes in the derivation of SA SVO sentences is to satisfy identification of the T-dependency at Spell Out at the point in the derivation where pro is merged in [Spec, SubjP]. Base-generating the sentence-initial DP in [Spec, TopP] in the split-CP domain (instead of moving it to that position) is also basically a process by which the T-dependency is identified at the interface.

4.3 The role of the T-dependency in the derivation of VSO sentences in SA and TA

4.3.1 Different realizations of subject-verb agreement in VSO sentences in SA and TA

Biberauer and Roberts (2010, p. 265) point to the necessity of ‘distinguishing T’s tense properties (i.e., ‘verbal’ or V-related) from its agreement φ– (i.e. ‘nominal’ or D-related) properties …’. Abiding by the feature-valuation mechanism such a distinction is linked to, the process of verb-raising to the inflectional domain of sentence structure concerns primarily the relation between T’s unvalued V-features and V’s unvalued T(ense)-features. Nevertheless, this process, whereby tense inflection is appropriately interpreted at the interface, arises concomitantly with the process whereby φ-agreement between the subject DP and the verb arises in the IP domain.

In the probe-goal-Agree system of structural dependency relations that parametrically vary according to the feature structure of functional categories, the interrelatedness of these, nonetheless, distinguishable processes presupposes that V-raising (i.e., the raising of the inflected verb) per se does not determine the kind of subject-verb agreement we find in richly-inflected V-raising languages. As discussed in this paper in relation to Roberts’ (2010a) and Roberts & Biberauer’s (2010) arguments for a parameterized probe-goal-Agree system, raised verbs will still be involved in the ‘valuation’ procedure at Spell Out whereby the derived structure is transferred to both LF and PF for interpretation. This is so because V-raising is an integral part of the process by which the T-dependency is derived in sentence structure. Therefore, any raising process in the grammar will have to be involved in some valuation procedure and will have to have a bearing on interpretation at LF.

The literature review presented in section 3 dealt with the structural underpinnings for a microparametric analysis of both VSO and SVO word orderings in Arabic, whereby SA differs from a modern spoken Arabic dialect like TA in the representation of the subject position at the interface.
in both of these constituent orderings. In TA SVO and VSO word orders, the subject DP is systematically represented as the canonical subject of the sentence: it is either raised out of [Spec, vP/VP] and internally merged in [Spec, SubjP] in SVO sentences, or it remains in situ in [Spec, vP/VP] in VSO sentences, leaving the canonical subject position [Spec, vP/VP] to be filled by the EXPL pro.

As far as the derivation of VSO sentences is concerned, full subject-verb agreement in TA sentence in (13) below contrasts with ‘partial’ subject-verb agreement the SA sentence in (14):

(13) bʕath-u n-nsaar l-jwaab (TA)  
    sent-3P the women the-letter  
    ‘The women sent the letter’

(14) baʕatha-t n-nisaaʔ-u r-risaalat-a (SA)  
    sent-3FS the women-NOM the-letter-ACC  
    ‘The women sent the letter’

According to the probe-goal Agree parameterized analysis, the T-node in (13) is directly associated with the Subj node, thus directly linking φ-feature agreement specification (person, number and gender) on the raised verb to tense interpretation at Spell Out. The valuation of T’s EPP-feature – in [Spec, SubjP] – operates via the same head-head/Spec-head agreement relation.

As for the SA sentence in (14), the working hypothesis is that Subj is not projected in VSO sentences in SA. Since T is not directly associated with a Subj node, the highest Spec position for φ-feature and EPP-feature valuation in the IP domain is [Spec, TP]. As will be discussed in section 4.3.2, the verb raised to T, in SA VSO sentences, is further raised past the subject DP in [Spec, TP] to some F head position. In such instances, the raising of the verbal inflectional [V-v-T] complex is linked to the identification of some feature in the split-CP domain.

Under such assumptions as to the differences in the realization of the T-dependency in Arabic, an account of the parametrically different subject-verb agreement configurations that arise in the derivation of VSO sentences in SA and the corresponding sentences in TA, at the IP level, in terms of a parameterized probe-goal-Agree approach to feature-valuation finds a justifiable explanation. The following sentences in (15a, b) and (17a), from SA, corresponding to those in (16a,b) and (17b), from TA, show such differences in agreement configurations:

(15) a. kharaj-a/*kharaj-uu l-ʔawlaad-u (SA)  
    went out-3MS/went out-3MP the-boys-NOM  
    ‘The boys went out.’

b. kharaj-at/*kharaj-na l-banaat-u.  
    went out-3FS/went out-3FP the-girls-NOM  
    ‘The girls went out.’

(16) a. kharj-uu/*khraj l-ulaad  
    went out-3P/went out-3MP the-boys (TA)
‘The boys went out.’

b. kharj-uu/*kharj-t l-bnaat.
went out-3p/went out-3fs the-girls

‘The girls went out.’

(17) a. man qaala Ɂinna-hu žaaʔa l-ʔawlaad-u?
who said that-cl(acc) came.3ms the-boys-nom
‘Who said that the boys came?’

b. shkuun qaal illi jaa w l-ulaad?
who said that came-3p the-boys
‘Who said that the boys came?’

In the absence of Subj, in the SA sentences in (15a, b), the full set of φ-feature specification on the [V-v-T] inflectional complex does not appear (kharaj-a vs. *kharaj-uu in (15a) and kharaj-at vs.*kharaj-na in (15b)). The [V-v]-to-T raising process is necessarily involved in some subject-verb agreement which is linked to the satisfaction of the EPP at the highest level the derivation reaches in the IP domain, i.e., [Spec, TP]. It is in this position that the raised subject DP values the uninterpretable φ-features of the T node giving rise to the so-called, 3rd person singular ‘default’ agreement configuration. In the TA sentences in (16a, b), the inflected verb is under a Subj projection, which is responsible for the full agreement pattern (kharj-uu vs. *khraj in (16a) and kharj-uu vs. kharj-t in (16b)).

In the wh-questions in (17), the same subject-verb agreement relations apply. In the SA wh-question in (17a), the verb (more specifically, the [V-v] complex) first raised to T agrees with the subject DP raised to [Spec, TP], where valuation of the uninterpretable φ-features of T by the subject DP applies. This probe-goal Agree relation only gives rise to ‘partial’ subject-verb agreement (jaaʔa). The EPP is, nonetheless, satisfied as a reflection of the probe-goal-Agree relation. Since in the derivation of such VSO sentences as in (15) (and, likewise, in the wh-construction in (17a)) SA opts for expanding the CP domain into Fin and Force (à la Rizzi 1997) – where the Top-Foc system is activated –, the inflected verb further raises to some F node in the spilt-CP domain. In the TA wh-question in (17b), however, the raising of T to Subj applies, and the raised verb agrees with an EXPL pro merged in [Spec, subjP] giving rise to full subject-verb agreement (jaaw) at Spell Out.

With this contrast between the subject-verb agreement examples in (16a, b) and (17b) for TA and those in (15a, b) and (17a) for SA in mind, the structure in (18) below is a representation of how SA VSO word order arises (F designates the Functional projection in CP to which the V-v-T complex raises):

(18) SA VSO word order
\[
[FP \ V_{1-vj-Tn-F} \ldots \ [TP \ [DP_k] \ T_h[\ V_{ij} \ [Spec \ tk] \ V_j] \ [VP \ V_i \ DP]]]
\]
SA VSO word order differs from the VSO word order in a modern spoken dialect like TA in that only in SA is the subject raised out of vP/VP. Thus, in (18), the post-verbal status of the subject in SA VSO word order is derived by first raising the verb to T. As (18) shows, expletive pro is not instantiated in the highest Spec position in the IP domain for EPP satisfaction (i.e., [Spec, TP]). Instead, the derivation of the sentence requires the subject to raise to [Spec, TP] for EPP satisfaction. Finally, the verb is further raised (together with v and T, to which the verb has attached) – past the subject DP in [Spec, TP] – to some node F in the split-CP domain of Rizzi (1997). The post-verbal position of the subject in SA VSO word order is thus derived. Only ‘partial’ subject-verb agreement ensues.

In contrast, in the TA VSO word ordering, whereas the verb is raised to the inflectional domain (projecting as SubjP), the subject DP remains in situ in [Spec, vP/VP] in a post-verbal position, as represented in (19):

(19) TA VSO word order

\[ [CP [Spec, SubjP [pro] V_i-v_j-T-Subj [TP T_h [vP [SubjP [v_j [v_P V_i ]]]]]]] \]

In relation to the TA VSO structure (19), my assumption has been that, contrary to SA VSO sentences, the derivation of TA VSO sentences requires the projection of SubjP for expletive pro insertion in [Spec, SubjP] coinciding with the valuation of T’s EPP-feature in the same position, due to the fact that T is now part of the verbal inflectional complex V-v-T raised to the Subj node. As represented in (19), the verbal inflectional complex V-v-T does not raise further up. This follows from Rizzi’s (2006) Subject Criterion because all the conditions for subject-verb agreement have been satisfied at that level in IP (= SubjP) as the inflected verb receives the full φ-agreement specification after the Agree features on T have been valued in [Spec, SubjP].

As in Roberts’ (2010a, p. 114) typology of ‘clitic doubling’ configurations in the Romance null-subject systems that Roberts (2010a) is interested in, the differences in subject-verb agreement configurations in SA and TA may ultimately be linked to how the process of feature-valuation applies at the highest level of the derivation of the IP domain in relation to T’s D-feature (the D-feature of the Subj node in the present analysis). Assuming that feature valuation involves some ‘feature copying’ mechanism as in Roberts, (2010a, p. 114), the process of valuation of the additional D-feature brought about in the derivation of the IP domain in SA VSO word order does not occur (due to the absence of EXPL pro and the absence of Subj node in these instances in SA). The process of valuation in this case may involve only ‘partial copying’ of the subject agreement features, in SA, as opposed to ‘full copying’ of those features in TA. This difference in ‘feature copying’ would account for the difference in the feature-valuation mechanism in subject-verb agreement configurations.

4.3.2 The T-to-Fin raising process in SA VSO sentences

This section addresses the problem of what node the inflected verb in SA VSO configurations could ultimately raise to, if not Subj, after it raises above TP. The discussion will focus on the
distribution of tense/modality properties (i.e., preverbal particles, such as modality and negation markers), and on the distribution of subject properties in relation to agreement on verbs.

As far as the head position the raised verb in VSO sentences in SA attaches to in the CP domain is concerned, Aoun et al., (1994, p. 204, fn. 8, see also Aoun et al., (2010)) suggest that this head node is similar to Laka’s (1990, p. 100) Σ (accommodating both negation and emphatic affirmation) or a head F ‘whose effect is to focalize the verb’ – namely, some Focus head. The evidence Aoun et al., (2010, pp. 70–71) provide for the raising of (auxiliary) verbs in SA to a higher node than the highest functional head in the IP domain – i.e., T – comes from existential constructions involving the locative pro-form hunaaka ‘there’, as in (20), with a representation as in Figure 1 (Aoun et al.’s 2010, p. 71 (63)):

(20) kaan-a hunaaka Taalib-un fii l-Hadiiqat-i (SA)
             PERF.be-3MS there student.INDEF-NOM in the-garden-GEN
‘There was a student in the garden’

Figure 1: Existential constructions in SA (Aoun et al., 2010, p. 71 (63))

As Figure 1 shows, the functional head position the SA auxiliary verb kaana ‘be.Past’ in VSO word order occupies is higher than TP, the latter being for Aoun et al. (2010) the highest projection in the IP domain in such VSO structural configurations. The auxiliary verb kaana appears in F to the left of the locative pro-form hunaaka which is merged in [Spec, TP].

Aoun et al., (2010, p. 215–216) assume that FP, in SA, can be designated as Rizzi’s (1997) FocusP. However, in light of an extended cartographic analysis of the split-CP domain (as proposed by Jouitteau 2005: 126 who adapt the analysis proposed by Poletto 2000: 236–237; see structure (21) below), the verb in SA VSO configurations does not move higher than the modal head node or higher than Neg elements, which project higher than TP (and FinP) but below FocP). This is attested by the sentences in (22)–(24):
A Feature-Based Analysis of the Derivation of Word Order

(21) $[[\text{ForceP} \left[ \text{Hanging TopicP} \left[ \text{Scene setting} \left[ \text{ForceP} \left[ \text{TopicP} \left[ \text{higher Topic sublayer} \right] \text{lower Topic sublayer} \right] \text{FocusP} \left[ \text{Focus sublayer} \right] \right] \text{Mod(al)P} \left[ \text{Neg} \left[ \text{FinP} \ldots \right] \right] \right] \right] \right] \left[ \text{Neg} \left[ \text{FinP} \ldots \right] \right] \right] \right] \right]$

(22) $\text{lam yaktub-i T-Tullaab-u d-dars-a}$
$\text{NEG.PAST 3.IMPERF.write- MS.JUSS the-students- NOM the-lesson- ACC}$
‘The students did not write the lesson.’

(23) $\text{lan yaktub-a T-Tullaab-u d-dars-a}$
$\text{NEG.FUT 3. IMPERF.write- MS.JUSS the-students- NOM the-lesson- ACC}$
‘The students will not write the lesson.’

(24) $\text{qad jaaʔ-a ?al-ʔawlaad-u}$
$\text{MOD PERF.come-3MS the-boys-NOM}$
‘Indeed, the boys came.’

Structurally representing sentence (22), for example, gives the tree diagram in Figure 2:

![Tree Diagram](image)

**Figure 2** T-to-Fin raising process in SA VSO sentences

The feature that is involved in the ‘identification’ of the negation elements lam and lan is a tense feature – namely, the interpretable tense (i.e., the $[iT]$-feature) of the Fin head projection as represented in Figure 2 with which negation marker lam, as a head that projects in sentence structure in its own right, interacts. The same is true of the relation of the negation elements lam and lan and the T node since the identification of $[iT]$-features of Fin and T is essential for tense interpretation at the interface.
The head position of ForceP can remain empty, but can be occupied by a matrix interrogative particle ʔa, as represented in Figure 3 for sentence (25):

(25) ʔa jaaʔ-a ʔal-ʔawlaad-u?  
Q PERF.come-3MS the-boys-NOM  
‘Did the boys come?’

Figure 3 Matrix interrogatives in SA

The realization of the Force head in Figure 3 as ʔa signals that the sentence is interpreted as interrogative at the interface. The dependency relation between the higher and the lower C projections at the two opposite sides of the split-CP system (i.e., Force and Fin) ensures that all elements involved in the representation of the sentence at the interface are properly identified. According to such assumptions, feature identification does not exclusively apply to interrogative particles like ʔa in SA in relation to the inflectional properties of the Fin head. Rather, this feature identification process generalizes to any element moved to or directly ‘merged’ in some position in the split-CP domain (cf. Ouhalla, (1993, 1994), Roberts & Roussou, (2002)).

In this connection, Aoun et al., (2010, pp. 209–210) refer to Ouhalla’s (1994) “morphological identification” requirement pointing out that a parallel can be drawn between Focus fronting and question formation in SA. Aoun et al., (2010, pp. 209–210) suggest that the parallel between Focus and interrogative structures does not uniquely concern the projection of a designated functional projection in the CP domain, but also designated particles that can be merged in their respective positions to morphologically identify the sentence as a sentence with some ‘focus’ property or as an interrogative sentence in terms of ‘an abstract head F, bearing the [+F] feature, which on a par...
with the [+Q(uestion)] feature on C, needs to be identified’. Thus, in the derivation of (25), the identification of [iT] features interacts with the identification of clause-type features for singling out the sentence as ‘interrogative’, as opposed to ‘negative’ in negation contexts or, simply, ‘declarative’ in [+declarative] contexts. As for the formal feature that enters into the derivation of SA wh-dependencies and their representation at the interface, it takes the form of an additional [WH]/Focus feature, different from clause-type features of Force and Fin’s [iT] feature. This additional [WH]/Focus feature accounts for the XP raising process to Spec position of the Focus head involved in the derivation of these wh-dependencies.

The evidence provided by such examples as (22–25) sheds light on the premise of the present probe-goal-Agree parameterized analysis whereby the derivation of wh-dependencies in SA fully exploits the different Spec and head positions that arise from the splitting of the CP domain and the merge of such dedicated modal and interrogation particles as modal qad and interrogative qa, and such negation markers as lam and lan in such SA sentences. Such particles and markers are absent in the modern spoken dialects, and as a result these dialects do not resort to specific head or Spec C-positions. The assumption is that the modern spoken dialects of Arabic make use of adjunction of A’-moved elements to the left of SubjP (see the examples in (27) and (28) below).

In the SA wh-questions in (26) below, only (26a) (structurally represented as in Figure 4) is grammatical (For ease of exposition, I do not represent the FinP and ForceP projections in Figure 4 in the split-CP domain of the structure):

(26) a. ظل-ةاباء-ع mana-Drib-uuna?
    the-parents-NOM who 3-INPERF.hit-MP.IND
    ‘Parents, who do they hit?’

b. *man ظل-ةاباء-ع mana-Drib-uuna?
   who the-parents-NOM 3-INPERF.hit-MP.IND
   Lit.: ‘Who, parents, do they hit?’
In Figure 4, the initial DP ʔal-ʔabaʔ-u ‘parents’ is base-generated in [Spec, TopP] in the split-CP domain, resumed in the IP domain by the subject inflection on the verb yaDrib-uuna ‘they hit’. The topic DP is co-referential with a ‘resumptive’ pro raised out of the subject position in [Spec, vP] for EPP satisfaction at the Subj/AgrS level. The structure also shows the wh-movement of an object DP, which lands in [Spec, FocP]. In this respect, the uninterpretable [WH]/Focus feature [uF] of Foc is valued in relation to the interpretable wh-feature [iWH] of the raised wh-element. In much the same way, the [uD] feature of Subj/AgrS in the IP domain is valued in relation to the interpretable [iD] feature of pro.

If the proposed analysis for the derivation of wh-dependencies in TA vs. SA in terms of a difference in how the CP domain projects is reasonable enough, it would account for the fact that wh-movement in the instance of topicalization in TA does not obey any ordering constraint between the left-dislocated element and the wh-moved element, as shown in the TA examples in
(27), which are the counterpart of Bakir’s (2011: 193) original examples from Iraqi Arabic as shown in (28 a, b):

(27) a. l-kursi ween khalleet-u
    the-chair where put.2MS-it
    ‘Where did you put the chair?’

       b. ween l-kursi khalleet-u
            where the-chair put.2MS-it
            ‘Where did you put the chair?’

(28) a. l-qanafa ween khalleet-ha
     the-chair where put.2MS-it
     ‘Where did you put the chair?’

       b. ween l-qanafa khalleet-ha
          where the-chair put.2MS-it
          ‘Where did you put the chair?’

As Bakir (2011) notes, the strict order of Topic DPs and focused elements is not observed in IA. Thus, in these instances of wh-dependency formation by movement, Bakir (2011, p. 200) opts for ‘adjunction of left-dislocated elements in the CP domain’ and assumes that the left-dislocated object DP l-qanafa ‘the chair’ in (28a) and (28b) is an adjoined position to the left of IP/CP. Bakir (2011, p. 200) adds that: ‘… if recursion in the CP structure is allowed, it will create the necessary loci for the moved/base-generated elements without any need to specify the individual C-positions with unique functions’.

Thus, the proposed analysis of the derivation of wh-dependencies in SA vs. TA in this section, along with Bakir’s (2011) claims about A’-dependencies in Iraqi Arabic may suggest that, whereas SA resorts to the expansion of the CP domain as a ForceP-FinP split system for the topicalization and focalization of constituents, modern spoken dialects like TA, MA and IA make use of adjunction structures for the derivation of such dependencies.

5. Conclusion
The Phase-theoretic parameterized probe-goal-Agree approach to the derivation of the VSO vs. SVO word orders in SA and the modern spoken Arabic dialects, as expounded in this paper, is significant in pinning down the units of parametric variation in the derivation (and representation) of the functional domain – both IP and CP – cross-linguistically. This approach primarily relies on the EPP-triggered movement analysis of the functional structure of sentences in natural language (Roberts & Roussou, (2002), Miyagawa, (2010), Roberts, (2010a), Biberauer et al., (2010)). It also relies on the effect the parametrically available [$uD$]-feature of Subj has on structural representations (and dependency relations in derivational terms). The valuation of the [$uD$]-feature is related to φ-feature specification, and by the same token, to the pronominalization of the
structural subject position of clauses so that the EPP is satisfied in [Spec, SubjP] in SVO structural configurations in the varieties of Arabic.

The derivation of VSO structural configurations in SA has been a main concern of the present analysis. This derivation particularly shows the relative order of dedicated modal particles, and interrogation and negation markers as to the position of the verb in the Split-CP domain. As for the derivation of wh-dependencies in SA, my assumption is that two feature-matching processes seem to be at work. In addition to the identification of [iT] features for the well-formedness of the T-dependency at the interface, the relationship between the wh-element in [Spec, Foc] and the Focus head is established in terms of the morpho-syntactic ‘checking’/valuation of the relevant features – namely, the interpretable [WH]-features on the wh-element values the uninterpretable [WH]/Focus feature [uF] of Foc. In much the same way, the interpretable [iD] feature of pro values the feature [uD] of Subj in the IP domain. The valuation of these features establishes head-head and Spec-head agreement relations in terms of which the T dependency is fully identified at Spell Out.

What is more, the analysis has shown that the derivation of wh-dependencies in TA allows different orderings of a wh-word and a ‘topicalized’ DP. Such characteristics have been claimed to follow from the assumption that TA does not resort to the Split-CP form of the left periphery of the IP domain as SA does, but makes exclusive use of adjunction of A’-moved elements to the left of SubjP.

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I obtained my PhD in Linguistics from Victoria University of Wellington (Jouini, K. (2014) Parameters and Micro-parameters in Arabic Sentence Structure). I am now an Assistant Professor at the Saudi Electronic University. An earlier paper entitled “Dependency Relations in the Syntactic Structure of Tunisian Arabic” was published in Arab World English Journal 3 (4), 36-57, 2012.

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ii The T(ense)-dependency expresses the structural relations between elements that are merged and/or moved in the derivation of sentences and the agreement configurations that obtain thereby, mainly driven by considerations of EPP satisfaction. The same concept is expressed in a particular understanding of Chomsky’s (2001, 2004) Phase-theoretic notion of Probe-goal-Agree, as in Miyagawa’s (2010) EPP-triggered movement and agreement approach, and in Roberts’ (2010a, b) and Biberauer & Roberts’ (2010) views on subjects, tense, and null pronouns.

iii This is the case, for example, of Object Shift in Swedish (Holmberg, 1999), or of Transitive Expletive Constructions in Icelandic (Bobaljik & Jonas, 1996), Alexiadou & Anagnostopoulou, (2001)).

iv In this connection, see for example, Bobaljik & Jonas’ (1996, p. 211) analysis of Transitive Expletive Constructions in Icelandic in terms of a ‘[Spec, TP] parameter’.

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This paper relies on ideas developed in my thesis (Jouini, 2014). The following are the technical abbreviations and acronyms used in the paper: 2 = second person of the verbal agreement system. 3 = third person of the verbal agreement system. A' = non-argument. ACC = accusative. Agrs = subject agreement. AgrsP = subject Agreement Phrase. D = definiteness. D(P) = Determiner (Phrase). CL = clitic. EPP = Extended Projection Principle. EXPL = expletive. F = feminine. FIN = finiteness. Foc = focus element. FocP = Focus Phrase. FUT = future. GEN = genitive. IA = Iraqi Arabic. IMPERF = imperfective. IND = indicative mood. INDEF = indefinite. JUSS = jussive mood. LF = Logical Form. M = masculine. MA = Moor...
Agree is a derivational operation built up into the Merge and Move components of the grammar (Chomsky 2001, 2004).

Chomsky (1986) postulates that functional elements are full-fledged syntactic atoms, which are capable of projecting their own phrasal categories that form syntactic structure.


See section 4.2 for the assumption of a null referential pro D-element merged in [Spec, SubjP] co-referential with a Topic DP in the left periphery of the IP domain.

The ellipsis ‘…’ in (11) is meant to point to the existence of other functional nodes above SubjP, and below TopP, as in Rizzi, (1997), Poletto, (2000) and Jouitteau, (2005).

Rizzi (1997, p. 286) alludes to the analogous status of the Top node, in the CP domain, and the Agrs node, in the IP domain, in relation to predication. In Rizzi, (2006, pp.121–122), the similarity between the Subj node (to which the T node is linked in relation to φ-feature specification and ultimately to subject-verb agreement) and the Top node is related to the fact that both DP-Predicate pairs satisfy some subject-related properties of sentence structure, though only the ‘Subject Criterion’ is linked to the satisfaction of the EPP. Rizzi (2006, p. 122) concludes that ‘the EPP is a manifestation of a Subject Criterion’.

The D-feature, which Roberts (2010a) and Biberauer et al. (2010) assume to be an additional feature of T could rather be conceptualized as an ‘edge’ feature similar to Chomsky’s (2008) EF feature that is an exclusive property of the C node. This feature would be a property of the Subj node that parametrically projects higher than T, in the IP domain as postulated here.
Pedagogical Stylistics as a Tool in the Classroom:
An Investigation of EFL Undergraduate Students' Ability in Analyzing Poetic Language

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Abstract
This research paper draws on applying the tools of pedagogical stylistics in teaching literature in particular poetry to English as a foreign language (EFL) undergraduate Iraqi students. The language of literature is rich with social context, exquisite deviant forms, and vocabulary. This paper aims at examining to what extent pedagogical stylistics can be helpful in increasing students' literary awareness. In addition, to examine how it can help them to interpret and analyze selected poems that have been chosen for them to achieve this goal. For the purpose of gathering the required data a pre-test and a post-test are conducted. Verdonk's (2013) approach is adopted in teaching stylistic tools to the students. The participants were (40) second-year students of the academic year 2018-2017 from University of Baghdad, Iraq. Moreover, a questionnaire is distributed to know students' opinions about studying stylistics. The final results proved that (1-) pedagogical stylistics tools are of great significance to pay heed to the language of poetry or literary language in general, (2-)the questionnaire shows that most agreed on studying stylistics in the classroom. Thus, this study highly recommends that teachers of literary subjects should focus on stylistic tools in teaching literary texts.

Keywords: EFL Iraqi students, literary awareness, pedagogical stylistics, poetry

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1. Introduction
The present study presents a technique for teachers of the English language, especially those who teach English literature. Teachers should be empowered with tools and methods in order to teach literary works to foreign learners. Integrating stylistics in the classroom is one of the contemporary movements in the field of stylistics. It is worth noting that creating literary awareness to understand and interpret literature requires knowing certain stylistic skills.

Zyngier and Fialho (2010) demonstrate that most teachers assume that learning literature cannot be tested, it is sufficient for a student to learn literature theoretically. Moreover, teachers tend to look into text irrespective to its context or participants. Some stylisticians were aware of this assumption and try to put a systematic way to equip students with stylistic tools that help them to improve their experimental skills in learning literature and this can be achieved by developing classroom activities(p.14).

2. Aims of the Study
The study aims at teaching students stylistic techniques to enable them to analyze and interpret poetry as one genre of literature. It also aims at enhancing students' awareness of stylistics as a helpful tool for understanding their literary texts, especially poetic language.

3. Limitation of the Study
The study is limited to second-year students of intermediate level in the department of English/College of Education for women/ University of Baghdad/ Iraq during the academic year 2017/2018. Forty students were selected to be the participants of the present study.

4. Pedagogical Stylistics and Past Relevant Work
According to Clark (2007), pedagogical stylistics is a new trend that is concerned with teaching stylistics in the classroom. It is used to enhance the students' awareness of the language used in their texts. The students are taught to analyze the text at three levels; the first level is concerned with analyzing the formal properties of the text which include analyzing phonology, vocabulary and the syntax of phrases and clauses and also analyzing the relationships between sentences, paragraphs. Secondly, stylistics goes beyond the formal features of the text. It concentrates on the text contact between a text, other texts, and the reader. Students are taught that meaning is not stable, it depends mainly on how the text is interpreted by the reader. In this sense, stylistics has an interactive function. Thirdly, stylistics concerned itself with the socio-cultural context within which reading and writing take place. Contextual factors such as the cultural background of the reader and the situation in which a text is read must be taken into consideration when analyzing a text(p.60).

It is worth noting that stylistics is a very controversial discipline according to many scholars. It is assumed that defining the term is unattainable. Scholars do not agree whether to put stylistics under the linguistic study or literary criticism. (Widdowson, 1992), as cited in Zyngier (2001) states that:

Perhaps it would be easier to accept the fact that the area is too fuzzy to be dealt with, but that we just cannot do without it because stylistics offers a method of systematizing what has been called the "elusive" element in literature ( p. 367).
Hence, stylistics is a strong tool that can be used in the classroom in the teaching of the text. Zyngier (2001) is one of the scholars who has a great interest in this area. In her study "Towards a Cultural Approach to Stylistics," she provides a theoretical model to help students understand the text within the context (p. 366-380).

Zyngier (2001) argues that a text cannot be detached from other necessary participants in a literary system such as production, mediation, reception, and post-processing. The writer is responsible for the production, the reception is carried out by the reader, post-processing is the job of critics and finally, a mediation which is carried out by more than one person or institution, in our study, teachers, schools and educational system are all responsible of mediation (p. 373).

At the end of her discussion, Zyngier (2001) offers some theoretical guidelines to a contextually-oriented stylistics. For example, sensing the meaning or the impact of other's work is enough for providing any criticism. Also, stylistic analysis shapes new patterns. These patterns are perceived by the reader as evocative linguistic patterns. Furthermore, students should know that dealing with these stylistic patterns is part of their work as critics. When students know that there are a variety of patterns which provoke a different response, they can enhance their understanding of some patterns that have not been encountered before. Relevant to this point, learning to control it is also necessary to emphasize that students need to process texts as discourse.

By the time the students become well experienced in stylistics, their responses will be more automatic and complicated. Examining the literary language is the first step in the way of literary experience. Not forgetting to mention that any reader's personal and social context must be taken into consideration when carrying any stylistic method (p.277-278).

Likewise, Hall (2014) along the same line summarizes some crucial advantages and applications of stylistics. These include; first, literature can be taught by applying stylistic tools and techniques. It enables to understand and appreciate the creativity of the language of literary works. Second, stylistics is beneficial in the field of education, whether teaching first, second language or foreign language. Finally, teaching language use and language awareness for learners is also one of the key values of stylistics (p. 240).

Hall (2014) continues to explain that studying foregrounding, deviant forms, irregular structures and peculiarities of the literary language helps to unravel meaning and finding a correct interpretation.


Hall (2014) proceeds to outline the difference in points of views between Widdowson and Carter. According to the former, a literary work is a unique form of language differs from the daily language. Widdowson believed that individual readers are the key factors in the process of interpretation.
Another influential study concerning analyzing some stylistic aspects such as genre, narrative structure, point of view and characterization of a text is carried by Clark, (2007, p.60-75). In this study, she introduces these stylistic aspects to undergraduate students who encounter stylistics for the first time. The students are asked to analyze two novels on detective fiction. The detective fiction is chosen as a genre for the analysis because it sheds the light on the social, cultural and psychological background in which a certain novel is written (Clark & Zyngier, 1998).

Clark (2007) designs lectures and workshops for four weeks to help students in their work. She organizes a module of two parts: in the first part, the students are introduced to different stylistic methods through weekly lectures, seminars, and workshops. Then the students are asked to apply each of the stylistic aspects that are mentioned above in the analysis of the two novels. In this way, the students are taught the different aspects acquired for their analysis within the context of their application to a particular genre of fiction (p.63).

The lectures are followed by a workshop in which the students are arranged into pairs and asked to answer a set of questions concerning their lectures. The questions are designed to examine the students' understanding of the lectures (Clark, 2007,p.67).

The study shows that the adopted approach has a pedagogical advantage in the sense that students apply the concept outlined in the lecture to the analysis of the chosen texts. This enhances the students' chances of success (Clark,2007, p. 65).

By comparing two different novels from two different periods, the students get good knowledge about the social and cultural changes that have taken place in writing novels. Moreover, this comparison opens new horizons for other studies, like analyzing the same aspects through comparing two novels written by the same author, or by comparing a novel tackles a female detective with one that tackles a male detective (Clark, 2007, p. 75).

Furthermore, in one of the crucial studies conducted by Carter (2010) in which he summarizes the main historical developments in pedagogical stylistics. He explains that certain writers enrich the field with their works. For example, Widdowson (1975, 1990), Short (1989) and Watson and Zyngier (2006) is a recent publication that exhibits both theory and practice in the field (p. 115).

Carter (2010) notably remarks that pedagogical stylistics does not aim at imposing a fixed and uninformed interpretation of a single text, but rather emphasizing the necessity that encourages readers to have the freedom in using their extended knowledge to analyze a certain literary work. He also ascertains that there is no 'universal' methodology to interpret a text. In fact, readers should not act in a passive way; they should enrich meaning through their own cultural and linguistic experiences (p. 117).

Additionally, Carter (2010) lists briefly the main developments of pedagogical stylistics as follows:
1. Transformational analysis: this process involves transforming a selected text to a different genre, for example, a poem to a short story. This demands, as Carter (2010), illustrates
"rewriting, transformation and registration". This also invites readers to depend on close reading of a text. Readers should be aware of this kind of text manipulation. Thus, they have to be active in the process of interpretation.

2. New Rhetoric: this refers to the connection with the" classical traditional rhetoric". Simply getting benefit from the theories of rhetoric.

3. Internet-based Classrooms or "Cyberspace Classrooms"

Getting benefit from technology in teaching and learning shows that stylistics is no more confined itself to written data. Relevant to this point, there can be a focus on a new media such as spoken language which can be stored on a computer for the sake of interpretation and analysis. Moreover, within such a class the occurrence of internet communication and verbal interaction( Carter, 2010,p. 120).

In another study, Gavins and Hodson (2007) use pedagogical stylistics in a different way. They are not satisfied with teaching stylistics in the classroom only, but they go to the extent that they want to inspect the transferability of stylistic skills. They believe that most college students are introduced to stylistics as a minor or secondary subject. This idea is sponsored by a staff at the University of Sheffield. The staff designed a program for undergraduate students. The program focuses on the student's role in teaching stylistics. The teachers responsible for the program endeavor to train students to come up on stylistics from their first year in the college (p.27). The aim of the program is to widen students' horizon on practicing stylistic analysis. They want the students to feel that they are "real practicing stylisticians" not only memorizers of some theoretical issues concerning stylistics( p. 30).

At the first level, the students are equipped with the essential tools of stylistic analysis depending on the available textbooks such as (Short,1996: Simpson,1997and 2004 and others). In their second year, the students are given a historical background about the development of discourse from ancient Greece to the present(Gavins &Hodson, 2007, p.29).

When the students reach the third level and final year of study, they start to transfer their analytical skills to other students in different contexts. The programmers divided the students into small groups and distributed them to teach the first year students. The third-year students design worksheets and seminars; they present various sessions and the first year students find these sessions very interesting. The experience is assessed by the teachers as successful. Moreover, it provides a good chance of success to the third year students (Gavins &Hodson,2007, p.31-32).

Gavins and Hodson (2007) further demonstrate that the experience is successful in three ways. First, the third year students became self-confident and began to feel their accomplishment and abilities in designing worksheets and teaching. Second, the exercise engaged the students with the advanced works practically rather than only reading them as they used to do before the experiment. They began to comment and criticize these works in a scientific way. Third, The learning experience given to the students offered them a strong ownership of their old materials which they used to deal with as passive readers only (p,34-36).
5. Poetry in Education

What is the importance of teaching poetry to language learners? What is the main purpose of including poetry in the educational curriculum? And what is unique about poetic language? These questions are posed in order to bring attention to the significance of poetry as a special form of language in the processes of teaching and learning.

In this regard, Widdowson(1992) confirms that poetry can be effective in bringing language awareness. It has great pedagogical values (p.75-85).

One of the techniques suggested by him to teach poetry is to encourage the students to read a poem and give their first impressions. In this way, they can identify what is the main idea or the theme of the poem. After that, their first impressions can be discussed, then, teachers can instruct them to locate textual evidence from the text to prove their views (p. 89-90).

Widdowson (1992) further proposes a tactic of "assemble poetry". This method demands students to work in groups. They can be given 14 lines in random order of a poem and they have to form a poem of 6 lines. In another way, they can be asked to put the lines in the correct order. To increase the difficulty of the task, teachers can also give distractor lines from a different poem. These activities can help to bring the students' attention to the grammatical and lexical cohesiveness of the text. In learning how to arrange the dismantled lines of a poem they can reach to a linguistic and literary appreciation of the poem( p. 101)

Relevant to what is previously mentioned, Akyel (1995) states that the unusual features of the language of poetry make many students and even teachers uninterested in using poetry in the classroom. However, this does not mean that we stop at this point; teachers can enhance students' awareness of poetic language by making the language of the poem the center of attention in the classroom. This can be achieved by making use of stylistic tools starting with analyzing what is uncommon or unique features in the poem, then continue to handle the poem at all levels (p.63).

6. Empirical Study

First, the study aims at registering undergraduate students' awareness of reading literary texts; here selected poems are chosen to achieve the demanded goal. Poetry can distinctively test and examine students' literary awareness and stylistic competence. Poems are usually short in comparison to fiction and drama. In addition, poetry exhibits a variety of stylistic devices.

In this regard, Viana and Zyngier (2017) explain that literary awareness can take many levels: Absence of awareness, index of awareness and existing of literary awareness(p. 5).

They illustrate, as cited in Tompkins(1980), a valuable remark about reading poems:

A poem cannot be understood apart from its results. Its “effects” – psychological and otherwise – are essential to any accurate description of its meaning, since that meaning has no effective existence outside of its realization in the mind of a reader (Tompkins, 1980, p. ix).
6.1. Participants and the Procedure
The participants are forty students from the second-year intermediate level of proficiency in the English language. In fact, there is a nuisance discrepancy in their levels. The procedure adopted by the researchers has been divided into steps:

The first step is giving the students' a short poem and asking them to interpret and analyze it to check their literary awareness. In this way, they depend only on their background knowledge and experience. The next step is to teach them the main stylistic devices (e.g. Figures of speech, parallelism, foregrounding, deviation) in poetry and what is the role of stylistics in understanding literary works and to check to what extent they focus on the language of poetry to reach to the rightful interpretation. The last step is to distribute a questionnaire to investigate the usefulness of stylistics according to the students' points of view.

As a matter of fact, the students at the University of Baghdad department of English do not study stylistics since it is not included in their syllabus. Thus, this study aims at applying pre-test before lecturing about the tools of stylistics. As well as a post-test which can be set after introducing the main methods and techniques of stylistics to the students.

6.2. Pre-test
Forty answers are collected by the researchers for the initial examination of the ability of students to analyze and interpret selected lines from a short poem by William Wordsworth "daffodils" (see: Appendix A). It is quite obvious that the students have difficulty in reading and analyzing this poem. At the time of the test, they were perplexed. They did not know how to analyze this rather simple poem which is suitable for intermediate level students.

The primary results of the pre-test showed that all students have no idea about what a stylistic analysis is; It has been noted that students carried a literary criticism 'as they used to do in their lectures' rather than a stylistic analysis. Some students failed completely to grasp the main idea of the poem; they did not even understand the original meaning of the poem, for example, five students thought that the poet in line 3 talked about a crowd of people that looked like a host of flowers which is completely opposite to what the poet meant. Other students explained the literal meaning of the word; they only gave synonymies to some difficult words in the poem (see figure (1).

Finally, no student came across the rhyme and rhythm of the poem, nor they refer to the figures of speech, linguistic features and the images used in the poem.
6.3. Post-test

Before exposing the students to the post-test. It is essential to elucidate and give them a clear idea about the nature of poetic language. Though the poems are short in comparison to the other genera, e.g. (drama, fiction) it is considered as a unique form of artistic usage of the language.

To achieve this goal the researchers adopt Verdonk's (2013) approach which is proposed in his "poetic artifice from the poet's and the readers' perspective". In this work, he tries to analyze a poem "London" (see: Appendix B) and proposed a methodology which intends to locate five elements in the poem. These include: semantics, syntax, lexis, phonology, and graphology (p. 12.)

In his past work, Verdonk (2002) shows exactly what these elements focus on, for example, at the graphological level, there is a focus on typographical characteristics. The phonological level refers to rhyme, meter and other figures of speech based on sounds. While the lexical level refers to vocabulary (words) and figures of speech based on meaning, such as (similes, metaphors, hyperboles etc.). The syntactic level, in short, refers to the grammatical structures (p. 58).

Verdonk (2013) emphasizes that stylistics is an interdisciplinary field connects both linguistics and literature. In order to analyze a single poem, we must focus on form and content (linguistic features and literary features)(p.11-12).

He further assumes by studying these levels of language" readers will be able to interpret and understand the meaning. Verdonk illustrates that poets aim at forming unconventional poetic language to attract readers' attention to the poem. They deliberately foreground the language to form what is called "poetry artifice". The reason for selecting this methodology; it is easy to be followed and quite suitable for intermediate level students (Verdonk, 2013, p.12).
It is worth noting that, students are also asked to apply the theory of foreground and pay attention to the aesthetic forms of language. Needless to say, they should not neglect their personal intuitions to interpret poetry.

As Verdonk (2013) emphasizes that: "...stylistics should never be reduced to some mechanical ticking off of the linguistic features of a text, but that, on the contrary, intuition and personal judgment (based on observable textual features) are of paramount importance" (p. 57).

While reviewing the students' achievements in the post-test, the researchers have noted that the students' awareness of using stylistic tools has been improved. Most students tackle the poem "London" from a stylistic viewpoint rather than a literary one as they did in the pre-test. They analyze the poem according to the levels that have been introduced to them. They concentrate on lexical, graphological, grammatical, phonological levels, detecting most unusual uses and forms of the language, most notably, the deviation at these levels.

In addition to what has been mentioned before; more than one positive indicator have been detected in the answers of the students: first, the students' responses highly to the experiment trying to prove their ability in stylistic analysis. Second, most students concentrate on the same levels of analysis which means that they analyze the poem systematically, providing the necessary evidence from the text itself (see figure 2).

One more point to be mentioned here is that; nearly all students didn’t refer to figures of speech such as: simile, metaphor, and images, and this is very promising because the selected poem does not contain these concepts.

**Figure (2)** A Sample of One of the Students' Analysis in the Post-test
7. Questionnaire
In addition to what have been done, a questionnaire was distributed to the same forty students in order to see the impact of teaching some stylistic techniques on the way of analyzing and interpreting poetry. Results revealed that most of the students agree that pedagogical stylistics helped them to overcome problems related to meaning and enabled them to focus more on figurative language and understanding the unfamiliar combination of words by knowing the concept of foregrounding. The results also revealed that before introducing students to these concepts they depend on merely the literal meaning of words without paying attention to the poetic creativity and aesthetic elements of the language.

The questionnaire which was distributed to the students contains the following questions about stylistics:

i. Stylistics helps to interpret and analyze poems.
ii. Stylistics is difficult and misleading, it does not help to analyze poems.
iii. It makes no difference.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Percentage of 40 Students' Choices</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stylistics helps to interpret and analyze poems.</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stylistics is difficult and misleading, it does not help to analyze poems.</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes no difference.</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Conclusions
This study introduced the techniques of pedagogical stylistics to the students and proved to be of a noticeable importance in terms of bringing the students' attention to crucial elements of the literary language especially poetry. Based on the results collected from pre-test and post-test, it is quite obvious that students' analyses contain aspects of both aesthetic language and their literary intuition. Finally, most of the students agreed that stylistics is helpful in studying literature. Pedagogical stylistics enabled the students to analyze poems in a systematic way based on textual evidences.

9. Recommendations
According to the obtained results, the following points are recommended:

1- Teachers of literature are encouraged to use stylistic techniques in teaching literary works. English language and literature teachers are invited to work together to help students to reach a better comprehension of the literary language.
2- There is also an invitation for the syllabus developers and the minister of higher education to incorporate stylistics as one of the subjects in undergraduate studies.
3- For researchers to conduct a similar research on other genres such as short stories.
4- Arranging workshops to train both linguistics and literature teachers and expose them to the major concepts of stylistics.
5. Another research can be conducted for the fourth year Iraqi students as part of their teaching practice to examine their ability in teaching poems stylistically. Also, to train them how to teach poems to students using pedagogical stylistics.

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References

**Appendices**

**Appendix A**

**William Wordsworth 1807**

I wandered lonely as a cloud
That floats on high o'er vales and hills,
When all at once I saw a crowd,
A host, of golden daffodils;
Beside the lake, beneath the trees,
Fluttering and dancing in the breeze.
Ten thousand saw I at a glance,
Tossing their heads in sprightly dance.

**Appendix B**

**London**

**William Blake, 1757 - 1827**

I wander thro’ each charter’d street,
Near where the charter’d Thames does flow,
And mark in every face I meet
Marks of weakness, marks of woe.

In every cry of every man,
In every Infant’s cry of fear,
In every voice, in every ban,
The mind-forg’d manacles I hear.

How the Chimney-sweeper’s cry
Every blackning Church appalls;
And the hapless Soldier’s sigh
Runs in blood down Palace walls.

But most thro’ midnight streets I hear
How the youthful Harlot’s curse
Blasts the new-born Infant’s tear,
And blights with plagues the Marriage hearse.
Enhancing Academic Writing Skills through “Reading to Learn” Strategy

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Abstract
Writing in a second language is different from writing in one’s mother tongue. Writing in a second or foreign language is undeniably more difficult than writing in the first language. Therefore, it is imperative for teachers to understand that there are many differences between first language (L1) and second language (L2) writing. Second language writing is complexified by the addition of new resources and norms (new structural elements of the new language, new rhetorical conventions, and some other things). On that ground, teachers should select the most appropriate teaching methods and strategies in their writing classes, one strategy that teachers can apply in their academic writing class is Reading to Learn strategy. This study presented information on a teaching strategy named Reading to Learn applied to one group of Academic Writing class. One group was taught using Reading to Learn teaching strategy, with the hope of helping students improve in both their reading and writing skills. This study was conducted in a writing course consisting of 20 students. Academic Writing is the highest writing class before students go to thesis proposal writing at the English Department of UKSW Indonesia. One central question to be answered is: How effective is Reading to Learn strategy when it is used to teach Academic Writing students? Instruments used were pre-test, post-test, direct as well as video-recorded observations, weekly journals, and interviews. In Indonesia, not many studies dealing with Reading to Learn have been done. One study was conducted by Samanhudi and Sugriati (2013). This study reports the effectiveness of using Reading to Learn program in teaching critical writing to teacher candidates in English Language Teaching Department, Sampoerna School of Education, Jakarta. From the statistical analysis as well as from students’ perceptions, several conclusions can be drawn. First, Reading to Learn is effective to teach Academic Writing. Secondly, not all tertiary students like working cooperatively. Some prefer working individually. The next conclusion is students perceive peer review as an important part of their essay writing.

Key words: Academic writing course, effective; Reading to Learn, writing competence

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Introduction

Writing is not an easy thing to do. Writing activity involves a number of things to be mastered, like lexical and grammatical knowledge, which can be very complex, coherence, cohesion, and mechanics. Writers also have to think about ideas as well as the logical organization of ideas. Writing is the result of employing strategies to manage the composing process. Dollahite and Haun (2012) mention that writing starts not with a pen and a piece of paper, nor does it start with a computer. It all starts with thinking, reading, and discussing about a topic. This shows us that to write, writers really need great energy to think; the analogy is like farmers who are working hard to plough their field. Tribble (2012) adds that learning to write is not a question of developing a set of mechanical orthographic skills: it also involves learning a new set of cognitive and social relations. Tribble further states:

for a variety of practical reasons, it is through the mastery of writing that the individual comes to be fully effective in intellectual organization, not only in the management of everyday affairs, but also in the expression of ideas and arguments (p.12).

Hyland (2002) also strengthens this idea, stating that writing is not taught; instead, it is learnt. Writing is a developmental process. Teachers’ role is as facilitator who help writers with space to find their own meaning. Interference should be made minimum.

From the statements above, it can be concluded that that writing can be powerful, and writing can be associated with the control of information, as well as people, as Hedge states in his book, Writing Hedge, 2012). In writing activity, precision is one requirement that must be fulfilled. Hedge (2003) states that, “One of the most important facts about composing process…is that the process that creates precision is itself messy.” (p.302) Writing in native language is of course different from writing in a second or foreign language. Hedge further states that writing in a second language is more complicated and difficult.

Since writing in a second or foreign language is more difficult than writing in the first language or mother tongue, it is necessary for teachers to understand that there are many differences between first language (L1) and second language (L2) writing (Brown, 2001, p. 339). Kern (2000) explains that L2 writing is complexified by the addition of new resources and norms (new structural elements of the new language, new rhetorical conventions, and some other things). Writing in second language will be more difficult or less effective than writing in native language, if learner is less familiar with these new resources and less confident in the use (Kern, 2000, p.177).

Dealing with writing in a second language, Babauta (2008) claims that every writer reads his or her own stuff, and puts their stuff to use in their own way. There are two ways to become a better writer in general: write a lot, and read a lot. There are no other steps. Beyond reading for pleasure, a good writer also reads with an eye for the writing. What we learn as readers, we use as writers. So, it can be said that over time, our writing becomes in some ways a compilation of all the things we have learned as readers, blended together in our own unique recipe.
This is strengthened by Simon, et al. (2009) who mention that it is intuitively obvious, that one cannot learn to write until one has learnt to read. Kress (2004, in Grainger, 2004, p. 77-78) also claims that reading is a means of engaging with the world. We transform the world as we ‘take in’ it. In the process of transformation in reading, we all form signs in a constant way. Inside the signs, there are internal representation. Kress (2004) further states that reading is a central component of the formation of who we are and who we can be. The sign-making process in reading in a way is similar to the sign-making process in writing. The social difference is that writing is a process of sing-making externally, while reading is an internal one. Reading and writing are thus always socially interrelated.

Hedge (2014, p.13) also claims that it will be beneficial for students to be exposed to models of different text types, so that they can develop awareness of what makes a good writing. “Reading”, Hedge explains, “is necessary and valuable.” However, this is not enough. To be a good writer, a student needs to read a lot, too.

Inferring the thoughts above, it can be said that to write, we need to read. What we read may be unlimited. We may read and write about relationships, assumptions, conventions, as well as acts. As Faulkner says, we should read everything, and it is up to us as readers, to keep what we have read, or to discard what we do not need. This study reveals the implementation of Reading to Learn strategy in Academic Writing class in Semester II/ 2016-2017 Academic Year. Further elaboration on the theories, methodology, as well as discussion, are presented in the later sections.

Theoretical Foundation

In Indonesia, not many studies have been conducted on Reading to Learn strategy, and its relationship with learning styles, personality types, and writing competence. One study was conducted by Samanhudi and Sugiarti (2013). This study reports the effectiveness of using Reading to Learn program in teaching critical writing to teacher candidates in English Language Teaching Department, Sampoerna School of Education, Jakarta. Critical writing is high-level writing involving arguments. Writers have to weigh up others’ evidences and arguments. They also have to contribute their own ideas. One of the characteristics of critical writing is there should be a clear presentation of the writer’s arguments and evidences, which lead to specific conclusions (Student Learning Development, 2018).

The Reading to Learn program implemented in that study allowed the researchers to employ principles from other theories of critical thinking and critical literacy. Embracing the characteristics of a case study and to some extent a program evaluation research design, the researchers obtained data from classroom observations, collection of samples of students’ texts in various stages of the teaching program, and students’ journals written after each teaching session and interviews with the students. From Samanhudi and Sugiharti’s (2013) study, results revealed that students’ ability to write an English text was better than before. This is indicated by their ability to clearly and explicitly explain details of information in the text they write, which surely fulfill the standard outlined in the critical thinking theory used in that study.

Looking at the urgency of new strategies to be applied in Academic Writing, the need to conduct research on Reading to Learn is thus unavoidable. This is also to cover the scarcity of
research on this particular teaching strategy in Indonesia. The nobleness of this research is that there have been no studies before which dealt with learners’ personality types, learning styles, and Reading to Learn strategy to teach Academic Writing class.

**Academic writing**

Academic writing refers to all writing which is created for the purpose of study (Chin et al. 2012). All university students will be especially evaluated based on their writing, so writing skills are essential for students’ academic success. Chan (2013) strengthens this idea, saying that when we write argumentative essays, our goal is to persuade others to adopt our view. We do that not by twisting the audience’s arms, absolutely, but by putting forward convincing evidence, sensible reasoning, and effective rebuttals.

There are many students who do not like academic writing, because they think that it is very difficult. However, whether we like it or not, and whether we realize it or not, in our daily life, we are all involved in some form of persuasion, both the routine or accidental ones. In academic writing, students will learn about the fundamentals or a good argument. They learn how to find mistakes, fallacies, or inconsistencies in others’ arguments, so that you will not be easily deceived. They will also learn how to formulate their own argument and influence or persuade others to agree with their opinions. Clear ideas in analysis, synthesis, and evaluation will students to stay in a good, strong stance with consistency and good reasoning. Elements graded in the pretests as well as posttests are focus of the essay, organization, structure, development, supports, elaboration, critical thinking, style, and mechanics.

**Reading to Learn**

Reading to Learn is designed to enable all learners at all levels of education to read and write successfully, at levels appropriate to their age, grade, and area of study. These strategies have been independently evaluated to consistently accelerate the learning of all students at twice to more than four times expected rates, across all schools and classes, and among students from all backgrounds and ability ranges, including students at tertiary level. The cycle is described as follows with the elaboration of each step (Listyani, 2015).

**A. Preparing before Reading**

Reading to Learn Cycle consists of six stages (Rose, 2005). The first stage is *Preparing before Reading*. The first stage of R2L cycle was initially designed for Aboriginal learners. It is called *Preparing before Reading*, in which a story or part of it is read aloud with the class, but learners have been prepared before to follow the words with understanding. These students have been guided to understand the word meanings. They are given the background knowledge that they need to know. The teacher then tells them what the story is about, and summarizes the sequence of the story.

Learners’ understanding of the overall meanings of a text will provide a good context for recognizing more detailed meanings within each sentence. This will be discussed further in the next stage named *Detailed Reading* stage. Besides stories, this first stage, *Preparing before Reading*, may also include more extensive exploration of the overall field. The text should be relevant to the curriculum topic. Again, the teacher summarizes the topic of the text and the
Enhancing Academic Writing Skills through “Reading to Learn”

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sequence of the story. This is done in words that all learners understand. Some of the terms in the text are also used to as it is read aloud. During and after reading, key terms and concepts are also briefly explained.

B. Detailed Reading
Rose (2005, p.159) further states that general understanding of the text will provide a foundation for the key stage of Detailed Reading. Here learners must read the wordings themselves. This task is made easy by reading a short passage sentence-by-sentence, with the support of meaning cues provided by the teacher. These cues enable learners to be able to identify actively wordings from their meanings. They will also be able to apply what they learn to other texts. Detailed Reading enables all learners to read the passage with full comprehension and accuracy. This phase also becomes the foundation for the third stage of Preparing before Writing. In my perspective, this phase is ideal to be done in small groups. When grouping students for comprehension, Serravallo (2010, p. 60) reminds teachers that it is useful to make sure that students are working on the same or about the same level of proficiency within a skill.

C. Preparation before Writing
In the next stage, Preparation before Writing, students are given the general framework of the genre and field in which they will rewrite the text. The teacher prepares students to imagine new texts. This is done by drawing attention to notes, suggesting alternative wordings, and discussing the field further. Now instead of identifying literate wordings from common sense cues, students select more common-sense paraphrases for the literate wordings in the notes. Then the teacher can help to elaborate by rephrasing the selection, supporting them to check issues such grammar, letter cases, punctuation or spelling, and encouraging critical discussion of the way the original author constructed the field, and how they may reconstruct it. This high-level critical analysis is possible, in Rose’s opinion (2005) because of the supported practice in deconstructing and reconstructing meanings at all levels of the text.

This stage, preparing before writing, varies with the type of text and level of schooling: with story texts in primary years, it may involve manipulating sentences on cardboard strips, followed by practice in spelling and fluent writing; with factual texts at all levels, it involves making notes from the text, in which spelling can also be practiced. The movement through these three stages is thus ‘top-down’, from overall meanings in the text, through wordings in sentences, to letter patterns in words.

The next stage involves reconstructing the text patterns of the passage used for Detailed Reading, with new events, characters, settings and so on. This Text Patterning begins with the whole class as a joint activity before moving to independent writing. The first step is to read the whole passage again and reiterate the discussion of its global structures and key features. The class then brainstorms new story elements, the teacher scribes all ideas on the board or paper sheets for later use, and the class votes on which ideas will be used for the joint story.

D. Joint Construction (Collaborative writing)
The next three stages then move back up to construct patterns of meaning in new texts. Rose (2005) clarifies that the fourth stage is Joint Reconstruction of the text. Here, the teacher
 guides the class to write a new text, with all learners taking turns to scribe on the class board. With story texts, Joint Reconstruction uses the same literate language patterns as the original passage, with new content – events, characters, settings and so on. This supports learners to use the literary resources of the accomplished author they have learned to read and apply them to a new story. With factual texts, Joint Reconstruction uses the same content as the original text, via the notes scribed from it, but the new text is written in wordings that are closer to what the learners might use themselves in assignments.

Following the whole class joint construction, the text can be erased and students can practice writing their own text from the same notes, in groups and individually, as a step towards independent research. In the joint writing process, learners take turns to scribe, but the whole class thinks of what to write and how to say it, closely following the original text patterns. This activity supports all learners to use the literate language of the accomplished author they have been reading, at the same time as creating a new story.

E. Individual Reconstruction

In the fifth stage Individual Reconstruction, learners use the text patterns or notes they have practiced using with the class to write a text of their own. Again with stories, this involves the same text patterns with new content, while factual texts involve the same content with new wordings. Skills developed through each of these supportive stages then lead to the final stage, Independent Writing task on which learners can be assessed (Rose, 2005).

F. Independent Writing

Independent writing then involves using the same text patterns again, but with individual stories, using and expanding ideas discussed with the class. As with all other stages of the curriculum cycle, some students will be able to do this activity more independently, enabling the teacher to provide support for weaker writers in the class. Techniques for reading and writing factual texts can be used at any level, from primary to tertiary study, in any curriculum area. They support learners to develop skills in reading texts with understanding, identifying key information, selecting information for notes, and using it to write texts of their own. Along the way, they also develop skills in interpreting and critiquing both the content of texts and how they are constructed (Rose, 2005, p. 158).

These writing activities flowing from detailed reading extend and intensify the approach of genre-based writing pedagogies (Rose, 2005, as cited in Cope & Kalantzis, 1993; Macken-Horarik, 2002; Martin, 1993, 1999; Martin & Painter, 1986; Martin & Rose, 2005; Rothery, 1989, 1996). This six-stage curriculum cycle is schematized in the figure shown in Figure 1.

According to Rose (2005), techniques for reading and writing stories in primary and junior secondary school support learners to read with engagement and enjoyment, to develop identities as readers, and to recognize and use literate language patterns in their own writing.
Research Methodology

This study is quantitative in nature. To be specific, the design is “the One-Group Pretest-Posttest Design” (Tuckman, 1978, p. 129); Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2000, p. 212); Ary, Jacobs, & Ravazieh (2002, p. 316); Gall, Gall, & Borg (2007); Cresswell (2009). In this kind of model, the pretest provides some information about the selected students’ initial state or condition, while the posttest describes the condition after the treatment. The diagram can be described as follows:

\[ O_1 \quad X \quad O_2 \]

\[ Figure 2 \quad The \quad Research \quad Design \]

\( O_1 \) refers to the initial condition of the students, while \( X \) the treatment or manipulation given, can be a teaching method or perhaps interest which is aroused by a curriculum innovation, or another reveal that the researcher manipulates to a certain dependent group. \( O_2 \) refers to the condition after the treatment; that is, after the researcher re-measures the group’s attitudes, interest, or condition. Afterwards, the researcher moves on to compare the pretest and posttest scores.

The case when a researcher has double roles both as the researcher as well as the teacher of both classes is possible to happen. The same case took place in this research. In order to avoid...
subjectivity, all the teaching-learning processes were video-recorded and reviewed right after the classes took place. A second way to avoid subjectivity is by having two inter-raters whose task was to score students’ pre-tests and post-tests. These two inter-raters were lecturers of writing courses at the English Department of Universitas Kristen Satya Wacana (UKSW) Salatiga, Indonesia.

In this study there was one group of Academic Writing class, consisting of 20 students. The course was worth four (4) credits, and offered for the fourth semester students at the English Language Study Program, Faculty of Language and Literature, UKSW Salatiga.

These students were taught using a teaching strategy called Reading to Learn. Seen from the numerical quantities and data, as Grix (2004) mentions, this study is mainly quantitative. About the relationship of data and evaluation, Nunan (1992, p. 185) says that “Data resulting from evaluation assist us (the researchers) to decide whether a course needs to be modified or altered in any way so that objectives may be achieved more effectively. “Nunan then explains that if some learners cannot achieve the goals and objectives set for the course, it is necessary to define the cause(s). Researchers may have some ideas about what measures might be taken in order to remedy any shortcomings. “Evaluation,” he claims, “is not simply a process of obtaining information, but also a decision-making process” (Nunan, 1992, as cited in Nunan, 1988, p.185).

In order to obtain data, some instruments were used. The main instruments were pretest and posttest. They were given in order to get the scores on the students’ writing. Pretest was given at the beginning of the semester, in the first meeting; while posttest was given at the end of the semester, in the last meeting. Besides pretests and posttest, journals, observation, documentation, and interviews were also applied with the purpose of data triangulation and to give clearer pictures of the students’ answers. During the Teaching Learning Process (TLP), video-recording was also done in Micro Teaching Room, in E Building of UKSW Salatiga Indonesia.

Findings and Discussions
In this section, findings and discussion will be discussed. In the first part, the distribution of the sample was tested using One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test. Data needed for this test are Pre-test and posttest scores from the whole class. There are two hypotheses proposed: Null Hypothesis – If the samples have normal distribution and Alternative Hypothesis, if the samples do not have the normal distribution. For the significance level, \( \alpha = 0.05 \) is used, and the statistics used is Kosmogorov-Smirnov. The Null Hypothesis will be rejected if \( p \)-value is less than \(< 0.05 \). On the other hand, if it is more than \( > 0.05 \), the Null Hypothesis will be accepted (Huck, 2012).

From the statistical calculation, it is found that the \( p \)-value for pretest and posttest of this group respectively are 0.912 and 0.998. It means that all the \( p \)-values are more than 0.05. It means that the sample has normal distribution.

Next, to see whether there was an increase in the post-test of this group after the treatment, paired-sample test was used. It will be found out whether or not the averages of the Pre-test and Post-test of this group are the same or not. In other words, it will be found out whether there is a significant difference or increase from the pretest to the posttest.
To answer this question, there are two hypotheses used. The first is The Null Hypothesis (H0): the average of the Pre-test is equal to the Post-test ($\mu_{\text{Pre}} = \mu_{\text{Post}}$). The second hypothesis is Alternative Hypothesis, or H1: the average of the Pre-test is not equal to the Post-test ($\mu_{\text{Pre}} \neq \mu_{\text{Post}}$).

For the significance level, $\alpha = 0.05$ is used. For the statistics, t-test for dependent sample is used. The Null Hypothesis (H0) is rejected if the $p$-value is $< 0.05$, and if the other way around happens, $p \geq 0.05$, then the Null Hypothesis is accepted.

From Table 1, it is clearly seen that the $p$-value is 0.048, which is smaller than 0.05, the H0 hypothesis is rejected. Table 1 and 2 show the statistical results.

**Table 1. The Difference in Averages of Pre-Test and Post-Test of the R2L Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Paired Differences</th>
<th>35% Confidence Interval of the Difference</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRE1E - POST1E</td>
<td>-9.91381</td>
<td>-12.21887</td>
<td>-5.626</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2. The Average of Pre-Test and Post-Test of the R2L Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pair</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>PRE1E</td>
<td>58.0062</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.23183</td>
<td>1.79633</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>POST1E</td>
<td>66.9200</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>8.78833</td>
<td>1.91777</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 1, it can be seen that the $p$-value is $p = 0.000$, which means the p value-is 0 (zero) or approaching 0. Therefore, the $p$-value is smaller than 0.05. The Null Hypothesis is then rejected. As a result, the average of the Pre-test is significantly different from the Post-test of the R2L Group. The average of the Pre-test is 58.01, while the average of the Post-test is 66.92. A conclusion can be drawn, that is, the learning process in R2L Group increased the students’ writing competence.

**Discussion**

From the statistical analyses above, a conclusion can be drawn. Reading to Learn teaching strategy is effective to teach Academic Writing students at tertiary or university level. To be more specific, it is effective to teach Academic Writing students of the third semester. However, there are other factors that determine the effectiveness of a teaching strategy and in turn, the success of learning.

Finney (2002) explains that learning ultimately depends on the interaction between the teacher and the learners in the classroom, also the teaching approaches, activities, materials, and
procedures employed by the teacher. Finney (2002, p. 77) further states that there is “a need for flexibility and openness to change and influences from the broader perspective of general educational theory.” About language teaching, Finney (2002) mentions:

The language teaching profession has yet to embrace curriculum development as an overall approach to the planning of teaching and learning. Our profession has evolved a considerable body of educational techniques, but little in the way of an integrated systematic approach to language curriculum processes. Such an approach may be crucial, however, if we are to develop a more rigorous basis for our educational practices. (p. 77)

Finney’s opinions above seem to be true, that all these things are interrelated: teacher and learners’ interaction, approaches, materials, activities, and procedures. It is lecturers that know best the situation of the class. Flexibility and openness to change things are needed in order to get the best teaching learning process in the class. Teachers’ readiness to teach longer academic writing also becomes an important that contributes to learners’ success. In a national survey conducted by Kiura, Graham, and Hawken (2009), it is found that in high school level, writing assignment that requires students to write longer than a single paragraph occurs less than once in a month, and it happens to almost half of the classes. Students are rarely asked to write long essay involving critical analysis and interpretation. Applebee and Langer (2006) found a similar result. Kiura et al found that about 60% of writing teachers were unprepared to teach writing (in Graham and Hebert, 2010).

Successes in schools applying Reading to Learn Strategy have been reported. Besides Samanhudi and Sugiarti’s study, there are some other research reports in this area. Cullican (2005) reported that in 2003, CEOM (Catholic Education Office Melbourne) conducted a two-year Literacy Intervencion Research Project which was aimed at improving students’ literacy outcomes. These students were considered educationally disadvantaged in their middle school years. The Reading to Learn Project to help these students is known as Learning to Read, Reading to Learn. From the program, five-year students made greater progress than year sex and seven students. Some students in junior secondary schools seemed to progress more rapidly. Factors like age, primary to secondary school transition, and complexity of school curriculum might contribute to this matter.

The Association for Education in Journalism and Mass Communication (AEJMC), a non-profit educational organization on journalism, also conducted research in 2010 on addressing the problems of compliance and developing higher level reading skills while creating guided opportunities for interpersonal and large group discussion. In their research, they applied Reading to Learn as ongoing interdisciplinary research effort which was designed to understand students’ behaviors and practices. These all are related to readings and classroom discussions through reading communities. In short, their research tried to investigate university students’ behaviors and attitudes towards reading and classroom discussions using reading communities. They also tried to find the answers of how reading communities influence students’ perceptions of overall learning.
Two questions were addressed in their research: *How are reading communities related to student course reading and discussion behaviors?* and *How are reading communities related to student perceptions of course texts and classroom discussion?* From their research, it was found that reading communities offer added value to university students’ experience. These communities promote active learning and critical thinking through course readings and classroom discussion. Another surprising fact about the relationship between reading and writing also came from Simo et al (2009). They observed that students who were academically weaker in their research seemed to be able to write code more successfully than they did when reading the code. Reading and writing seem to be interrelated and inseparable, one factor affecting the other in terms of second language learners’ writing products.

From the qualitative side of this study, that is, from students’ responses on the processes of Reading to Learn teaching strategy, it can be seen that their responses and opinions varied in a continuum from the positive to negative. In general, it can be seen that students had positive perspectives towards the stages of Reading to Learn teaching strategy. Things that made them have negative responses or perspectives mostly rooted from social factors like peer students’ lack of discipline, schedule clashes, and uncooperative friends who depended on other friends’ opinions. From academic point of view, some students complained of difficulty in interrelating ideas, this especially happened in the R2L Group.

From students’ journals on their opinions on every stage of Reading to Learn, all students, or 100% agreed that Stage 1, *Preparing before Reading* is important. Out of 21 students, 19 students gave positive responses towards Stage 2 and 3, *Detailed Reading* and *Preparing before Writing*; only two students did not give any specific opinions towards those two stages. Seventeen students responded positively towards Stage 4, and eight students showed negative perceptions towards Stage 4, which is *Joint Reconstruction*. The underlying reason behind this might be because not all students liked collaborative work. They preferred working individually to working collaboratively. Also, the competitive atmosphere of the college life pushed students to survive individually. From all students in Group E, seventeen students showed favor towards stage 5, *Individual Reconstruction*. The other three showed disfavor, while one student showed no specific opinion towards Stage 5 (Listyani, et al, 2017).

**Conclusion**

Several conclusions can be drawn from this study. First, R2L or Reading to Learn can be applied to students of any level of education. However, lecturers or teachers have to adjust the level of difficulty and materials. In this study, for example, argumentative texts which suited the level of academic writing were given to the students. Secondly, Reading to Learn is good to promote cooperation and collaboration among students, increases soft skills as well. This can be seen from students’ journals. Most of the students in this group showed positive responses towards this teaching method. There are several phases in which students need to cooperate in this program, which need collaboration and cooperation among students. They are *Detailed Reading, Preparing before Writing*, and *Joint Reconstruction*. Here, students’ soft skills are sharpened as they have to go through lots of collaborative work with their peers in the group.
The next point to consider is collaborative learning is good to be done in writing classes, even in academic writing level at tertiary or university level. Of course, not all students will like this activity. There are students who do not like this cooperation. This is a good means for them to learn how to cooperate with others, how to build good teamwork, how to accept or reject someone’s idea in the right way. However, teachers or lecturers should listen to students’ voice about how they feel at every step of the whole program.

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A Perceptive Determination of Self-Perceived Listening Comprehension Strategies Employed by Saudi English-major University Undergraduates

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Abstract
This cross-sectional survey aims at investigating Saudi English-major university undergraduates about their self-perceived listening comprehension strategies they employ to comprehend listening texts. To generate data for this empirical study, a 5-point strongly agree to strongly disagree Likert-scale questionnaire has been adapted and standardized steps were followed to ensure the reliability and validity of the instrument. Arabic version of the questionnaire was administered to randomly selected male and female Saudi English-major university undergraduates studying at foreign languages department during their regular teaching session to generate data. Descriptive analyses were run to calculate percentages, means and standard deviation. The results inform that the participants of this study prefer to use cognitive strategies the most followed by metacognitive strategies. Socio-affective strategies were reported to be used the least by this group. This trend offers valuable insights into the fact that Saudi English as a foreign language (EFL) learners resort to bottom-up strategies more frequently as compared to the top-down ones. It is recommended that Saudi EFL learners should be made aware of the significance of these strategies to enhance their listening comprehension. English language teachers should provide their students with appropriate skills of how to listen, retrospect on listening process and concentrate on practicing metacognitive and socio-affective strategies during their listening tasks. It is also recommended that teachers should provide their students with this confidence and courage to talk about their listening problems as well as the strategies they have used to tackle those problems.

Keywords: cognitive, listening comprehension strategies, metacognitive, perceptions, socio-affective

Introduction

It has also been reported that despite these efforts, English language teaching has not shown the desired results and Saudi EFL learners fail to achieve the desired proficiency in the target language including oral skills (Javid, 2010; Al-Seghayer, 2011). A growing mass of research has suggested that failure of achieving the desired proficiency in oral skills by Saudi university undergraduates is caused by factors like the weak school graduates who join universities, inappropriate curricula, faulty teaching methodologies, non-supportive environment and lack of motivation on learners’ part etc. (Rababah, 2005; Tanveer, 2007; Javid, Farooq & Ajmal, 2012; Pathan, 2013). It is also reported that in addition to the above-mentioned factors, lack of using appropriate listening comprehension strategies by Saudi EFL learners is another reason for their weak oral skills.

Literature Review

Vandergrift (2010) has stated that out of the four basic language skills, listening is the most difficult to study and thus the least understood. Though proper comprehension of this skill is very important for effective English language learning as it facilitates ESL/EFL learners to internalize various language components when they are exposed to sufficient language input through listening skills (Brown, 2001; Peterson, 2001). Rost (2001) has stated that “a key difference between more successful and less successful acquirers relates in large part to their ability to use listening as a means of acquisition” (p. 94). O’Malley, Chamot, and Kupper (1989) have reported that “listening comprehension is an active and conscious process in which the listener constructs meaning by using cues from contextual information and from existing knowledge, while relying upon multiple strategic resources to fulfill the task requirement (p.19).” Therefore, it transpires that listening is a complicated activity that is neither easy to exercise nor possible without extensive mental exertion (Holden, 2004; Serri, Boroujeni, & Hesabi, 2012).

This realization of listening skills as an active process has raised an interest among researchers to identify listening strategies and their use by EFL learners. It has been found out that efficient listeners make an effective use of listening strategies to better understand listening texts and effective use of these strategies “if identified and described, can be taught to less successful learners to better their learning”. Listening research of this type has produced “several, but similar taxonomies of listening strategies” as reported by Kassem (2015, P. 156). Review of relevant research has informed that many studies have been conducted to identify and classify listening strategies used by EFL/ESL learners (see for example Vandergrift, 2003; Liu, 2008). A second set of studies has attempted to investigate the use listening strategies among less proficient and more proficient language learners (Bidabadi & Yamat, 2011; Tavakoli, Shahraki, & Rezazadeh, 2012). Despite the fact that listening is an important skill, ESL/EFL learners usually find it the most difficult language skill (Graham, 2003). Vandergrift (2007) has suggested that one probable reason of this difficulty lies in the fact that usually EFL learners are not taught how listening skills can be learned effectively. He has further explained that in most of the textbooks, majority of listening skills activities do not engage the learners in comprehensively understanding the listening passages which leads to learners’ inability to proper comprehension. Moreover, the situation gets rather worse as Stahr (2009) has revealed that

spoken language is characterized by assimilation as well as unclear articulation, and lexical units are not necessarily as clearly marked as in written text; this
lack of clarity of spoken language makes word segmentation an extremely difficult task for L2 listeners (p. 582).

Review of relevant research has offered valuable insights into the probable factors which negatively affect listening comprehension (Underwood, 1989; Doff & Christopher, 2004; Piolat, 2008). The first factor is ‘the speed of delivery’ on which the learners do not have any control. Secondly, another major problem is that the learners do not enjoy the facility to have words repeated. Thirdly, the learners’ poor vocabulary size also hinders listening comprehension as usually it is not probable that the speakers always use words the listener knows. When listeners are encountered with these unfamiliar words, their attention is diverted from listening to figure out the meaning of the difficult vocabulary and resultantly they miss the next part of the listening text. Next, identification of the signal words used by the speakers to move from one point to another is another major factor in this regard. The situation worsens if the listener is unable to see the facial expressions. Fifth factor is the challenge that listeners experience in concentrating in the target language. This lack of concentration due to several factors hinders comprehension. It has also been reported that comprehension is improved when the topic is of their interest which increase their concentration. Sixth factor is related to their learning habits they have been exposed to in the classroom; for example, their overemphasis on understanding the meaning of each and every word that resultantly affect the use of top down strategies in listening. This happens due to the teachers’ expectation from the learner to understand every word while listening; thus, creating anxiety among the learners, which Noro (2006) has declared as the psychological reality of the construct of ‘listening stress’, and they are unable to keep track of all the information during their listening activities. The last factor that has been highlighted is the learners’ lack of the contextual knowledge. It has been reported that though the learners are able to grasp the main idea, they find it difficult to understand the whole meaning in the listening text. It has been suggested that “in order to overcome these listening comprehension problems, learners need to develop techniques known as ‘listening strategies’ (Ghoneim, 2013, p. 102). This difficulty causes anxiety among ESL/EFL learners while handling listening texts (Elkhafaifi, 2005) which Noro (2006) has declared as the psychological reality of the construct of ‘listening stress’.

It has been found out that listening comprehension strategies are the pedagogical activities and techniques which play an important role in improving the comprehension of listening input and its recall (National Capital Language Resource Center, 2004). According to Vandergrift (2007), listening comprehension strategies “refer to the strategies that listeners consciously or unconsciously use in order to understand, analyze, and interpret a text” (p. 101). It has been further stated that effective use of appropriate listening strategies facilitates understanding listening texts especially in the early stages of learning a language; thus, making language learning process more relevant and interesting to the learners (Ghoneim, 2013). Review of relevant literature reveals that listening strategies have been classified into three kinds; i.e., “cognitive (mental activities for manipulating the language to accomplish a task), metacognitive (mental activities for directing language learning), and socio-affective (activities involving interaction or affective control in language learning)” (Nowrouzi, Sim, Zareian, & Nimechisalem, 2014, p. 35).

It has been reported that cognitive strategies are exploited to better understand linguistic input and have complete information about data. One example of cognitive strategy is to guess the
meaning of unknown words from the context. The cognitive strategies help the learners to understand the listening texts and store input in short term memory for immediate use or even keep it in long-term memory for later access. In this strategy, understanding begins with the reception of listening content which is then analyzed by exploiting the organization-sounds and words as a process of decoding. It has been stated that this kind of strategy is basically a problem-solving technique used by ESL/EFL learners to efficiently deal with the listening texts and increase its comprehension. Repetition, guessing, memorizing, summarizing and piecing together of details are the examples of cognitive strategies. Metacognition has been defined as ‘thinking about one’s own thinking’. Vandergrift (2003) has posited that metacognitive strategies are used twofold by the advanced listeners as compared to elementary listeners. Metacognitive strategies keep the learners conscious during the listening tasks. Holden (2004) has suggested that these strategies facilitate listening comprehension by planning, monitoring and assessing the information collected related to the listening text as pre-listening activities. A major benefit of these strategies is the enhanced ability of learners to achieve their attention back if they lose it while listening to the text. Nelson and Conner (2008) have explained the execution of these strategies with the help of an analogy. For example, there is a learner who finds difficulty in establishing links between various concepts of a story. The use of some graphic organizer like a mind map or concept drawing to link various concepts of the story will be the exploitation of metacognition to accomplish the listening task effectively. Devine (1993) has clarified the above strategies by providing an example. According to him “skimming a text for key information involves using a cognitive strategy, while assessing the effectiveness of skimming for gathering textual information would be a metacognitive strategy” (p. 112). Bingol, Celik, Yildiz, and Mart (2014) have stated that ‘socio-affective strategy’ “ensures and promotes positive emotional reactions and perspective of language learning” (p. 2). Vandergrift (2003) has defined socio-affective strategies as the ones employed by listeners in the form of collaboration with peers and friends, to verify comprehension and to minimize anxiety to ensure better listening comprehension. The example of socio-affective strategies is “to choose to rehearse a telephone conversation in L2 with another student in order to develop confidence, or reward themselves with a doughnut when they successfully complete some task in the target language” (Bingol, Celik, Yildiz, & Mart, 2014, p. 2). Habte-Gabr (2006) has also reiterated that these strategies include stimulating learning by building better learning relationship among the teachers and learners. Furthermore, it is also important for learner to know how to reduce the anxiety, show enhanced confidence and keep high motivation to maximize listening comprehension.

Research Objective
This cross-sectional survey study has attempted to identify the perceptions of Saudi English-major university undergraduates (SEUU) studying at Foreign Languages Department (FLD) at Taif University regarding the use of metacognitive, cognitive and socio-affective listening comprehension strategies they use to understand various listening texts.

Research Questions
This research study is governed by the following research questions:
1. What are the self-perceived cognitive listening comprehension strategies (CLCS) used by SEUU studying at FLD?
2. What are the self-perceived metacognitive listening comprehension strategies (MLCS) used by SEUU studying at FLD?
3. What are the self-perceived socio-affective listening comprehension strategies (SLCS) used by SEUU studying at FLD?

**Research Design**

This cross-sectional study has a survey design in which 118 SEUU studying at FLD have been investigated using quantitative paradigms. A Likert-scale strongly agree-strongly disagree questionnaire has been administered to the participants to record their perceived preferences of various cognitive, metacognitive and socio-affective listening comprehension strategies.

**Instrumentation**

The researcher has reviewed several similar studies to develop an appropriate instrument to record the perceptions of the participants of this survey (See for example Cohen, Oxford, & Chi, 2005, Vandergrift, 2003, 2007; Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem, & Zareian, 2014; Kassem, 2015). The instrument used by Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem, and Zareian (2014) has been adapted for this survey. The researcher sent this questionnaire to three senior professors from Taif University for their expert opinion about the appropriacy of the content of the instrument. The feedback from these experts suggested to add some more listening comprehension strategies. Their recommended items were incorporated in the relevant sections of the questionnaire that was again sent to the same experts for face validity. All their comments have been addressed to and the final questionnaire comprised of 38 items with an addition of 6 items in the original instrument. It was translated into Arabic language before proceeding for pilot study. It was done to ensure that the participants understand the content well. The Arabic version of the questionnaire was pilot tested with 19 students from the same academic context. Crombach Alpha was run to establish reliability. The final version contained 38 items in three subsections.

**Validity and Reliability**

Reliability and validity are vital for scientific investigations. Face validity was done through seeking feedback from three experts in the field. After that, the questionnaire was translated into Arabic and was piloted to 19 students who had the same characteristics of the participants. The reliability was measured by Cronbach's alpha and the Reliability coefficient alpha value remained .834 that indicates high level of reliability.

**Data Collection**

After finalizing the procedural steps to establish validity and reliability of the instrument, the translated version of the final 38-item strongly-agree to strongly-disagree Likert-scale questionnaire was generalized to the participants of this study. The participants were requested to complete the survey during their teaching sessions. They were briefed about the purpose of the study as well as the ethical issues and they were given 15 minutes to complete it.

**Data Analysis**

The data were manually entered and descriptive statistics in terms of means, standard deviations and percentages of the responses of the participants of this study regarding the questionnaire items.
were calculated using version 20 of SPSS. The data generated was tabulated to be analyzed and discussed in relation to the previous research in the field in the section of ‘results and discussion’.

**Results and Discussion**

The data generated through the descriptive analyses of the perceptions of SEUU towards 38 items of various listening comprehension strategies have been presented in the tables given below.

**Table 1. Descriptive statistics for listening strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Listening strategies</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Cognitive strategies</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>3.9108</td>
<td>.31037</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Metacognitive strategies</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>3.8215</td>
<td>.27668</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Socio-affective strategies</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.95</td>
<td>4.22</td>
<td>3.7161</td>
<td>.46732</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 details the cumulative mean for the three kinds of listening comprehension strategies. The descriptive analysis informs that the participants of this study prefer to use cognitive strategies the most followed by metacognitive strategies. A high mean of 4.42 has been recorded for CLCS with SD of mere .31 indicating narrow inter-rater differences. Similarly, mean value assigned to MLCS has been 4.37 with least SD of only .27. Socio-affective strategies were reported to be used the least by this group with a mean value of 3.71. Review of relevant literature also support the findings of this survey study. Abdalhamid (2012) investigated listening comprehension strategies used by advanced and intermediate Arab ESL learners and has revealed that both groups have exhibited highest preference for cognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies have been ranked next to cognitive strategies whereas socio-affective strategies have been given the least preference. The findings are completely in line with the results of the study in hand. The findings of Kassem (2015) are confirm the results of this study. He has stated that Egyptian male and female sophomores have also exhibited the same pattern of using cognitive strategies the most followed by metacognitive and socio-affective strategies. The same findings have been reported by several other studies which have been conducted in the context of Iran (Mohseny & Raeisi, 2009; Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimechisalem, and Zareian, 2014) as well as Western countries (Bacon, 1992; Vandergrift, 2003). This highest use of CLCS followed by MLCS might be because of the participants’ preference for using inferencing techniques and background knowledge to compensate for their low English language proficiency of complexity of listening skills tasks.

**Table 2. Descriptive statistics for cognitive strategies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Cognitive</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>I put new words into a context to understand the meaning.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.0085</td>
<td>.95627</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I make guesses about the topic based on what has already been said.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.7627</td>
<td>.93989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>I listen for main ideas first and then details.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.3814</td>
<td>.89557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I predict or make hypotheses on texts by titles.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.6610</td>
<td>.97156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>While listening, I piece things together from the details.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.0169</td>
<td>.89617</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>While listening, I will notice the information questions with who, how, when, where and what in the content.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.8898</td>
<td>1.06846</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I use the tone of voice to guess the meaning of what I hear.  

I use body language to guess the meaning of what I hear.  

I use material in the answer sheet (e.g. the printed items, choices and pictures) to guess the meaning of what I hear.  

I practice sounds in the target language that are very different from sounds in my own language to become comfortable with them.  

I listen to the radio in the target language.  

I watch English programs on TV.  

I prefer to talk to foreigners in English.  

While listening, I make a written summary of the main points.  

I make a mental summary of information presented in a listening task.  

I take notes of main points and keywords.  

I watch movies in the target language.  

Descriptive analyses for CLCS indicate the participants’ preference for these strategies as six items of this category have been assigned a higher mean value of 4 or above. Highest mean value has been recorded for item 17 indicating that the participants of this study prefer to watch English movies to acquaint themselves with native accent. This finding confirms the study of Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem and Zareian (2014) who have stated that Iranian EFL learners also use this strategy most frequently to get themselves ready to perform better in listening tasks. The second highest value has been recorded for item 3 stating that SEUU as represented by the participants of this study prefer to listen for main ideas first and then for the details. Items 13 and 12 have been ranked 3rd and 4th highest preferences respectively for CLCS which are also related to talking to foreigners in the target language and watching English programmes on TV. The results seem to suggest that the participants have exhibited a trend of exposing them to the target language as much as possible to tune their ears for enhanced listening comprehension. This also confirms the study of Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem, and Zareian (2014). The participants’ preference of exposing themselves to native accent by watching movies and talking to foreigners in the target language seems to compensate for their limited exposure to English in general and listening skills in particular not only in the society but also on campus. This lack of exposure to the target language has been highlighted by Liu (2002, p. 146) who posited that “limited exposure to varieties of spoken English” is a major factor influencing learners’ overall listening difficulties. Two other items (5th and 1st) have been assigned high mean value of more than 4 as well.

The remaining twelve items have been ranked medium values ranging from 3.389 to 3.915. The least mean values have been reported for items 14 and 15 which are related to making a written and mental summary for the information presented in the listening texts. This trend aligns with the findings of Javid, Farooq and Khan (2012) who have informed that Saudi EFL learners do not prefer writing tasks. The result is also in line with the findings of Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem, and Zareian (2014) who has also revealed that Iranian EFL learners use these strategies least during their listening tasks. Third least mean was recorded for item 4 which is related to making
predictions based on the text titles. Item 16 has been put fourth on the ranking of lowest mean highlighting the participants’ least preference for taking notes of main ideas and keywords to help them increase listening comprehension.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics for metacognitive strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Metacognitive strategies</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>I have a plan in my mind before listening.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
<td>1.00213</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>I prepare for talks and performances I will hear in the target language by reading some background materials beforehand.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.4831</td>
<td>.99342</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>I decide to focus on the topic and ignore the distracters such as people and things around me.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.9407</td>
<td>.98962</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>I try to listen for specific details to see whether I can understand them.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.0847</td>
<td>.87292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I listen for key words.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.3729</td>
<td>.84526</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>I try to understand what I hear without translating it word-for-word.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.9322</td>
<td>1.05189</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>I use my experience and knowledge to help me understand.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.2119</td>
<td>.91382</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>I try to keep up with the speed.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.7627</td>
<td>.94894</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>I try to compare the developing interpretation with my knowledge of the topic.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.7119</td>
<td>.97929</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>I quickly adjust interpretation during listening if I realize that it is not correct.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.4068</td>
<td>.88903</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>I Think back to everything heard to verify the meaningfulness of guessed words.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.9915</td>
<td>1.00847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>As I listen, I sometimes ask myself if I am satisfied with my comprehension.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.7966</td>
<td>1.09043</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>After listening, I think back to how I listened and about what I might do differently next time.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.8559</td>
<td>1.03176</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31</td>
<td>After listening, I think back to the quality of my strategy use (for example planning, inferencing) and about how I can do better next time.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.7203</td>
<td>1.03681</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>I prepare a list of my problems and try to solve them before my next Listening.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.5508</td>
<td>1.24446</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This section contains 15 items to elicit the respondents’ perceptions related to MLCS and comparatively low mean values have been recorded for this category as compared to CLCS. Only 3 items have been assigned high mean of more than 4. The highest preference has been shown for listening to key words followed by item 24 stating that SEUU tend to use their experience and knowledge to help them comprehend the listening texts better. This finding confirms the results reported in CLCS of the present study as 3 highest ranking items were related to their tendency to
watch English movies, English programmes and talking to foreigners. This finding contradicts with the results of Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem, and Zareian (2014) who have reported that both these items were assigned medium ranking by Iranian EFL learners. The next 2 highest ranked items have been 21 and 28 which exhibited that the participants have high tendency to concentrate on specific details and overall listening texts to help increase their comprehension. The participants’ preference for using ‘listening for specific details’ is in line with the study of Osada (2001) who reported that EFL learners with low English language proficiency tend to use bottom-up strategies mainly concentrating on the information given in the listening texts and are unable to activate their top-down strategies to comprehend the listening content. This seems to suggest that learners’ target language proficiency is an important indicator in their selection of various listening comprehension strategies. The study of Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem, and Zareian (2014) has also supported this result as it has also indicating a reasonably high preference for using metacognitive strategy of listening for specific details in listening texts.

As far the least preferred items are concerned, ‘adjusting interpretations’ have been indicated as least preferred strategy. The next least preferred items have been 19 and 18 respectively stating that SEUU don’t do any preparation by reading relevant material or planning the listening task prior to actual listening. The results have also reported that SEUU do not usually list their problematic areas to help them improve their listening comprehension in the next listening task. The remaining items have received medium liking from the participants.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics for socio-affective strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Socio-effective strategies</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>33</td>
<td>I ask others for feedback on how to solve my listening problems.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.3983</td>
<td>1.32781</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>34</td>
<td>I attend out-of-class events like conferences where the new language is spoken.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2.9492</td>
<td>1.21140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35</td>
<td>I imitate the way native speakers talk.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.9915</td>
<td>0.99996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36</td>
<td>I encourage myself to listen more even when I am afraid of problems in understanding.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.9831</td>
<td>1.05396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>37</td>
<td>I give myself a reward or treat when I improve in listening.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.7542</td>
<td>1.21905</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>38</td>
<td>I hope teachers can teach me more skills to improve my listening comprehension.</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>4.2203</td>
<td>1.12573</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5 contains data for 6 items related to SLCS and the data generated through descriptive analysis has reported that the only item with mean value of higher than 4 expects the teachers to teach them more skills to improve their listening comprehension. This trend confirms the previous research conducted in the same academic context which indicated that Saudi EFL learners prefer their teachers to help them in all academic matters (Javid, 2014). The second highest preference has been reported for SLCS of imitating the way native speakers talk. The participants have exhibited nearly the same preference for keeping on listening even when they have problems in comprehending the text. This finding contradicts with Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimehchisalem, and
Zareian (2014) who stated that Iranian EFL learners have assigned quite low values to these two items. The least preferred items included attending out-of-class events, seeking feedback from others and rewarding themselves after achieving some improvement in listening comprehension. The descriptive analyses for this subcategory have informed medium to low preferences for all items except the last one. This situation seems to be caused by a lack of social opportunities for listening practice in the EFL context of Saudi Arabia. Review of relevant research seem to offer valuable insights into the fact that listening input is extremely low in various EFL contexts which is usually limited to the teacher talk at academic institutions (Nowrouzi, Tam, Nimechisalem, & Zareian, 2014).

**Conclusion and recommendations**

The results of this empirical study reveal that Saudi EFL learners represented by the participants of this survey prefer to use cognitive strategies the most followed by metacognitive and socio-affective strategies respectively. This trend offers valuable insights into the fact that Saudi EFL learners resort to bottom-up strategies more frequently as compared to the top-down ones. The lowest preference for socio-affective strategies entails that in listening skills courses these strategies should be emphasized more especially the ones which train EFL learners to avoid the affective problems including low self-esteem, nervousness, anxiety, low motivation, embarrassment etc. which hinder listeners’ affective performance (Cross, 2011; Gebra, 2015). It has been reported that listening comprehension is a difficult skill as it includes complex processing of listeners’ background knowledge and linguistic skills in addition to its feature of uncontrollable speed of delivery (Gonen, 2009). Therefore, it is recommended that Saudi EFL learners should be made aware of the significance of these strategies to enhance their listening comprehension. English language teachers should provide their students with appropriate skills of how to listen, retrospect on listening process and concentrate on practicing metacognitive and socio-affective strategies during their listening tasks. It also seems important that teachers should enhance their students’ top-down cognitive processing skills during their listening skills classes. It will also be instrumental in improving listening comprehension of Saudi EFL learners if the teachers highlight the background about the listening contents thus helping their students to activate content schemata enabling them to connect the listening content with their personal experiences. It is highly recommended that teachers should provide their students with this confidence and courage to talk about their listening problems as well as the strategies they have used to tackle those problems. A candid discussion and sharing of their successes and failures in this regard will also help Saudi EFL learners choose appropriate and suitable strategies. It also seems important that teachers should encourage their students to share their feedback with their classmates to help minimize these problems and enhance possibilities of improved listening comprehension.

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The author is a linguist, a researcher in second Language Acquisition, founder and ex-director of the scholarship department at Taif University. Currently he is the Dean of University Development Deanship and assistant professor of Linguistics. His research interests include SLA, syntax, linguistics skills associated with formal education and also naturalistic acquisition.
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Types of Inferences in Discourse

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Abstract
In all the diversity and manifold researches of inference its nature remains unrevealed, as there is a lack of the uniform basis of the inference occurrences. It is mainly connected with the non-homogeneity of the inference action and a huge spectrum of its occurrence in language and speech. The study focuses on the search for the universal and relative to the nature of inference criteria of the classification of inferences in language and speech to penetrate deep into the essence of the discussed phenomenon. In this regard, the paper presents an analysis and discussion of the existing inference classifications on the basis of such criteria as functionality, a vector of action, a level of cognitive procession, inferential relations, etc. The aim of the analysis is to compare the current classifications of inferences, to make a conclusion about possible vectors of the inference actions in language and speech and to find out the universal, cognitive foundation underlying inference occurrences. Taking into account the nature of inference as a way of human thinking, the types of inferences are identified according to such mental operations as comparison, filling in (framing), integration, elimination, deduction, induction on the material of various linguistic resources (texts, utterances, dialogues). The proposed classification requires further consideration on the basis of a broader linguistic material (various types of discourse, utterances involving polysemantic words or phraseological units; the study of nomination processes of complex linguistic units like idioms, derived verbs, compound nouns) and can be modified and complemented.

Keywords: classification of inferences, cognitive operations, discourse, situational context

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Introduction
The study of the relation between language and thinking has established such research objects as reflected and integrated knowledge, mechanisms of derivational knowledge and its types. In contemporary investigations into the inference phenomenon by inference is meant an operating process or mechanism of receiving inferred information in the framework of the whole cognitive process of information processing. Though the definition of inference isn’t questionable, one can come across a lot of classifications of inference types that point to the unclear nature of inference and show a diversity of approaches to the phenomenon. In this regard, it appears that inferential mechanisms are less clear than it seemed, and the action of the inferential mechanism as well as the spheres where it can be applied are unclear and cause a discussion. Such questions as how we receive the inferred information; whether the material is inferred fully or partly; what mental blocks are responsible for getting inferred information are left without answer. Thus, the article presents a try to answer some of them.

Any person, as a conscious being, is forced routinely to make conclusions consciously or unconsciously in terms of linguistic or everyday situation. That is why we should not interpret the term inference only as a linguistic phenomenon, as this notion is connected with the cogitation process in general. For example, seeing an unpleasant scene, a person may turn pale or blush automatically, in this case inference occurs at a physical level, i.e., a speculation that does not appear in the "conscious gap" has a visible effect of either redness or paleness of skin. Nevertheless, the article is not aimed at describing inference as an extra-linguistic phenomenon as it would require a larger scope of view grasping such scientific spheres as philosophy and psychology to provide a deeper insight into common principles of reasoning, mechanisms of cognitive processing of speech and interrelation between memory and operational reasoning processes.

At present, there is a manifold studies attempting to explain the mechanisms of inference on different linguistic material applied to the problems of word formation and the text or discourse perception.

Thus, reviewing the inference occurrences in language three areas in the study can be considered: 1) an inference arising due to the cognates perception (for example, graduation ceremony - graduates); 2) an inference restoring a predicate when identifying the semantics of a denominal derivative (a pianist is a person who plays the piano) or arguments to the verb that expand the polysemy of a nominal (the appearance: to have a charming appearance; the appearance of the actresses on stage; the appearance of books from the press, etc.) 3) an inference underlying the polysemy analysis of derivatives belonging to different parts of speech (identifying the initial prototypical meaning of the word morpheme and then recognizing the entire semantic family of the words by the principle of family similarity . For example, outside a text the adjective ‘forest’ has a common meaning "belonging to forest", but in certain context this word can mean – ‘being in the forest’ (a forest glade), typical of the forest (forest odor), etc.). The research carried out on the derivative verbs can be considered another area of studying the inference in the word formation. The inference process serves here as an instrument for deducing a meaning of a derivative verb from the motivating stem, which acts as an accumulator of knowledge and the "context" in the conceptual integration of the stem and the derivational morpheme.
In the reviewed areas, the inference is taken as an operational process, which plays either a cohesive or an expansion role. Nevertheless, in reality the spectrum and nature of the inference action is much broader. This statement can be supported by a number of works in which the inference is studied within the framework of various types of discourse: narrative (Clark, 2009), scientific, argumentative (Graesser et. al., 1997) as well as the works studying inferential processes while reading (O’Brien, Cook & Lorch, 2015; Helder et al., 2015; Goldman, McCarthy & Burkett, 2015). The discursive study of inference began with a number of pragmatic theories: text-processing models (van Dijk & Kintsch, 1983), the situational model (Sperber & Wilson, 1986), etc. In these studies there was an attempt to step aside from the formal logical approach in understanding of the inference. The inference was viewed as a set of deductive or exclusion rules. For the first time the influence of internal, cognitive information within the current situation and social context was taken into account. Later, the effect of the inference in the discourse was considered in relation to the level of text processing; the type of inferred semantic relations; the type of the knowledge structure and context, etc.

Relying on the text processing model (van Dijk & W. Kintsch, 1983) some authors identify the vertical and horizontal types of inference action in text. Vertical inference occurs in the process of organizing atomic propositions into higher-level structures: macro propositions and then into macro propositional schemes. Horizontal inference can be coherent or extensive ones: the first one is necessary to fill the gaps on the micro or macro propositional level, the second one is for a more complete, broad understanding of the text base (Ballstaedt et. al, 1981). The types of the above mentioned inferences correspond to the types of inferences identified due to the place of their action in the text. Carpenter & Just (1977) suggest defining inferences as forward and backward. A forward inference is directed to the parts of the text following the inference-generating passage, the backward has an effect on the parts of the text preceding the inference-generating passage. As a similar example, one can refer to the identification of inference types according to a functional criterion. Analyzing a structure of a paragraph and how it correlates with the inference mechanisms, Crothers (1979) finds it necessary to separate deductive logic from plausible types of inference, which he defines as a priori inference and a posteriori inference. Crothers’ inference-based theory of text structure, as well as the theories discussed above, are based on the fact that the underlying structure of the text is formed due to the explicit, surface text by making some propositions, elements of propositions and linking inferences. If the inferences are based on the information external to the text, such as the background knowledge, Crothers classifies them as a priori ones. A posteriori inferences are deduced the course the semantic processing of the text / utterance on the basis of the received information. An important feature of a plausible inference is its optionality. Thus, the structure of the text becomes dependent on the personal inferences deduced in the course of the text perception. In this regard one should mention the inference distinction offered by Reder (1980). He distinguishes obligatory and facultative types of inferences. The obligatory inference is necessary for the reconstruction of the text coherence and the filling of semantic blanks; the facultative one enriches the text content without performing the cohesive function.

In contrast to the theory of van Dijk & Kintsch (1983), the lexical decomposition theory serves as another basis for distinguishing types of inferences (Schank, 1979), (Sanford et. al, 1981). Dividing a text into semantic primitives and their interrelations, Sanford & Garrod (1981) identify
an "automatic" type of inference, believing that the inference is built in the underlying conceptualization. For instance, when perceiving the second of the two related sentences: *Mary dressed the baby. The clothes were made of pink wool*, the word "*clothes*" is already presented in the form of a semantic primitive, as it is deduced when the word "*dressed*" appears (Sanford et. al, 1981). In their further researches (Garrod & Sanford, 1982) they go even further, considering two types of inferences: an "automatic", unconscious one and a mentally controlled, that appears on the level of consciousness. There is a similar type of an inference that occurs when a general term is replaced by a specific one. The perception of sentence *The fish attacked the swimmer* lasts longer than the perception of the sentence *The shark attacked the swimmer*, because the addressee is forced to infer what underlies the general term ‘*fish*’, by substituting it with specific terms ‘*shark*’, ‘*piranha*’, etc. M. Singer analyzes the inference that is deduced when filling such slots in a sentence, as an agent, a patient, a tool. He classifies it as a case-filling inference. So, the sentence *The tooth was drilled* can be easily supplemented with the words “*by a dentist*” (Singer, 1979).

The contextual theory can be considered as another approach to the classification of the types of inferences. Considering the general characteristics of the context, Clarke & Carlson (1981) come to the conclusion that the context can be intrinsic and incidental. The former is subjective and has an external impact on the process of perception, namely, on the emotional-personal attitude to the statement, the situation, the physical state of the listener, etc. The latter is the "common ground" for the speaker and the listener at the moment of speech, derived from three main sources: physical co-presence, linguistic co-presence and an equal social background. According to the authors the processes of inference are based on mutual knowledge obtained from the above mentioned sources of experience. Thus, the inference linking the previous statements to the newly perceived ones, is based on the linguistic co-presence, suggesting that the listener takes his own knowledge and the knowledge of the speaker as mutual. The output information is also influenced by physical co-presence, implying that the emotional and physical perception of the communicative situation is common to the speaker and the listener. Belonging to the same community is the source of relevant background knowledge necessary to understand the linguistic realities and eliminate misunderstanding in the communication (Clark, 2009; Clark & Carlson, 1981).

There are also theories considering online inferential processes in both passive and reader-initiated comprehension (Graesser et. al., 1994; Isberner & Richter, 2014). Thus, the constructivist theory (Graesser et. al., 1994) is based on the types of knowledge structures used to create the reference situation model of the narrative text. The theory is built on the principle "search after meaning”. According to this principle, the reader seeks to create a notional representation in line with his own goals and coordinates it at the global and local levels, explaining the actions and events of the text. Thus, the reference situation model becomes a mental representation of heroes, events, actions, the environment, etc., which are explicitly mentioned in the text or are filled in inferentially by means of activating the background knowledge structures. Background knowledge is activated through the recognition of patterns, the explicit content of words and their combinations, the interpretation of the text. If the structure of the background knowledge is familiar, most of it is automatically activated in the working memory. With regard to the content of the inference generated from the background knowledge structures and in accordance with the level of the structure of the reference situation model, the authors distinguish 13 classes of
inferences tracking the local and global coherence, the reader's emotional state, the ideas and goals of the author, etc.

Having done a retrospective analysis of the existing inference classifications and the criteria underlying them, we have identified two general approaches in the classification of the inferences. The first one is taken according to the way of inference generating. The inference can be triggered either automatically (van den Broek, Beker & Oudega, 2015) or it can be preceded by evaluating the existing information and processing of knowledge structures (Yeari & van den Broek, 2015). The second approach is based on the time characteristics of the inference generation: the inference can occur in two modes: on-line or off-line. The inference generated on-line can be called a bridging inference. It serves to link words or small parts of text at the local level (they are deictic, antecedent, instrumental, role, etc. elements). To it belongs the inference which helps to deduce the main idea of the text by linking large textual segments. The inferences generated off-line are either automatic inferences or inferences broadening and enriching the perceived meaning. It should be stressed that mainly narrative texts were analyzed when distinguishing the above-mentioned approaches to the inference classification. Unfortunately, this fact significantly reduces the perspective of the study and does not allow working out a unified approach to the analyzed phenomenon. In our opinion, inference as a process having a universal character should not be reduced to a narrowly focused analysis of narrative texts or chains of logical conclusions used in analytical texts. To determine the essence of the inference and, as a consequence, its types, absolutely different, deeper basis for the classification of the inference types are required.

**Research Questions**

1. Search for the universal basis for the classification of inference types that would be relevant to the inference nature;
2. Study of the types of inferences in relation to the linguistic material; analysis of the results.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the study is to examine the nature of the inference as thoroughly as possible via studying all sides of the phenomena and classifying its types. In the present research the inference is primarily viewed as a way of thinking and, consequently, the search for the basis of the classification of its types is carried out through the analysis of the mechanisms of human thinking taking into account various areas of the inference functioning.

**Research Methods**

The discursive and contextual types of analysis were chosen as the primary research methods. In the process of the contextual analysis the inference was studied on the material of different language resources such as a text, an utterance or a dialogue. The aim of the discourse analysis was to identify the context, underlying a piece of oral or written speech, and to study the correlation between the choice of the vocabulary and the context.

**Findings**

The inference is a form of mental activity; therefore, it is thinking that could constitute the foundation for penetrating into the essence of the inference process. Thinking is a mental process of generalized and indirect reflection of constant, regular properties and relationships of present,
significant to the solution of cognitive problems. Thinking sets the structure of individual consciousness, forms the values governing the personal assessments and the interpretation of events and phenomena, provides their interpretation. To understand something is to include something new into the present cognitive space. In the course of the historical development and social work practice being in close link with the development of language a human has mastered stable forms of objectification of mental activity results: concepts, judgements, and inferences. Mental activity may be purely algorithmic, logically structured, for example, when doing mathematical tasks and lining up the arguments logically, and, on the other side, may have a heuristic and creative nature. Inference, as a phenomenon different from syllogisms formulated by Aristotle, should be referred to the latter of the mentioned forms of mental activity, as one of the major signs of inference are guess and heuristics. If the following algorithm means forming a chain of consecutive arguments and rigidly determines a conclusion, then heuristics only sets the probable line of possible outcome, but does not guarantee its correctness. All horses are mammals. Horses are herbivores. Therefore, all mammals are herbivores is a logical chain of assumptions with a logically correct, but practically false conclusion. This chain of reasoning is an artificial equivalent of human thinking, but quite far from reality. Let's consider another example. Well, to be honest I am not happy with the way you run the department. The trouble with you is you always want to know where I am, every second of the day. How can I meet my sales targets if I have to spend all the time writing reports, telephone messages and attending meetings. This fragment of discourse shows that there is no sequence in the chain of put forward arguments, and the implied meaning is a completely different from what is said 1) I am tired of nit-picking; 2) I don't have enough time to perform the primary work; 3) there is a lot of unnecessary work in the office, etc. However, the conclusion that the interlocutor makes is right - You should take some days off, Mary. I see you are tired, but if you really want to help, write down your suggestions. It happens because the basis of inference is heuristics and guess, which modify what is inferred by the speaker. Perceiving an implicit statement, one does not get the literal meaning of the words, rather refers the third meaning, which is created not solely on the basis of the literal meaning of the words, but one’s own personal background and extra-linguistic context. The extra-linguistic context in this case refers to the current situation, bringing out certain emotions of the listener and making him evaluate the ongoing event. The main thinking operations are considered to be comparison, analogy, generalization, abstraction, systematization, concretization, induction, deduction, analysis, synthesis, etc. However, not all of these operations can be considered in relation to inference. Therefore, analyzing inference we started out from the linguistic material and sought the correspondence between the received conclusion and the underlying mental operation.

Comparison is a mental operation, revealing similarity and difference among the phenomena and their properties, forming a basis for the classification and the generalization of these phenomena. The need for the selection or juxtaposition of an object to the class of similar ones causes a comparative inference in which a prototype as an abstraction from a set of incentives, serves a model for comparison. In cognitive psychology a sample is some internal structure, which, when compared to sensory stimuli, helps to identify the object. After comparison of the object with its sample is over, further processing of information may occur as well as interpretation of the object. Prototype-based comparison is viewed by cognitive psychologists as a more likely economical model of comparison in human thinking as compared to the above one, since "prototype is not only an abstraction from a set of incentives, but also a "synopsis", the best
representation of this pattern”. For example, the analysis of polysemy of derivatives of different parts of speech shows that identification of words belonging to the same semantic root, occurs due to their comparison with the prototype in the basis of this semantic family. An adjective *road* means relating to a road, *roadworks* mean *works on the road*, *road pavement* is *the surface that covers the road*. In our case, the road is a specific object that has both sensory standards and prototypes in the minds of native speakers, with which all subsequent objects are compared. Thus, inference is an operation of comparison, where the recipient makes a conclusion on the belonging of the compared object to the total assembly of the objects (e.g. associated with the road) and then adds evaluative characteristic to the final conclusion, which is often supplemented by personal emotional experiences, images, sensory feelings (smell of fresh asphalt-pavement, hard work in characterizing road works, etc.) This hypothesis is reflected in the works by A.A. Zalevskaya (2005), who compares the process of word perception with the action of holographic beam, which highlights affective-cognitive-perceptual basis, revealing deep layers of its meaning. Any process of inference, in this case comparative inference, is based on this principle. Comparative inference is usually accompanied with integrative inference involving the connection of mental fields or frames of knowledge, on the basis of metaphor or metonymy (Fauconnier, 1997).

-You can owe me small sum money.
-But I'm as poor as a church mouse.

In a comparative metaphorical model poor as church mouse the focus is made on the knowledge of such monastic tradition as moderation in eating. A church mouse, due to such moderation, does not have enough stocks and lives from hand to mouth. Thus, the listener comes to conclusion that the person does not lend him money because he himself lives in straitened circumstances.

**Filling in or framing** (the term framing is derived from the word *frame* (Minsky, 1974); a frame is a structure of the information storage in our memory that can reflect a stereotyped situation and the typical components) is a cognitive thinking operation by which the missing components or details of the situation are filled in. The examples of filling in inference are great in number.

A – We need to talk seriously.
B – Where else was I wrong?

In the given example A is an adult or a teacher who verbally indicates the frame of future communication "a serious talk", B is a junior or a student who interprets the A’s replica not as an invitation "to talk seriously ", but as an inevitable reprimand completing the situation to their own understanding of a "serious conversation". A serious conversation for an adult implies a "heart-to-heart talk", where everyone should try to understand one another; an adult should explain some important things to the child who should to take them into account in the future. For a child a "serious conversation", due to the existing child's experience becomes a reprimand, a discussion of unpleasant things that he/she is ashamed of discussing with an adult. In this case, a filling of certain slots of a "serious conversation" for an adult and a child takes place. For each of the participants the slots of a "serious conversation" may be different. In our case they differ from agents and patients. There is no patient for an adult in the situation of "a serious conversation", but
there are two equal agents. A child, in his/her turn, completes the patient, attributing to him the role of a defendant, or even a victim of parental upbringing. A similar functioning of inference can be seen when perceiving a newspaper title, for example, Case Mr N Finished In Court. This heading makes the reader recreate the situation in court and refer Mr N to either the offender or the victim.

The effect of filling in inference can be seen when interpreting words having the same root in a text. *There was too much noise at the school graduation party. The guys had fun celebrating the end of their study. This assembly was special; such abundance of diplomas with Honors was for the first time.* When comprehending this statement the components of the situation are completed: the guys turn into graduates, an assembly into graduation, etc.

**Integration** is mental linking of concepts or mental spaces through such types of projection as conceptual metaphors, conceptual metonymies and schematic inductions. According to the theory of conceptual integration (Fauconnier & M. Turner, 1995) the domains or mental spaces include the elements represented by groups of nouns which can be either the objects constructed on-line, or the existing objects in a conceptual system. The connection of two or more mental spaces occurs through a generic space, which provides common information for all the spaces. The fourth integration space is a blend. Blend gets the elements from both the original spaces and converts them into a new emergent structure that is different from the original mental spaces. The principle of action of the integrating inference is the same. It can be seen in particular on the example of forming a nominative meaning of a compound word or phraseological unit. The perception of such structures in a text is usually contingent with the double inference (Suvorova & Polyakova, 2016) (when the conceptual integration occurs simultaneously when interpreting a compound word or phraseological unit and connecting it with the rest part of the text). The example of integral inference can be the interpretation of a phraseological unit *A bad dancer always complains of his legs*. It is possible to distinguish two original mental spaces a *dance* and *legs*. These mental spaces are connected with each other through metonymic conceptual projection and form a common blend, which includes, on the one hand, grace and lightness, inherent to *a dance*, and on the other hand, such a flaw as clumsiness when *walking* common to some people. Cognitive processing results in the integrating inference *a bad work is explained by a ridiculous reason*. If this phraseological unit occurs, for example, in the following situation *Even if you learn math, or not - A bad dancer always complains of his legs*, the phenomenon of double inference occurs, when the inferred meaning on the bases of a phraseological unit is subjected to a secondary rethinking on the basis of the existing text. It still remains unclear how the whole process of double inference occurs: either inferring of meaning of a phraseological unit is combined with inferring of general meaning of a saying, or these processes represent a chain of sequential findings. In any case, in the process of thinking the key concepts are included in all new links and, therefore, they acquire new qualities, from which the most relevant are selected, which are suitable for linking with other concepts and in this way common sense of saying is generated. We will emphasize that the bases of this link form personal meanings influencing the identification of qualities of an object, as well as adding to sensor, evaluative and emotional components. In such a way a new content from the statement is derived, on the one hand, it acquires a different meaning every time; on the other hand, new properties may be elicited in it.
Elimination is a cognitive operation by which the elimination of some irrelevant information occurs in the course of comprehending, processing and semantic inference. In this case we deal with eliminating inference. When comprehending the utterance *As soon as I started working, I began to put away for a "Moskvich"* such unnecessary details as the time when the work started, the type of the car, etc. are eliminated and the most necessary information is interpreted the speaker really wants to buy a car "Moskvich", but he cannot do it immediately because the sum of money is too much for him. The effect of eliminating inference is based on the principle of economy that is why only those signs are capable of elimination which "don’t have new information, and serve as a sort of auxiliary elements for an adequate perceiving of information”. If every time we expressed our thoughts to their full extent, showing all the links among them, verbal communication between people would be impossible. Therefore, the principle of elimination forms the basis for creating implicit statements and their inference. One of example of double functioning of eliminating inference can be elliptical sentences.

- Are you done?
- In the beginning.

Compare these elliptical sentences with their complete counterparts.

- Have you finished your job?
- No, I just started this job.

In implicit statements the speaker relies on extra-linguistic context which includes 1) common to both interlocutors theme - work that is currently being done; 2) belonging to a certain group that performs this work; 3) emotional and evaluative perception of this work (for example, its labor intensity, sustainability, deadlines, etc.) 4) knowledge on the essence of this work, etc. When decoding this utterance a similar extra-linguistic context has the same components which may vary only by emotionally-estimative perception. Thus, the effect of eliminative inference caused by conventional omissions in the structure and fabric of the text does not affect communicative-pragmatic potential. Elimination of semantically relevant quantum of information can also be described due to its pragmatic reasons, to which peculiarities of target, set by the subject of speech, should be ascribed. This factor determines the subject of the communication, which is different from the underlying fragment of reality in becoming a subjectively perceived reality. If a statement contains semantically relevant information, which, however, is contrary to communicative intention of subject of speech, it is reduced by the recipient as unnecessary one (and it may sometimes lead to misunderstandings and distortion of perceived meaning).

In addition to the juxtaposition action of eliminative inference in building and percepting the utterance of speech, it is possible to specify different mental levels of the process described. In the above given examples we have seen the so called superficial level of eliminative inference action. A deeper level of inference understanding should be considered the interaction of two types of inference: integrating and eliminative ones, because the action of integrating inference is always determined by extraction of key information quanta due of one concept to connect them with relevant information quanta of another concept.

**Deduction** (lat. deductio – extraction) is a reflection of the general cohesion of phenomena or a categorical coverage of a particular phenomenon by means of its general links, the analysis of
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the specific concepts in the system of generalized knowledge. Consequence of deduction is logical conclusion, which is based on a chain of reasoning, where its parts (utterances) are linked each other with logical conclusions. The start (intentions) of deduction is a hypothesis, which can be characterized as a general statement (“common”) and the end is a conclusion based on them. Deduction is the basic means of a logical proof. The concept of deduction is very close to the concept of inference, if it implies a logical conclusion.

Defining the laws of formal logics Aristotel was the first to explain the logics of inference. From that moment and up to now inference is often compared with Aristotel’s syllogisms without taking into consideration that formal logic and natural reasoning are two different phenomena. Formal logic used for instance in programming languages requires strict algorithmic actions, and it can’t be compared with natural logic of human reasoning that is less predictable, based on direct and indirect expression of sense and depends on a vast majority of factors that cannot be logically simulated. Background knowledge, a situation, a context, an emotional characteristic of events can’t be logically built (Suvorova, 2016). The most vivid example of the artificial application of formal logic laws to the process of natural human reasoning were several semantic theories (Gamut, 1991; Montague, 1973; Carnap, 1948). In pragmatics an example of formal logic could be conventional implicatures (Grice, 2001; Leech, 1986). There are researches in the field of discourse reviewing inference as formal and stochastic induction, and studies that present an analysis of informative rhetorical utterances (idioms, metaphors, clichés) that are comprehended in the framework of formal logic. Such understanding of inference is normal, if it is equated with common understanding of the logic of a conclusion. Nevertheless, it’s necessary to distinguish between such definitions as inference, implicature, inference, syllogism, taking into account that the listed notions are synonymous but unequal. Each of them defines its own segment in the spectrum of natural and logical conclusions and they should not duplicate or substitute each other. Among the enumerated notions inference explains natural logic of cognitive reasoning and it shouldn’t be used to define formal logic conclusions because these ones have their own definition – syllogisms. In its turn inference is a process of natural logic or the inferred knowledge in a course of cognitive processing of information based on social and cultural background knowledge, a situational context, experience, a personal emotional and evaluative characteristic of the interpreted information as well as deduction, guessing and hypothetical justifications. In this regard, the inference of deductive nature will be considered here, but which is not equal to deduction.

A: If the weather is good, we will go for a walk.
B: It means that you do not go to work tomorrow?

In this situation, it is clear that, B relying on the fact that there is an opportunity to spend time together, comes to conclusion that A will be free (if you can go for a walk, then you are not going to work). This example shows logical conclusion, which is the result of a chain of logically related reasoning (the weather is good → we go for a walk → mom does not go to work). In contrast to deductive inference, which is built on pure facts, like All human beings are mortal, Socrates is a man, Therefore Socrates is mortal, deductive inference is affected by context,
background knowledge, personal experience, emotions, etc., therefore conclusion in this case (e) cannot be formal, it can vary and these changes can be significant.

**Induction** is a plausible inference, when by individual features of some phenomena a judgment is made about all the objects of this class. Traditionally, induction is contrasted with deduction, because unlike deduction it is directed from particular conclusions to the general ones. However, the difference of inductive inference from the deductive type is of a vague nature, because it is rather problematic to see the borderline where a person starts from general and comes to particular and vice versa. Therefore, the separation of inductive inference from the deductive one is very intuitive and difficult to verify.

*A: You’ve got a poor mark for your homework again.
B: Tamara Ivanovna just niggles to my handwriting.
A: You’re just a slob.*

In the conversation with a son, proceeding from the knowledge on the son’s character and the keyword *handwriting*, the mother concludes that a poor mark was received because of his carelessness. As we can see, these experiences compel to do empirical generalizations based on precedents from personal background (for example, a child often gets poor marks for his/her dirty handwriting, which leads to form a general conclusion on his character that he/she is a slob). Inductive inference, therefore, is built on certain stereotypical metal models (if a child has dirty handwriting, he/she does not keep his/her room in order, he/she is carelessly dressed, etc., a stereotype of a kid is a slob is formed).

Through mental models we interpret our experience, simplify the worldview, generalize events occurred with us. On the one hand, this allows us to compress, archive our experience, and on the other hand, we lose the variability inherent in things and events. At first, the cognitive process works on mental model, then mental model adapts the perceived information. Thus, induction replaces the diversity of real life with monotonous views about it.

So, the main difference between inductive inference and deductive one is that the latter is based on stereotyped perception of reality, which brings to the conclusion, neglecting the truth. In other words, inductive inference is the result of a chain of hypotheses that are implausible and based on stereotypes.

**Conclusion**

The analysis of inference nature has demonstrated necessity to identify main types of inferences, which would help expose all the aspects of this phenomenon. The inference phenomenon has a multi-vector nature which is manifested in completely different fields of human activity. Studying inference in the framework of linguistics, we, nevertheless, search for the inference type classification basis in the field that is wider than linguistics – in the field of human thinking. This approach has been chosen for two reasons: 1) the universal nature of the inference (a person infers not only on the basis of what was said, but also on the basis of what was seen, perceived, emotionally experienced); 2) the relation of inference to human thinking (inference is referred to the form of thinking and cognition).
In the course of the linguistic material analysis (texts, spontaneous human speech, etc.), the following types of inference have been identified: comparative, filling in (framing), integrating, eliminating, deductive and inductive. The presented classification can be supplemented, since the scope of language material for the inference phenomenon study is rather large.

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References


Exploring the Role of Teacher Talk in Saudi EFL Classroom: Importance of F-Move in developing Students’ Spoken Skill

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Abstract
English language teaching in Saudi Arabia faces several challenges from both teacher and students’ perspective. Teacher Talk (TT) is one of the areas of teaching and learning which is often neglected in classroom research even with its high importance in student learning. Identifying the literature gap on TT in specific sociocultural contexts, this study aims to investigate different types of f-moves in Teacher Talk and their impact on developing students’ dialogic skills in English as Foreign Language (EFL) classrooms in Saudi Arabia. The IRF sequence (initiation, response, feedback or F-move) is considered a common sequence of TT in Saudi EFL classrooms. This study uses Cullen’s (2002) analytical framework which focuses on the third sequence of the IRF and Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory to explore the emerging themes of TT in Saudi Arabian secondary classrooms. The methodology of the study is a qualitative case study, and the participants of the study are 18 secondary school teachers all share Arabic as their first language. The data was collected through classroom observation, audio-recording of forty-five-minute classroom lessons, and semi-structured teacher interviews. The analysis focused on the discoursal and evaluative role of F-Move. The data analysis shows three F-Move types 1) F-Move Repetition Discoursal 2) F-Move Evaluative 3) F-Move Elaborative Discoursal. The findings point out that these F-Moves may increase student-teacher interaction, identification, and correction of errors, and maintain and guide dialogic conversation/interaction between teacher and students if it is correctly oriented. The data analysis shows examples in which TT promotes students’ involvement and increases their dialogic skills while, on the other hand, when TT reduces students’ potential to participate and consequently reduces the students’ spoken output.

Keywords: EFL classrooms, dialogic skills, f-move functions, teacher talk, teaching English language, the IRF sequence, Saudi Arabia, sociocultural theory

Introduction

Classroom teaching activities are an essential part of the English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning process. In the EFL context, it is hard to find ‘learning without teaching’ (İncêçay, 2010). Appropriate teaching styles have a significant positive impact on the output process of learners and consequently the whole learning and teaching process. A well-used way of studying classroom interactions and analyzing the most common teaching and learning processes is through researching the use of Teacher Talk (TT) in the classroom. TT is an extensively researched concept because of its importance and centrality in EFL teaching and learning. TT refers to the language teachers use to communicate and instruct students in the EFL classroom. According to Longman Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics, TT is defined as:

Variety of language sometimes used by teachers when they are in the process of teaching. Accordingly, when teachers try to communicate with their learners, they often simplify their speech, modify it and develop some spoken teaching styles to address their learners’ language needs (Richards & Schmidt, 2013, p. 588).

TT has a deep impact on developing learner’s language proficiency and competence and plays a critical role in learning and acquiring the foreign language. Different researchers such as Gibbons (2002, 2009), Mercer (2002, 2008), Van Lier (2001) and others have investigated the impact of TT in EFL context in order to understand its role and impact on the process of learning and teaching. They establish that TT has a crucial in developing student’s spoken language and increase and expand students’ communicative language skills inside and outside of classrooms. As this study is concerned with TT in Saudi EFL classrooms, it attempts to explore the importance and the role as well as the urgency to modify TT to suit the EFL learners by analyzing teachers F-moves to conclude whether Saudi TT helps or hinders learners’ language skills and spoken proficiency.

Research Objectives

The current study focuses on the role of TT with an emphasis on F-Move in the Saudi Arabian context. The three-main research focuses of this study include

1- The role of TT in students’ language learning in EFL classroom

2- The effects of socio-cultural factors on TT

3- To investigate whether TT facilitates or obstructs students’ language outputs.

Literature Review

Classroom discourse and TT has been the subject of investigation of many research studies (Walsh, 2011; Cullen, 1998; Thornbury, 1996). However, the major focus of literature on TT is on its general effectiveness and its role in learner’s development. Only few studies have investigated the socio-cultural aspect of the TT and how cultural and sociological factors affect TT. In this regard, the research of Cullen (2002) and Jones (2011) investigate the follow-up move approach in TT with a focus on sociocultural context.

Walsh (2002) asserts that TT can affect student’s learning both positively and negatively based on its use and effectiveness. TT can impact the learning process in the classroom and can facilitate or obstruct foreign language acquisition. According to Walsh (2002), the English
language classroom is a social context on its own, and its interactions should be evaluated not on the basis of quantity but quality. The author highlights that some teachers create opportunities for student learning and participation through conscious or unconscious reconciliation between the pedagogical goals and their language use. Therefore, the use of TT to achieve pedagogical goals is ascertained. On the other hand, in some classrooms, TT hinders the involvement opportunities, putting a cap on students’ learning. The research also distinguishes between the constructive and obstructive factors of TT. Teachers, by choosing direction error correction, content feedback based on pedagogical goals, asking for confirmation and clarification, and students’ participation through students’ self-managed turn-taking with minimum teacher intervention, and scaffolding and providing missing input in learners’ language breakdown facilitate learners’ involvement and maximize the learning potential. On the other hand, the features including, teachers’ intervention to smooth turn-taking, an undefined teacher echo, and teacher’s interruptions can obstruct learning and involvement of students. However, the teacher echo can play both facilitative and obstructive role, and it is up to the teacher to manage it positively through tying it to a pedagogical goal. So, basically it emphasis on matching the pedagogical goals with linguistic goals in the classroom to elicit learning potential.

Cullen (2002) has focused on the importance of the F-Move (follow-up move) in TT and its impact on student’s learning. The F-Move refers to the feedback or follow-up move by teachers in a classroom; it is the third move in Sinclair and Coulthard’s (1975) three-part exchange structure Initiate- Response- Follow Up (IRF). The follow-up move occurs when the teacher provides feedback on students’ responses to the initiative or questions. Cullen’s (2002) study investigates both evaluative and discoursal roles of F-Move in English language classroom. Cullen’s (2002) study is applicable but not limited to the traditional classrooms where ‘whole-class fronted teacher interactions’ predominate (Xiao-Yan, 2006). The study highlights how the teacher’s follow up move greatly impacts the dialogue and interaction between teacher and students and affects how ideas develop and are expressed by students in response to the initiation. Cullen (2002) highlights four specific characteristics involving reformulation, elaboration, comment, and repetition, and one general feature ‘responsiveness’ that make the F-Move effective in language classrooms.

In the context of Saudi Arabia where the English Language classrooms hold the single most important opportunity for learning, the effectiveness of TT cannot be more emphasized. The classroom is the only opportunity for students to practice their language skills because the use of English as Foreign Language outside the classroom is quite rare (Hamad, 2013; Khan, 2015; Liton, 2013). Even, the cross-classroom use of English language, i.e., the use of English in teaching other subjects is quite infrequent.

The Saudi English language curriculum focuses on teaching student’s the mechanics of English language with an emphasis on passing the exam rather than its communicative value. Therefore, the use of English language is limited to an educational subject and there is a lack of opportunities to practice English language outside of classroom, or in its real communicative environment (Paige, R. M., Jorstad, H. L., Siaya, L., Klein, F., & Colby, J., 2003). The Saudi English Language learners often do not meet the educational goals of communicative proficiency or spoken language skills. Currently, the attitude towards learning English as Foreign Language (EFL) in Saudi Arabia has transformed with changes in the society’s cultural, economic, and political front. The use of English language is increasingly becoming common on all fronts.
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including business, economics, and education as part of country’s efforts to strengthen its ties with the English-speaking countries. The function of English language in print and electronic media is also increasing, indicating a positive trend and environment for the English language. The Saudi Arabian government has put in place Vision 2030, a policy to send an increasing number of students abroad especially to the United States, United Kingdom and Australia for higher education studies. As part of this vision, the Saudi government has launched special overseas scholarship programs for Saudi students under the Ministry of Education. The students also realize the importance of English language in international communication and considers it as a language of higher education. To prepare students for vision 2030 and to strengthen their English language skills, English is now taught as a mandatory subject at elementary level from 4th class (Ur Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

looking at the situation of English language teachers in Saudi Arabia, most of the government and primary schools have Saudis with a minimum of Bachelors in Honors or equivalent degree (major in English) as EFL teachers. Only a small percentage of schools have expatriates from countries like Egypt, Jordan, or Palestine, teaching the English language. The qualification is considered as the only criteria of selection of teachers for teaching the English language. The contracted expatriate English teachers lack the motivation or impetus to challenge existing English language curriculum or teaching practices (Norton & Syed, 2003). Some of the EFL teachers start teaching without any professional training, classroom knowledge, and without any proper knowledge of the language itself (Ur Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013). The medium of instruction in Saudi Arabia is Arabic, and all subjects except the English language are taught in Arabic. English is taught as a foreign language in the schools.

According to Al-Seghayer (2014, 2015), English language teaching and learning still faces various challenges in the country. The EFL learners have low communicative proficiency or spoken skills due to several constraints including low motivation, an emphasis on exam-based curriculum, lack of integration of modern teaching aids or technology, traditional classroom approaches to teaching, and unqualified and untrained language teachers (Alresheed, 2008; Fareh, 2010). According to Al-Shumaimeri (2003), the students leave the secondary stage without being able to carry out a short discussion in English. Along with this, the sociocultural barriers to effective language learning and teaching specially affecting TT and interaction between teachers and students impede student’s dialogic skills.

As mentioned earlier, the language of instruction in Saudi Arabia is Arabic, and all subjects are taught in the Arabic language at the secondary school level. With regard to TT and student-teacher interaction, researchers have investigated the use of First Language (L1) in the Saudi EFL classroom and its impact on the English language acquisition (Al-Nofaie, 2010; Alshammar, 2011; Khresheh, 2012; Machaal, 2012). The research shows that the use of Arabic in the English language teaching is frequent in Saudi Arabia and both teachers and students have a positive perception about the use of L1. However, the use of L1 is not always strategic or organized in the classroom. Strategically, L1 or Arabic language is used in the EFL classrooms to provide instructions to students, for clarification purposes, to bridge the meaning gap in L1 and second language (L2) in students’ mind, and to develop collaborative dialogue in the classroom between peers and between teacher and students (Alshammar, 2011). Al-Nofaie (2010) highlighted that the use of Arabic is almost unavoidable in the Saudi Arabian EFL classroom. The systematic and
eclectic use of L1 improves language skills of the students. Both teachers and students are aware of the disadvantages of the excessive use of L1. Nevertheless, it is often overused beyond its positive impact and hinders students’ learning. It was observed that teachers use the Arabic language during instructions or introductory lectures on vocabulary or grammatical features and correcting response. So, basically TT in L2 classrooms was often used in IRF sequences Initiation – Response and F-move the structure. Occasionally, either one of these sequences can occur in L1 which affects the L2 development, or the F-move is not frequently used in the effective way to increase the students’ L2 dialogical skills, consequently, the development of spoken language is obstructed.

The research on TT in the Saudi Arabian EFL context is scarce, and the available literature lacks in-depth analysis or pragmatic approach. The few studies that are available on the supportive teacher talk or dialogue between teachers and students emphasize the need to study in-depth TT and dialogue based interaction between teacher and students (Al-Otaibi 2004; Alanazi & Widin, 2016). There are no studies with a focus on F-Move in Saudi Arabian context.

Identifying this gap in the literature, this paper aims to investigate the role of TT and the Teacher’s language use in the Saudi Arabian high school EFL classroom. The purpose of the study is to evaluate the effectiveness of TT in the sociocultural context of Saudi Arabia. Following Cullen’s (2002) analytical framework of the F-Move, the study examines the importance of both the evaluative and discoursal role of F-Move by Saudi EFL teachers. One of the important aspects of Cullen’s (2002) research is that it analyzes an extract or teacher-student interaction in a fairly typical traditional classroom in which English as a foreign language is taught. Saudi Arab’s EFL classrooms are typical, traditional classrooms with the teacher-centered approach. F-Move is an approach, specifically present in asymmetrical relationship and interaction, i.e., between teachers-students and between parents-children. The use of the F-Move in the equivalent relationships is quite infrequent, but it may occur in some stances (Cullen, 2002). The rationale for choosing an analysis of the F-Move is its relevance to the asymmetrical relationship. Students’ learning opportunities are restrained to the classroom in Saudi Arabia which represents an asymmetrical relationship. So, the F-Move analysis is close to the country’s EFL classroom and English learning environment.

Conceptual Framework
This paper focuses on the socio-cultural aspects of language learning emphasizing on social-interactions as the core of the foreign language acquisition and learning. The conceptual framework of this paper lies in Vygotsky’s (1978) sociocultural theory which highlights that the language learning like other higher-order cognitive functions is greatly affected by social interactions. Vygotsky (1978) investigated the learners’ language acquisition through reinforcement from social interaction and studied the impact of collaborative learning on learner’s motivation. The sociocultural theory establishes that children learn language from their social interaction and their collaboration with their peers, and the social interactions positively impact language learning. Language learning is part of higher-cognitive functions, and children’s cognitive development is strengthened through social interactions and collaborating with others including their peers. Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory provided a conceptual framework for studies on TT. The analytical framework of Cullen’s (2002) research on the importance of F-Move and its constructive and obstructive role in encouraging students’ language acquisition and dialogic
skills also draws on the Vygotsky’s theory of social interaction. Even though the focus of the study is on supportive role of F-Move, it also analyzes how students respond to different moves in an EFL classroom.

Research Method

Research Sample
The study sample in this research consisted of 18 secondary schools EFL teachers from Saudi Arabia’s Hafr Albatin province. The participants are either Saudi or Egyptian origin. The age of participants varies from 24 to 57 years. These teachers teach English as a foreign language to Saudi learners with Arabic as their mother tongue. The teachers have different academic background, qualification and years of experience, but the similar linguistic background, i.e., all of them are non-native English speakers. Students in the participant’s classroom learn English as foreign language without any exposure to native English language communities, and their exposure to the English language and its learning and practice solely depends on the classroom.

Method:

The research approach is exploratory research with a focus on thematic data analysis to study emerging themes in the TT. It is a qualitative case study, it was conducted on a small sample of participants in one province, and an in-depth analysis of data is carried out. The rationale for using the case study approach is that it allows the researcher to include as many sociocultural and complex factors that affect TT and student learning in the classroom. The data of TT was collected through audio-recording participants’ forty-five minute. Furthermore, semi-structured interviews of participants were conducted to evaluate teachers’ perspective about TT, its impact on student involvement and how effectively they use it in their classrooms.

The data collected including the extracts from both the classroom transcripts and interview with teachers will be analyzed through aspects of discourse analysis identifying the F-Move approach and its impact on student-teacher interaction.

Results and Discussion

This section will elaborate on the result of these three main foci in detail in the light of discoursal data analysis.

The Impact of TT

Firstly, the results on the impact of TT in English language lessons with an emphasis on F-Move will be discussed. The data analysis of classroom’s recorded lectures indicates three types of F-Move in TT including,

- F-Move Discoursal Repetition
- F-Move Evaluative
- F-Move Discoursal Elaboration

The following transcripts will elaborate the three types of F-Move that are identified in the lessons, followed by the result and discussion of each type.
• Extract 1: F-Move Discoursal Repetition

The teacher (WEJ) has a Bachelor’s degree in English Language and Literature. The classroom consisted of Grade-10 EFL learners in 2nd private school. The teacher explains Travel forward, and armchair travel to the students and the focus of the lesson was on traveling and culture. The extract is taken from the end of the lesson in which teacher-led discussion was happening. The audio-recording represents F-Move Discourse Repetition: See table 1.

Table 1. F-Move Discourse Repetition

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41</td>
<td>T: I am fifteen years old, ha</td>
<td>S: I like football</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42</td>
<td>T: I like football, ha</td>
<td>S: I am Saudi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>43</td>
<td>T: I am Saudi</td>
<td>S: I am from Saudi Arabia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44</td>
<td>T: I am from Saudi Arabia</td>
<td>S: I study…</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45</td>
<td>T: I study well now, if you have a lot of money and want to travel. Which country do you want to travel to?</td>
<td>S: Dubai</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>T: Very good, Dubai</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The TT in this extract represents F-Move Discoursal Repetition. The teacher only repeated the responses or what student was saying without any evaluation. The teacher repeated the sentences after the student to control and guide student and teacher interaction. The repetition is a strategy that has a strong pedagogical foundation, and it used to confirm, question, or to discriminate between preferred and non-preferred language use. Even though Cullen (2002) identifies repetition as both evaluative and discoursal strategy, here it is only a discoursal strategy to supervise the interaction and to confirm student’s responses.

• Extract 2. F-Move Evaluative

The teacher (ADF) has a Bachelor’s degree with a specialization in Arts and Education. The students are from Grade-11 EFL classroom in the 3rd Private school in Saudi Arabia. The extract is taken from Grammar lesson in which the focus is Present Continuous Tense. It is from the formative assessment part of the lesson in which teacher is reviewing student’s learning. The audio-recording representing F-Move Evaluative is transcribed in table 2.

Table 2. F-Move Evaluative in Teacher Talk

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>180</td>
<td>T: I am study English. Is it right?</td>
<td>S1: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>S2: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>181</td>
<td>T: Is it right?</td>
<td>S1: No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>182</td>
<td>T: I am what?</td>
<td>S: Studying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>183</td>
<td>T: Again, again</td>
<td>S: I am studying English</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>184</td>
<td>T: Yeah</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This is an example of F-Move evaluative in the lessons as the teacher evaluates the language use and asks the student to use the correct language expression. The evaluative sentence/questions ‘is it right’ is used three times by teacher to confirm whether the expression is grammatically sound or not. The expression evaluates the use of Present Continuous Tense and expects the student to use proper grammar structure. The use of evaluative feedback aims at the perfect modeling of language rather than the meaning of language. The direct corrective feedback points out the mistake and asks students to input the perfect language expression. The evaluative F-Move as it emphasizes the perfect modeling of language, in this case, the Present Continuous Sentence may result in the participation of only the students who are aware of perfect expression.

**Extract 3: Discoursal Elaboration**

The teacher (DIA) has a bachelor degree with a specialization in English Language and Literature. The classroom is of Grade-12 EFL learners in private school coded school-3. The teacher explains the concept of community living and socialization to the students. The extract is taken from the end of the lecture in which students engage in teacher-moderated discussion. The following audio-recording represents F-Move Discourse Elaboration. See table 3.

**Table 3. F-Move Discourse Elaboration**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>221</td>
<td>T: ….What should you do to be a good man? Student 1?</td>
<td>S1: Be polite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>222</td>
<td>T: To be polite. What you do to be polite?</td>
<td>S1: Excuse (meant forgive people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>223</td>
<td>T: ….How can you be polite? What is the meaning of being polite? Respect others perhaps. Student 2?</td>
<td>S2: Help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>224</td>
<td>T: Help who?</td>
<td>S2: Other people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>225</td>
<td>T: Excellent. Help others.</td>
<td>S3: Give them flower...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This extract can be identified as F-Move discoursal elaboration. The interaction between teacher and students develop as teacher repeats after students and intrigue ideas simultaneously. The teacher encourages students to participate in the conversation without any evaluative function. The extract also indicates cross-engagement of students and the students give their response without being afraid of mistakes and correction. The inferential questions in the discoursal elaboration inspire students to think and use their imagination to answer as there are no fixed, or yes or no answers. Open questions and discussion based on the meaning of the expressions rather than its form facilitate the interaction and use of dialogic skills.

The data analysis of the above three extracts indicate three main functions of TT in Saudi Arabian EFL classrooms, i.e., TT helps in 1) guiding and controlling Teacher-Student Interaction, 2) managing student-teacher interaction by language demonstration and evaluating language expressions 3) encouraging students to use dialogic skills in the classroom.

The three extracts from the larger socio-cultural contexts in the EFL classroom confirm the impact of TT on language learning and validates the above mentioned three major roles of TT in the classroom.
The frequency of different types of f-moves in TT in EFL classrooms is recorded. See table 4.

Table 4. Frequency of different types of f-moves

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Types of TT</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>F-Move Discoursal Repetition</td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>F-Move Evaluative</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>F-Move Discoursal Elaboration</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above table represents part of the data and the frequency of each type of F-Move in the analyzed data of classroom interactions. It is evident that the F-Move Discoursal Repetition has the highest frequency of 110, while the F-Move Discoursal Elaboration has the lowest frequency of occurrence in the TT transcript.

**Effect of Sociocultural Factors on TT**

Investigating the effect of sociocultural factors, the predominant speech patterns and the freedom to voice their opinion are the two most important factors impacting TT in Saudi Arabian context. The predominant speech from elders and children’s inability to voice their opinion are embedded in the culture and reflect themselves in TT in a school classroom. In Saudi Arabia, learners have a passive role of listeners both at home and in the school. The parental speech domination exists in Saudi society and parents hardly ask for children’s opinion. The children take up the role of the follower and simply follow the predominant speech by parents. According to Saudi perspective, teachers fill in the role of parents in school, so the students have a passive role in school as well. The traditional teacher-centered classroom approach can also be traced back to the larger sociocultural values. The predominant speech also indicates the low involvement and low motivation of students in the classroom where students’ passive participation. Therefore, these socio-cultural factors have an impact on TT.

**Interview Data**

The following extract shows the response of a participant about the sociocultural factors.

- Extract 4: Sociocultural factors

  I think students also are affected by their families. Especially their father’s authority or parental domination. This is the main authority I guess even though teachers’ authority is limited only inside the classroom. (MAM (Initials stand for the participant teacher)

The extract from teacher’s observation indicates the socio-cultural barriers in the EFL classroom. It also shows that the teacher’s authority is limited to the classroom only, highlighting the limited opportunity to teach and learn English language. One way to counter the negative impact of sociocultural factors is by building student-centered classrooms and encouraging their participation in the classroom. However, reducing the teacher-centeredness is not a solution to improve student’s verbal discourse in the classroom in Saudi Arabia because of the interplay of
TT and Teacher’s role. The technical and academic issues like low-motivation of students, students’ behavior, and lack of interactive teaching aids force teachers to adopt teacher authority over TT. Even though the teachers realize the importance of TT in language classrooms; they have limited understanding of how to implement TT in the classroom effectively without compromising Teacher authority. If TT is not properly managed, it takes the discussion away from being beneficial for learners and results in wasting of time.

• Extract 5.

“The students’ behaviour also affects and is affected by the teacher talk especially for teacher authority because a teacher needs to deliver a lesson within a particular time so he needs to be aware of that. Also, the authority should not prevent from humour and good atmosphere for learning. The teacher should give chances for students to talk and participate with a low level of authority.” (SAB (Initials stand for the participant teacher)

The extract shows how the teacher's authority and TT come at odds with each other in Saudi English language classrooms. The teachers are forced to choose between TT or Teacher authority, apparently making these two rivalry forces. The interplay of these two is reflected on a daily basis in English language classrooms. Since reducing teacher-centeredness is not the answer, a collaborative learning environment with shared-role of a teacher can help in effectively implementing TT. However, the classroom stakeholders must continuously guide and manage the verbal discourse to make it productive instead of arbitrary interactions.

Does TT facilitate or Obstruct Language Outputs?

As the third focus of the paper, the data analysis investigates the role of TT on learners’ language output. The data indicate that the facilitative or obstructive role of TT depends on how effectively students can observe the difference in their current proficiency level and their target proficiency level. The Teacher Talking Time (TTT) is not the only factor that determines the positive or negative role of TT, but the quality of TT, inferential value of TT, and accuracy and waiting time on feedback are also valuable factors. The effectiveness of TT is undermined by teachers’ lack of awareness of dialogic TT, nature, and timeliness of feedback and inferential questions. Even though these are not the most significant factors to enhance TT’s facilitative role in language learning, these can improve students’ participation in the classroom interactions.

The F-Move Discoursal Repetition is the most frequent and prevalent F-Move as compared to the other two forms of TT. According to Walsh (2002), the positive F-Move Discoursal repetition is also known as teacher echo as it affirms the students’ contributions but, the negative repetition interrupts the dialogue. While the positive repetition is valued as it enhances students’ contribution, the negative ones can impede learning by boring students or reducing their opportunities to participate. The rationale for using negative version of repetitive TT is unclear, and in some cases, learners and teachers are not even aware of the facilitative role of TT in encouraging students to talk more in the classroom.

The F-Move evaluative is not the means to promote student-teacher interaction or students’ dialogic skills, but it is focused on modeling of ideal language. It helps learners to achieve ideal language proficiency by identifying and correcting the mistakes. However, it does not help in
buoying classroom interactions, ideation, or collaboration between learners. The F-Move evaluative has a form-focused approach in which there is more emphasis on the form of expression than its meaning, and the meaning focused feedback is often less valued.

Finally, the F-Move Elaborative Discoursal is the most effective form of TT in developing and maintaining interactions between teacher and students. The elaborative discourse works around the inferential questions which are the single most important feature of this TT. The inferential questions do not have a predictable or expected set of answers and require student’s creative input. These questions basically make students think and answer, thus steering the conversation in the language classrooms. Also, this form of TT is error-tolerant as there is no evaluative feature. As the students do not worry about right or wrong expressions, it plays a constructive role in developing dialogic skills. Strategic and organized use of F-Move Elaborative Discoursal plays a critical role in supporting positive classroom interactions, and the interactional awareness about this approach can result in more effective integration.

Due to the lack of teachers’ professional training, the conscious effort of integrating TT and the unification of pedagogical and linguistic goals in the classroom are low. The study calls for further research on how to train teachers for effective use of TT in the classroom and help teachers in leveraging the positive impact of F-Move on student learning.

Conclusion
TT is one of the single most important aspects of learning and teaching of English as Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia because of the limited opportunities to practice English out of the classrooms. Students’ learning and practice of learned language are constrained to classrooms. As the EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia face various challenges from both teachers’ and students’ perspective including lack of motivation of students, teachers’ lack of professional training, traditional class management techniques, and outdated teaching aids. It is important to enrich TT to facilitate students’ learning and language acquisition, especially spoken skills. In this regard, the study investigated TT with a focus on F-Move in the secondary school EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia. The data was analyzed through discoursal analysis under the conceptual framework of Vygotsky’s sociocultural theory. Three different types of F-Moves were identified in TT: F-Move repetition discoursal, F-Move Evaluative, and F-Move Elaborative discoursal. The data analysis indicated that these types of F-Move are respectively used to control the student-teacher interaction in class, identify the errors and provide corrective feedback, and guide classroom interactions and encourage student involvement. Of the three types, F-Move Elaborative Discoursal is the most effective in maintaining, encouraging, and facilitating classroom engagement and student-teacher interaction, and intriguing creative thinking and response in students through elaboration and inferential questions.

It is established that TT is imperative for students’ English language learning in the classroom. The sociocultural barriers that prevail in the family unit and broader society like predominant speech patterns from parents and children’s inability to voice their opinion affect TT and its quality and TTT. Coming to the research focus of whether TT F-Move facilitates or hinders the learning, it is noted that the F-Move when used for discoursal purposes, improves learning and plays a constructive role in students’ dialogic skills in EFL classroom.
However, it is noted that teachers are not aware of the interactional value of F-Move. There are differences in teachers’ linguistic and pedagogical goals which undermine the role of TT. It actually reduces the positive effect, and negative version reduces students’ potential for participation in classroom interactions. So, the supportive role of TT has room for significant improvement to effectively integrate into EFL classrooms and build on students’ language and dialogic skills.

This paper emphasizes the need for professional teacher training to increase awareness about the student-teacher interaction and strengthening TT to enhance students’ learning. It also calls for professional education of teachers to enable them to design concurrent pedagogical and linguistic goals and use TT to promote students’ classroom participation.

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Verbal and Non-verbal Refusal Strategies in English: Refusing Promotions

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Abstract
Since the speech act of refusal is a face-threatening act, it is essential that some strategies be used to soften the refusal to save the listener’s face. Although the domain of refusal strategies is one of the very important domains in the pragmatic aspect in English, none of the studies conducted about the English language in the United Arab Emirates (UAE) have studied refusal strategies used by people in this region. This study aims to investigate the strategies that different people in Dubai use to refuse promotions by sales assistants in different shopping malls in Dubai. The data in this study was collected during field observations conducted in two shopping malls in Dubai. The findings in this study show that most participants chose to refuse the promotions non-verbally. They used different refusal strategies such as avoidance, hand gestures, and nodding their heads. Only two verbal refusal expressions were used. The reasons for these findings might be related to different factors such as the different cultural backgrounds of the participants, the level of English proficiency, and the nature of promotions as imposition on people’s privacy. Therefore, in order to enable second language learners to use refusal strategies politely and effectively, English teachers should introduce the different strategies that people might use to refuse offers or suggestions in English.

Keywords: English language, refusal strategies, verbal refusals

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Introduction
Every language has its own system to express politeness in different speech acts such as complaints, apologies, requests, refusals and many other speech acts. While politeness is a social characteristic before being a linguistic act, different cultures express politeness in different ways. Therefore, in a multi-cultural community where English is used as a lingua franca like in the UAE, for instance, misunderstanding and breakdown in communication might occur if the speakers as well as the listeners were not aware of these cultural and linguistic differences.

The speech act of refusals is one of the main speech acts that need to be tackled cautiously. Since the speech act of refusal is a face-threatening act, it is essential that some strategies be used to soften the refusal to save the listener’s face. In a large and diverse community such as in the UAE, where English is used as a Lingua Franca, people need to be aware of different strategies on how to refuse a request or turn down an offer politely. Therefore, learners of English as a second language need to be acquainted with the best refusal strategies they might need to use in different situations. Teachers also need to have an awareness of the strategies that are adopted among people in order to reach the most polite as well as effective refusal strategy. First, we need to observe, understand, and analyze the way people refuse offers and requests in Dubai. Then a deep analysis of the results might lead to acknowledging certain strategies that might be taught to learners of English as a second language to enable them to communicate effectively. One area that includes rich data for refusals is the promotions that ordinary people come across on a daily basis. The main purpose in this paper is to investigate the strategies that different people, regardless of their native language, use to refuse promotions by sales assistants in different shopping malls in Dubai.

Significance of Research
Although there is abundance in literature that studies the speech act of refusals in different countries, most of these papers discuss the refusal strategies used by learners of English as a second language and compare these strategies to those used by native speakers of English. Moreover, many studies are located in different areas such as Turkey, Spain, China, and Saudi Arabia. However, to the best of my knowledge, no studies were geared towards studying the usage of refusal strategies in the U.A.E in general and Dubai in particular. Therefore, the significance of this study stems from the fact that it studies the different verbal and nonverbal refusal strategies among people in U.A.E where English is described as a Lingua Franca. The research question that this study aims to answer is:

- What refusal strategies do people usually use to refuse promotions from sales assistants in Dubai?

To answer this question, a secondary and a primary research were conducted. In the secondary research, several research papers were reviewed to investigate what different authors have written about refusal strategies used by different people.
refusals we need to look at the definition of politeness. Then, a presentation of different studies about refusals will be provided. This will be followed by what we found in literature about the facts that might influence refusal strategies. Finally, a presentation of the pedagogical implications of the findings of different studies will be included in this literature review.

**Definition of politeness**

Politeness is a very broad term that can have different meanings in different contexts. Meier (1995) believes that though there were books written on politeness, the notion was never defined. Nevertheless, he refers to the different politeness strategies that are divided into positive and negative strategies. He explains how “negative strategies are characterized as expressions of restraint, formality, and distancing, whereas positive strategies are described as expressions of solidarity, intimacy, informality and familiarity” (p. 346). Therefore, refusal strategies might also differ according to the formality of the situation, the restraints the speaker or the listener might impose on the situation or the conversation, and the social distance between the two interlocutors. Refusing an offer from a friend might need completely different strategies than those needed when refusing an offer from a stranger for example. Similarly, Suzila & Yusri, (2012) indicate that politeness is essential for communication because it considers the face needs of others. They also believe that “social distance, formality of topic, and power difference may be affecting adherence to politeness expectations as it may mold behaviors in several ways” (p. 128).

Although politeness is essential in every cultural setting, different cultures express politeness in different manners. (Meier, 1995) suggests that some cultures relate politeness to indirectness whereas other cultures do not. For instance, the Japanese culture is known to associate indirectness to politeness. However, in the American culture being polite does not necessarily mean to be indirect (Meier, 1995). Therefore, “politeness can only be judged relative to a particular context and particular addressees’ expectations” (Meier, 1995, p. 352).

Therefore, the notion of politeness might differ from one culture to another. Likewise, refusals, being considered as speech acts where politeness is required, might differ from one context to another and from language to another.

**Refusals**

Different researchers have provided different definitions for refusal acts. For example, Felix-Brasdefer, (2008) states that refusals are “complex speech acts that require not only long sequences of negotiation and cooperative achievements, but also face saving maneuvers to accommodate to noncompliant nature of the act” (p. 196). Moreover, refusals are viewed as face threatening acts that need to be mitigated in order not to negatively affect the addressee. For instance, Mashiri, (2002) explains that the act of refusal “occurs when a speaker directly or indirectly says “no” to a request, invitation, offer, or suggestion” (p121). Furthermore, Hei, (2009) believes that saying “no” to others includes the risk of offending them and threatening their face. Therefore, “some speakers may be indirect so as to mitigate the face threatening acts whilst also preserving the face of the hearer” (Hei, 2009, p. 34). Therefore, the importance of refusals as speech acts stems from the fact that they are face-threatening acts that might offend others if not accompanied by certain strategies that might help to soften such an act. Researchers have introduced different types of
refusals. Hei, (2009) introduces four different areas that may require saying “no” using refusal strategies. These are declining an invitation, refusing an offer, rejecting a request, and avoiding a blame. Hei, (2009) also classifies refusing strategies as direct and indirect strategies. Under the direct refusal strategies, he states repeated emphasis, flat “no” or “cannot”, and “no” accompanied by a reason. Whereas the indirect refusal strategies are sarcasm, hedging with reasons, using fillers, avoiding the answer, turning negative into positive, showing ignorance, and question with question (Hei, 2009). Moreover, Chang, (2011) notices that the word “regret” can be used in refusals and concluded that “female Americans used “regret” more often than American males, whereas Japanese males used regret with almost the same frequency as Japanese females” (p. 74). Similarly, Abdul Sattar et al., (2011) state that “in the case of refusals, apologizing or expressing regret functions as an indirect refusal that politely mitigates the refusal to accept the request” (p. 77). Furthermore, Felix-Brasdefer, (2008) introduces an example of providing a refusal response accompanied by a positive remark such as an expression of gratitude like (thanks for the invitation), or a partial agreement like (Yes, I agree, but …) (Felix-Brasdefer, 2008).

Moreover, nonverbal strategies are commonly used when it comes to refusal strategies. Such strategies would help the speaker mitigate the refusal speech act and save the face of the listener. Taguchi, (2013) refers to how people used nonverbal strategies to soften their refusals. For example, people used “communication strategies such as back channel cues (e.g., nodding, affirmative responses) as emphatic responses to mitigate the negative effect of refusals. They also used non-verbal expressions of affect (e.g., laughter) in order to mitigate refusals” (p. 103).

Different studies have compared the strategies used by native speakers of English with the refusal strategies used by learners of English as a second or a foreign language. For instance, Chang, (2011) states that Americans tend to give specific details and clear explanations when providing excuses compared with Germans and Saudis. Moreover, Khatib and Safari (2013) conclude in their study “intermediate EFL learners differ from native speakers in their use of politeness strategies” (p. 141).

Factors influencing the type of refusal strategies
Different factors play role in making the decision whether consciously or unconsciously to decide which strategy of refusal should be used in different situations. These factors might be related to different cultures and the way these cultures express politeness verbally and non-verbally, different languages, and the level of language proficiency.

It is acknowledged that different cultures express politeness in different ways. Therefore, the strategies that people from different culture use to refuse requests or offers might differ from one to another depending on their culture and how they perceive an act of politeness. For instance, Abdul Sattar et al., (2011) propose that “the interference of the background cultures of the non-native speakers may contribute to their “vague” excuses” (p. 78).

Furthermore, different languages have different terms and expressions to express politeness in different situations. Many studies focused on how learners of English differed from English native speakers because politeness is expressed differently in their language. For instance
Taguchi, (2013) states that learners of English as a second language used, in their refusal strategies, too direct expressions such as a direct “no” or too implicit strategies such as ‘questioning”. Some learners might refer to their native language and they might use the strategies they normally use in their native language to refuse politely. Therefore, Transfer from the native culture and the native language might influence the politeness strategies used by second language (L2) learners. Felix-Brasdefer (2008) believes that “the fact that most learners transferred their social perceptions and behavior from the L1 when declining an invitation caused pragmatic failure and unintentional misunderstandings” (p. 208). In addition, Abdul Sattar et al. (2011) indicate “three areas in which sociocultural transfer is present in Arabic EFL learners’ speech: the choice of semantic formulas, the length of responses, and the content of semantic formulas” (p. 72).

Moreover, language proficiency level has a major role in determining the way in which learners use different linguistic politeness strategies. For example, “Higher-proficiency learners were more skilled at locating appropriate linguistic forms and producing them efficiently under the on-line demand of speaking” (Taguchi, 2013, p. 115). Taguchi (2013), in her study, indicates that lower proficiency L2 learners use more direct expressions in their refusal strategies because they do not “know how to mitigate their refusals with hedging or indirect replies” (p. 116). Moreover, Felix-Brasdefer (2013) indicates that when L2 learners lacked control of L2 grammar, this could prevent them from “conveying a target-like refusal with high levels of mitigation and elaboration” (p. 207).

**Pedagogical implications**

It is evident that the way through which people refuse has a great impact on the communication among different interlocutors in different situations. Therefore, it is essential that language instructors have the pragmatic knowledge that is needed to teach L2 learners the pragmatic aspects of the second language in general and refusal strategies they might use to avoid embarrassment and face threat in particular. Several studies have touched upon this issue. For instance, Yu, (2011) indicates that it is important to study politeness in language usage because it “can be an important key to understanding a number of sociolinguistic problems and misunderstandings arising from differences in culture, as well as between individuals in interpersonal communication” (p. 385). Moreover, Félix-Brasdefer (2008) suggests that due to the complexity of refusals as speech acts L2 learners might learn and utilize certain strategies which they can use for different speech acts. Therefore, second language teachers need to provide the learners with different strategies which might be beneficial to avoid misunderstanding and pragmatic failure in different situations. Furthermore, Khatib and Safari, (2013) in their study conclude that politeness strategies “should be taught in a more conspicuous way, so that learners have more chance of noticing and learning them” (p. 141). Finally, Abdul Sattar et al., (2011) conclude that, “teaching the cultural aspects of language is a vital part of our duty as teachers to aid our students in becoming successful second-or foreign-language speakers” (p. 79). Therefore, instructors of English as a second or a foreign language need to be aware of the pragmatic aspects of the language and try to educate L2 learners not only in linguistic forms but also with pragmatic usage of the language to enable them to communicate effectively in the community.
Methodology
The purpose of this study is to investigate how people refuse different promotions offered to them by sales assistance in two shopping malls in Dubai. Therefore, the data that was collected for this study was collected through field observations. Two shopping malls in Dubai were randomly selected. The researcher intended to go and watch people around two different promotional stands. The first one was a travel agency that was promoting brochures in which trips were offered to people (for lower rates). Two men (seemingly Arab) were doing the promotion. The other promotional stand had two women who were promoting a gents’ perfume. None of the sales assistants was informed about the research in order to keep the flow of the events as natural as possible.

The researcher observed people’s reactions to these two promotions. The data was collected by observation, note taking, and recording the actual words that people used in their refusal strategies. The observation and note taking were useful to document non-verbal expressions, moves, and the face expressions that people used upon the refusal. On the other hand, the recording was essential to ensure the documentation of all the words used by people in their refusals.

Participants
The data was collected from 137 (66 in the first location and 71 in the second location) passersby who randomly happened to be there when the promotional offer was on. Since this is a naturalistic method where the data was collected by observation and there was no direct interaction between the researcher and the participants, no information about the participants in this study can be provided. They were from different age groups, different social background and from different cultures and countries. Some of them appeared to be Arab, while others were from India, Philippines, and other countries.

Analysis of data
The collected data was analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. Qualitative data analysis was used to find patterns throughout the different refusal strategies used by different people and the possible reasons that might have led them to use these strategies in specific. On the other hand, quantitative data analysis was adopted in order to find out the most frequent strategies used by different people in Dubai, and to compare the different strategies used in the different settings.

Findings
The data that was collected through field observation was analyzed and categorized in different categories. The refusal strategies that people used in the two different settings consisted of different patterns. The main categories were verbal refusals and non-verbal refusals. The verbal refusal strategies consisted of only two patterns namely saying, “thank you” and “no, thank you”. Whereas among the non-verbal refusal strategies we found different patterns like, ignoring the offer (avoidance), refusing with a hand gesture of “no”, refusing with nodding the head only, smiling while walking away, and looking once while walking away.
These patterns in the refusal strategies, verbal and non-verbal, were manifested in both settings almost equally. The number of people who refused the promotion in the first setting during the observation was (66), whereas the total number of people who refused the promotion on perfumes during the observation time was (71). However, not all of the participants responded verbally. In fact, most of the responses in both settings were non-verbal refusals. As table1 indicates, only seven people out of (66) responded verbally to the travel agency sales assistants. Only two people said “thank you”, two more smiled while saying “thank you”, and three people refused saying “no, thank you”.

Table 1: Verbal refusal patterns in the travel agency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verbal refusal strategies (Travel Agency)</th>
<th>Number of refusals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of refusal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you (with a smile)</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, thank you</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of verbal refusals</strong></td>
<td><strong>7</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, table2 shows that (59) people out of 66 participants used non-verbal refusal strategies to refuse the promotion at the travel agency. While (33) participants chose to ignore the promotion completely, (12) participants waved their hands while they walked away to indicate their refusal. Moreover, three people nodded their heads; signaling refusal, whereas only one person smiled at the sales assistants while walking away.

Table 2: Non-verbal refusal patterns in the travel agency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-verbal refusal strategies (Travel Agency)</th>
<th>Number of refusals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Type of refusal</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ignoring</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand gesture</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head gesture (nod)</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One look</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smile only</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of non-verbal refusals</strong></td>
<td><strong>59</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results of the data collected from the perfume shop seem to resemble those of the travel agency in that people used less verbal refusals than non-verbal refusal strategies. However, the verbal
refusals to the perfume promotions were restricted to one phrase “thank you” accompanied with a smile. As table 3 indicates, none of the participants chose to refuse the perfume promotion only saying “thank you” (without a smile) or saying “no, thank you”.

Table 3: *Verbal refusal patterns in the perfume shop*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of refusal</th>
<th>Number of refusals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thank you</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thank you (with a smile)</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No, thank you</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of verbal refusals</strong></td>
<td><strong>5</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Nonetheless, as table 4 shows, the results for the nonverbal refusal strategies indicate that (21) people of the passers-by chose to ignore the promotion trying not to look at the sales assistants. Whereas, (19) participants waved their hands to signal their gentle refusal. Moreover, while six people nodded their heads to refuse the promotion, (10) people just smiled and walked away and (10) more looked only once and continued their way.

Table 4: *Non-verbal refusal patterns in the perfume shop*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of refusal</th>
<th>Number of refusals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ignoring</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand gesture</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head gesture (nod)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One look</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smile only</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total number of non-verbal refusals</strong></td>
<td><strong>66</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 5: *Comparison of verbal refusals in both setting (travel agency and perfume shop)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of refusal</th>
<th>Number of refusals (travel agency)</th>
<th>Number of refusals (perfume shop)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
Thank you | 2 (3% of total refusals) | 0  
--- | --- | ---  
Thank you (with a smile) | 2 (3%) | 5 (7%)  
No, thank you | 3 (4.5%) | 0  
Total number of verbal refusals | 7 (10.6%) | 5 (7%)  

As Table 5 indicates, only seven people (10%) refused the promotion at the travel agency verbally compared to five people (7%). While only two people smiled when they said “thank you” to the travel agency sales assistants, all the people who responded verbally chose to smile politely while they said “thank you” to the sales assistants promoting the perfumes.

Table 6: Comparison of non-verbal refusals in both setting (travel agency and perfume shop)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of refusal</th>
<th>Number of refusals (travel agency)</th>
<th>Number of refusals (perfume shop)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ignoring</td>
<td>33 (50%)</td>
<td>21 (29.57%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hand gesture</td>
<td>12 (18%)</td>
<td>19 (26.76%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Head gesture (nod)</td>
<td>3 (4.5%)</td>
<td>6 (8.45%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One look</td>
<td>10 (15%)</td>
<td>10 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smile only</td>
<td>1 (1.5%)</td>
<td>10 (14%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total number of non-verbal refusals</td>
<td>59 (89.39%)</td>
<td>66 (92.95%)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, the majority of participants used non-verbal refusal strategies in both settings (travel agency and perfume shop). Table 6 indicates that (59) people (89.39%) used non-verbal refusals to respond to the promotion at the travel agency. Similarly, (66) people (92.95 %) chose to refuse nonverbally in the perfume shop. Therefore, in both settings the majority of the participants used non-verbal refusal strategies. While 33 people (50%) chose to completely ignore the sales assistants at the travel agency, only (21) people (29.57 %) ignored the sales assistants in the perfume shop. This indicates that more people chose to ignore the sales assistants at the travel agency. Moreover, (12) people (18%) waved their hands to indicate refusal at the travel agency compared to 19 (26.76%) people in the perfume shop. In addition, the number of participants who looked only once at the sales assistants and then moved away in both settings (travel agency and the perfume shop) is the same, 10 people. Nevertheless, there was only one person (1.5%) who smiled only while walking away at the travel agency compared to 10 people (14%) in the perfume shop.
shop. This shows a difference between this refusal strategy used in the travel agency and the perfume shop.

Therefore, the majority of the participants used non-verbal strategies to refuse promotions from sales assistants in the travel agency and the perfume shops. Furthermore, although the majority of the participants used non-verbal strategies, they differed in their choices of these strategies. For instance, very few participants nodded their heads or smiled to respond to the promotion at the travel agency whereas more participants smiled to refuse the perfume sales assistants’ promotion while they continued their way. This indicates that people might adopt different refusal strategies depending on different factors and variables.

Discussion
The results of the data analysis indicate different types of refusal strategies adopted by the participants. These strategies varied between verbal refusals and non-verbal refusal strategies. Most of the people who were included in this study preferred to respond to the promotions nonverbally. There might be several reasons for this choice in particular. These reasons could be related to the participants’ cultural and linguistic backgrounds, the participants’ English language proficiency, the nature of the refusal speech act as a face-threatening act, and many other reasons related to social distance, power, and personality.

Different cultural backgrounds
The fact that most people refuse non-verbally (in different manners) indicates that they do not want to speak to the sales assistants. This coincides with what Felix-Brasdefer (2008) and Abdul Sattar et al. (2011) concluded in their studies. One reason for this might be due to the cultural differences among people living in Dubai. While people in the Arabic culture might refuse by just saying “thank you”, in other cultures this expression might be used only to express acceptance. Therefore, when people encounter a situation where they do not know the cultural background of the addressee they might tend to use non-verbal strategies. Therefore, it is not surprising to find out that (125) out of (137) people (91.24 %) decided to refuse the promotion non-verbally.

English language proficiency
One reason that might prevent people from responding verbally to such promotions might be related to the participants’ level of English language proficiency. Most of the participants were not native speakers of English. Therefore, they might have concerns about how to refuse politely in English. This coincides with the conclusions in various studies; Felix-Brasdefer, (2013) and Taguchi, (2013). Since English is used as the means of communication in Dubai, the first thought people would have that they need to refuse politely in English. However, if they do not know how to be polite in refusals in English, they might choose to use non-verbal refusal strategies.

Refusals as face-threatening acts
When people ignore the sales assistants, they actually try to avoid the promotion these sales assistants’ offer because they do not want to embarrass the sales assistants. As indicated by Mashiri, (2002) and Hei, (2009), refusals are considered face-threatening acts because the speaker might embarrass or offend the addressee when saying “no”. Therefore, it is important to refuse
politely. Although many participants avoided saying a direct “no” to the sales assistants, their reaction to the promotion can be considered one type of non-verbal refusal strategies. Therefore, these participants were trying to soften the refusal act by avoidance, raising their hands, looking once, or nodding. Some of them responded verbally saying “thank you”. However, only three people said a direct “no” that was accompanied with a softener, “thank you”. This indicates that the participants were trying to be polite and this might be the reason for their indirect refusals. In fact, in the second setting (the perfume shop) none of the participants used a direct refusal “no”. Furthermore, these participants did not only avoid refusing because of the face-threat directed to the sales assistants, they also avoided responding and totally ignored the promotion because they were trying to avoid the imposition that was caused by the promotion. In many people’s opinion, these promotions are just a way of imposing a product on the customers. This might explain the reason why most of the participants ignored and tried to avoid the promotion from the beginning. They were actually trying to avoid the imposition as well as the embarrassment they might encounter when they stop to listen to these sales assistants. Some people might not be able to say “no” and so, they end up buying a product they might not need. Therefore, for such people, avoidance might be the best solution.

Moreover, there are different factors that may play an important role in the way people respond to offers and requests in different situations. Formality of the topic, social distance, and power might affect the way in which people choose their refusal strategies (Suzila & Yusri, 2012). Customers usually have more power than sales assistants do because customers have the power to accept or refuse the offer. Therefore, the customers might choose different refusal strategies that need not always be as polite as when they deal with their managers, for instance. This might be another reason for people’s choice to ignore, wave their hands, or nod their heads only. Furthermore, the social distance plays an essential role in the way people refuse promotions. There is no personal relationship between these sales assistants and the customers. Therefore, some people might believe that they do not need to be polite to them since they do not see them frequently and they do not have a major role in their lives. However, some people might feel the opposite. Such people might believe that they should provide a polite image of themselves in front of strangers.

Compared to each other, the participants in both settings (the travel agency and the perfume shop) used the same refusal strategies. However, the number of people who avoided the promotion in the perfume shop was more than those who avoided the promotion in the travel agency. Moreover, the number of people who waved their hands to indicate refusal to the perfume promotion was more than the people who waved their hands in the travel agency. Nonetheless, while none of the participants used “no, thank you” to refuse the perfume promotion, three participants did at the travel agency. Moreover, 10 people smiled and continued walking at the perfume shop compared to one person who did so at the travel agency. This might be related to the fact that the sales assistants at the travel agency were both men whereas the sales assistants in the perfume shop were both young women. Furthermore, the women in the perfume shop were smiling while they were promoting the perfume and asking people to try it. This might have led people to smile back at them even if they wanted to refuse the offer.
Finally, one important finding is related to the use of “thank you” as a refusal. The expression “thank you” is a politeness marker that is often used to indicate gratitude and acceptance. However, in this case it is used to indicate polite refusal. First, this might be due to some cultural transfer from Arabic to English. In the Arabic culture (especially in the Middle East), people use the expression “thank you” to refuse promotions in the market. However, in English, this expression should be accompanied with a gesture to indicate refusal like waving the hand, shaking the head, or simply walking away. Therefore, people need to be aware of these differences in order to be able to communicate effectively and not cause a breakdown in the communication. People seem to use the expression “thank you” to be polite when refusing an offer. Nonetheless, it is essential for this specific expression with different refusal gestures to indicate that it is used for refusal rather than acceptance.

**Pedagogical implication**

Several authors have touched upon the importance of teaching learners of English as a second or a foreign language the pragmatic aspect of language. The importance of teaching politeness strategies in general and polite refusal strategies to learners of English in the UAE stems from the fact that the community in the UAE is diverse and consists of many intermingling cultures. Therefore, learners might encounter different situations where they need to refuse a request, an offer or a suggestion. These learners need to be equipped with the appropriate strategies to be able to be polite in their refusals in such situations. Avoidance or even non-verbal refusal strategies (as most of the participants in this study did) might not be considered polite in all situations. Therefore, learners need to have a comprehensive understanding of different politeness strategies used in English in general and polite refusal strategies in English in particular. Teachers of English as a second language should indicate to the learners the different ways through which they can refuse certain requests and offers politely. Most importantly, teachers should indicate that the expression “thank you” is a politeness marker that is usually used to express gratitude and acceptance. Therefore, when the learners feel that they might use it as an expression for refusal, it should be accompanied with an indicator of refusal; this might be a hand gesture, a nod, or just simply walking away. Moreover, smiling only, though it is a politeness marker, cannot be used alone to indicate refusal. To be used as a refusal strategy, smiling also should be accompanied with refusal gestures. Teachers of English need to indicate to their students the different uses of each of the politeness strategies explained above. Furthermore, it is highly important to equip English language teachers with the knowledge of the pragmatic aspects of English and the appropriate training to assist them in their mission to explore the pragmatic realms of the English language. Furthermore, Textbook designers need to include different situations where the students would need to refuse an offer, a request or a suggestion. Through these situations, teachers can introduce various activities of different levels to enable students to master the ability of being polite in different situations and eliminate their fear of using the English language in real life situations. These suggestions might help educators, textbook designers, and teachers to improve language learning and achieve the desired outcomes of learning English because language learning is not only learning grammar and structures; it is also about using the language appropriately in community.
Conclusion
To conclude, the current study investigated different people’s refusal strategies used to refuse promotions in two separate settings in Dubai, U.A.E. The findings of the study indicate that people tend to use non-verbal refusal strategies more than they use verbal refusals. This might be due to different factors that are related to the various cultural backgrounds mirrored in the community, the level of people’s English proficiency that might lead to the fear of using inappropriate forms of refusals, and the various factors that are connected to social distance, power, and the formality of the topic. Another important reason for the findings might be the nature of refusals as face-threatening acts and the nature of promotions that are mostly considered imposition on people’s private identities.

Limitations of the study
The results of this study cannot be generalized to include all the communities in which English is used as a medium for communication. One reason for limitation is due to the fact that this small-scales study included only 137 participants in two shopping malls. These people were selected randomly and they were observed only once. Therefore, this small sample might not be representative of the population living in Dubai and in the UAE. Moreover, people’s reactions to promotions might differ from one place to another. Therefore, the results of a similar study in another country might not be similar to the findings of this study. Furthermore, the naturalistic method adopted in this study was useful to provide us with real life situations where people acted naturally without the interference of the researcher. However, by adopting this method, the study lacks having any information about the participants. Therefore, this study actually lacks some important information about the cultural backgrounds and the interests of the participants as well as their English language proficiency. This type of information would have helped us gain a better view of the reasons that led the participants to prefer one or another type of refusal strategies.

Suggestions for further studies
Further studies might be helpful to investigate how different cultures might influence people’s choice of different refusal strategies. Moreover, some studies might complement this study by selecting a number of participants who might be interviewed to have a view about their backgrounds and to know more about the reasons that might lead them to choose certain types of refusal strategies. Further studies might also be geared towards comparing the refusal strategies that people in Dubai use to those that are used in other diverse communities where English is used as a Lingua Franca.

There is a variety of refusal speech acts as well as non-verbal refusal strategies that are worthy of exploring and studying. Exploring refusal strategies and finding out the most effective and polite ways to refuse an offer or a suggestion would enable English teachers to guide second language learners to communicate more politely and effectively in any community.

About the Author:
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References
A study of Apology Strategies in English: A case study on Jordanian and Asian Undergraduate Students at Zarqa University

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Abstract
This study investigates the similarities and differences of the speech act of apology in English between Jordanian EFL learners (English as a Foreign Learners) and Asian undergraduate students at Zarqa University (ZU). It aims to understand the culture difference between Jordanian and the Asian speech communities that both learners utilize when confronting apology situations. The researcher used an interview technique to gather the data. Data collected using a modified version of the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) developed by Sugimoto (1997). Subjects of the study included six Jordanian undergraduate students and six Asian undergraduate students. There were 10 situations used in the study developed by Sugimoto's (1997). The findings in this study introduced the similarities and differences of the apologizing strategies used by Jordanian undergraduate students and Asian undergraduate students. It found that the most frequently apology strategies used among the Jordanian and the Asian participants were account, and compensation. It shows also gratitude is less used among Asian participants when apologize by equal and lower status person. In regarding to that, the findings of this study are expected to be used in intercultural comparisons studies. This research hopes that tutors should be aware of their own culture and the cultures of their students to make this cultural training more successful. Learners should learn apologizing strategies in such a way to capture their semantics meaning as well as pragmatic use in order to employ them appropriately.

Key words: apology, apologizing strategies, discourse completion task, Asian ESL learners and Jordanian EFL learners, speech act

1. Introduction
Communication breakdowns can happen when we communicate with people from different language backgrounds or cultures. Damen (1998) claims that miscommunication of the intercultural is due to the difference of the value system that underline each speaker's culture group. Such difference reflects in speech acts. Austin (1962) explains speech acts as "acts performed by utterances such as giving orders, making promises or expressing regrets" (p. 2). They can be directed or undirected utterances that serve a function in communication. To communicate is to express certain behaviours, and the kinds of speech act which being performed correspond to the kinds of behaviour being expressed. For instance, apology expresses regret.

Apology is quite important because it may guide us to understand individual's everyday communication (Alfattah, 2010). Apologizing needs an action to set things between the apologizer and the recipient of the apology as well as understand the reactions of the apologizers. Faces reactions is also important in apologizing to show the support or threatened. It can be a motivating fact for an individual to offer an apology. Speakers need, power relationship and social distance are related to the use of apologies (Wouk, 2006).

In this study, Sugimoto’s (1997) ten strategies were used as guideline because the researcher believes that these are the most suitable strategies for EFL learners in general, and specifically in Jordanian cultural context which are: the statement of remorse, accounts, damage, compensation, promise not to repeat offense, assessment of responsibility, contextualization, self-castigation, and gratitude.

The number of Asian students who study in Jordan are increased (Mohe, 2016). This, because of this reason, the research is going to fulfill this gap to highlight the strategies of apologies. The results of this study is useful to discover the apologies strategies among Jordanian and Asian students which are differ in their cultures, as well as helping the policy makers to focus on international students in Jordan in term of apology. At the same time, it explains to the Asian students about the Jordanian strategies of apologizing to increase their understanding of the cultural view.

Studies on apology strategies discussed in Western languages such as (Goody, 1978; Coulmas, 1981; Holmes, 1989; Trosborg, 1995; and Lazare, 2006). While, very few studies was done in the Arabic context such as (Bataineh & Bataineh, 2006; Hussein & Hammouri, 1998; Nureddeen, 2008) in which few studies have been done on both Arabian and Asian context. In their academic environment, Arab EFL students encounter a problem in using the speech act of apology especially when communicating in the target language either at formal or informal levels. In addition to that, the estimation of the subjects to the social context and the degree of offence is not taken into consideration when studying the speech act of apology in the Arabic context. This calls for a study to fill this gap in literature to understand the expression of apology among Jordanian EFL students and Asian students at ZU.

2. Past Studies
Apology is a part of language relationships. Very few studies discuss the difference between Jordanian and other cultures like Malaysia. In this reviewed, the studies below found the
comparison between Jordanian and American apologies. For example, Hussein and Hammouri (1998) discuss the similarities and differences between Americans and Jordanian apology. The participants were 50 male Jordanian students and 50 female students at Yarmouk University, while the American students were 40 participants. The findings of the study found that Jordanian speakers were more varied than Americans do. It shows that Jordanian students used 12 strategies and American used seven strategies. In this research, the writer discovered the similarities and differences of using apology strategies among Jordanian and other nation.

Several studies have been done on the apologies strategies such as (Al-Hami, 1993; Alfattah, 2010; Bataineh & Bataineh, 2006; Banikalef & Marlyna, 2013; Uglia & Zainol Abidin, 2016; Maros, 2006; Tun Nur Hamizahbt & Paramasivam, 2013; Thasanee, 1998; Wouk, 2006). However, very few studies have discussed both the similarities and differences between Jordanian and Asian participants’ on the apologize strategies. Thus, these types of studies are useful to recognize the cross-cultural features in term of apology. For example, studies on Arabic context investigate the apology strategies used by both nations Arab learners of English and native speakers of English.

In the Arab context, a study was done by Alfattah (2010) investigates the apology strategies among 314 Yemeni EFL Arab university students based on the pragmatic point of view. The researcher used questionnaire to collect his data which is a modified version of ‘Discourse Completion Tests. The findings of the study showed that Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) strategy was the most frequent used among the participants. Even though this study investigated the strategies but it didn't compare it with the way Asian response. This study will highlight on both ways of responses, Jordanian as well as Asians.

Uglia & Zainol Abidin (2016) conduct another study on the strategies of apology used by Iraqi EFL students. Mixed method used in this research, which was questionnaire and interview students in both universities (Al-Yarmouk University College and University of Diyala). The researchers collected their data from 55 Iraqi EFL students using DCTQ as well as interviewing 12 students. This study discovers that Iraqi EFL learners use different apology strategies. The participants were aware of using adequate apology forms to meet the requirements of specific situations. This study is significant, and the researchers suggest to do other research to compare between Arab learners and other nations.

In the Jordanian context, a researcher from Jordan investigated the Jordanian apologies. Bataineh & Bataineh, (2006) used a questionnaire based on Sugimoto's (1997) to investigate the apology strategies. The sample was 100 university students. They found that both gender "male and female" Jordanian EFL university students used the primary strategies such as the statement of remorse, accounts, compensation, promise not to repeat offense, and reparation. The respondents used non-apology strategies such as blaming victim and brushing off the incident as unnecessary to exonerate them from blame. The findings revealed that both gender differed used the primary strategies. In addition, female respondents chose the non-apology strategies that moved towards avoiding the discussion of offense while male respondents used those which moved towards blaming the victim. This study will shed some light on difference and the similarities of using apology strategies among Jordanian and Asian students.
Another study done by Banikalef & Marlyna (2013) focuses on the relationship between the social beliefs and the realization of apologies among 40 Jordanian EFL male graduate students studying in Malaysia. The researchers use a DCT and a semi-structured interview to collect data. The researchers apply Cohen and Olshtain’s (1981) models of apologies. The results of the study show the most strategies used which were Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID) and accepting responsibility. The researchers have also found new strategies such as being arrogant and ignorant, blaming someone/something else, or swearing. The researchers have also found that selecting an apology strategy affected by social determinants more than social distance.

On other side, an example of Asian society, a study done by Tun Nur Hamizahbt & Paramasivam (2013). The researchers investigate the most frequent strategies used of apologies. The respondents of this study were twenty students. The researchers use a DCT questionnaire of six situations to collect the data. The findings of the study showed that three main strategies were used which are expression of apology, explanations or reasons for the offence and offers, and repairs.

In Asian context, a study done by Thasanee (1998) investigates the apology strategies among Thai speakers to discover the relationship between these strategies and offense weightiness. The participants were 50 Thai speakers from different occupational backgrounds. The researcher used Discourse Completion Test. The researcher found five strategies among Thai students which are explicit expression, accepting blames, giving excuses, offering repairs, and efforts to please the addressee.

To conclude, the researcher has noted that there are a lot of research on apology strategies among the Western languages, while on the other hand, Arab context have not been fully studied. EFL Arab learners showed previously a problem in using the apology of speech act in both formal and informal situation. This leads the researcher to try to fill this gap in the literature to understand the expression of apology among Jordanian EFL students.

3. Research Questions
The following question guided this study: What are the similarities and the differences in the apology strategies employed by Jordanian and Asian undergraduate students?

4- Methodology
4.1 Research design
This study is a qualitative case study to enable the researcher to understand the strategies of apology used by Jordanian and Asian students at ZU. A qualitative research methodology used for the following reasons: (1) To explore a problem which is little known and (2) To give a detailed understanding of a central problem (Creswell, 2005). A very limited number of studies on apologizing studies have been done on Jordanian and Asian students. In fact, a contrastive study between Jordanian and Asian students are very few. The researcher adopted purposeful sampling which refers to “those cases from which one learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research” (Patton, 1990, p.169). This study used purposeful sampling strategy to“intentionally select individuals and sites to learn or understand the central phenomenon" (Creswell 2005, p: 204). In this study, the central phenomena were apologizing strategies.
Homogeneous sampling used in this study which means that “the researcher purposefully samples individuals or sites based on membership in a subgroup that has defining characteristics” (Creswell, 2005, p. 208). The site of this study is Jordanian and Asian students at ZU.

4.2 Participants
In this study, the subjects were known as participants. The participants consisted of six Jordanian undergraduate students and six Asian undergraduate students. The participants were doing their bachelor degree in various majors such as Islamic, Arabic and English studies at Zarqa University. The researcher was interesting to discover the similarities and the differences in the apology strategies among both Jordanian and Asian students because the researcher obtained his master and PhD degrees from Asian universities. Then the researcher tries to do his research at this particular university "Zarqa University" because he is a lecturer at that university and he becomes close with Asian students. The researcher chose only 6 participants from Asian and Jordanian students those who are studying in Zarqa University in Jordan. The Asian students were from different countries such as 4 students from Thailand, 1 student from Malaysia and 1 student from China.

4.3 Data Collection
In this study, the researcher collected his data on the 1st semester in 2016-2017. Data collected by using an adapted Discourse Completion Task and interviews. The Discourse Completion Task (DCT) is an open-ended questionnaire developed by Sugimoto (1997). It consists of 10 situations, which require an apology. However, in this study the researcher posed the 10 situations verbally to the participants in order to get their responses. Besides the adapted DCT, the researcher used a semi-structured interview to seek the apologizing strategies used by them. Semi-structured interview involves the preparation of an interview as a guide, which serves as a guide to the questions, or issues that explore during an interview. The researcher had also probed questions to the participants during the interview. Probing used to get the participants to explain their actions in responding to the ten situations.

4.4 Data analysis
The data analyzed by using coding to get the similarities and differences of the types of strategy used by the participants. According to Creswell, (2005, p:237), the coding process is "to make sense out of the text data, divide it into text or image segments, label the segments with code, examine codes for overlap and redundancy, and collapse these codes into broad themes".

The researcher followed few steps in analyzing the data. First, the researcher had to rewind the tapes several times while transcribing the data. The researcher wrote word by word used by the participants when responding to ten situations. Then the researcher coded the data into different types of apology strategy employed by the participants in relation to the ten situations. Next, the researcher grouped similar types of strategy employed by the participants and also grouped the different types of strategy employed by them. The researcher repeated the same process for the two groups of student.

To check the internal validity of this study the researcher used member checks. The researcher took two transcribed data to two participants to confirm or disconfirm any themes or
patterns that emerged from the data. Interviews for this study took place at the faculty for both Asian and Jordanian students. Then the data read to develop categories, and to find themes and patterns; these categories developed into subcategories. Coding used for each category and subcategory. The frequency count on the units was done to observe any patterns that might develop from the data.

5. Findings and Discussion
This following discussion presented an analysis of the apologizing strategies used by Jordanian undergraduate students and Asian undergraduate students at ZU. The analysis of data presents the distribution of the subjects' responses to the apologizing strategies that used. Sugimoto's (1997) strategies used as the basis of the analysis. Percentages used to explain the occurrences of apology strategies employed followed by citing the exact words on utterances made by the participants to show examples. The following question guided this study: What are the similarities and the differences in the apology strategies employed by Jordanian undergraduate students and Asian undergraduate students?

5.1. Apology strategies used by Jordanian undergraduate participants

Tables 1 and 2 display information on strategies that were employed the situations posed, total number of strategies employed in relation to the 10 situations and the percentages.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Apology Strategies Used by Jordanian Undergraduate Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accounts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reparations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of responsibilities Positive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of responsibilities Negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-castigation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blaming Victim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showing lack of intent to do harm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking victim not to be angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1    2    3    4    5    6    7    8    9    10  Total Percentage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4    4    3    1    4    1    2    1    1    6    27        45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1    1    -    -    -    2    1    -    3    -    8        13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-    -    -    2    -    -    -    3    -    -    5        8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-    -    -    1    1    2    -    -    -    -    5        8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-    -    -    -    -    2    -    -    -    -    2        3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1    1    1    1    -    -    -    1    -    -    5        8.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-    -    -    -    -    2    -    -    -    -    2        3.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-    -    -    -    -    2    -    -    -    -    2        3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-    -    -    1    -    -    -    -    -    -    1        1.67%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In their attempts to respond to the 10 situations given in the interview, Jordanian undergraduate participants used the following apology strategies:

5.1.1 Analysis of Apology Strategies Used by Jordanian Participants

1. **Accounts.** Refer to the wrongdoer or the participant telling about what has happened (Sugimoto, 1997). Accounts were the most frequently strategy mentioned by Jordanian participants. 45% of the situations (n=27), Jordanian participants used accounts in response to all situations, as shown in the following example:

   I’ll explain it to the tutor.
   I’ll give them the reason why I came late.

2. **Compensation.** Means that the wrongdoer or participant offers to replace the damaged object or pay for it (Sugimoto, 1997). It was the second most frequently strategy mentioned by the participants. 13.33% of the situations (n=8), Jordanian participants used compensation in response to items 1, 2, 6, 7 and 9. The participants produced utterances such as:

   I broke your umbrella and will buy you a new one.
   I broke your, I pod so I will buy you a new one.

3. **Reparation** means that the participant tries to repair the damage he/she has affected on others (Sugimoto, 1997). Reparation was the third most frequently used strategy mentioned by the participants in 8.33% of the situations (n=5), specifically situations 4 and 8, some Jordanian participants promised to repair the injury done, examples of utterances used by the participants are:

   I will rewrite the paper for you.
   I will try to repair your umbrella.

4. **Assessment of responsibility** means that the participant attempts to describe his or her role and responsibility (Sugimoto, 1997). In this strategy, assessment of responsibility could be divided into two types as suggested by Bataineh & Bataianeh (2006)

   - Positive assessment of responsibility: it refers to the participant’s admission of having committing the act in questions. In 8.33% of the situations (n=5) in response to situations 4, 5, 6 and 7, Jordanian participants expressed their responsibility in those situations. For example:
   
   I will buy new CDs for them if I lost it.

   - Negative assessment of responsibility: it refers to the participant’s denial of being responsible for acting in questions. In 3.33% of the situations (n=2), Jordanian participants denied any responsibility or blamed others for the deed. Examples of responses to situation 5, and 7.
It was an accident your paper got erased.

5. **Self-Castigation.** Refers to the wrongdoer or participant claims responsibility for what has happened and is being hard on himself or herself (Sugimoto, 1997). In 8.33% of the situations (n=5), Jordanian participants resorted to self-castigation in which the participant criticized his or her own behavior, in as situations 1, 2, 3, 4 and 9. For example:

   *It's my fault; I forget to give you your homework.*

6. **Showing lack of intent on harm doing.** It refers to the participants who feel denying their intention to hard the offended (Batianeh & Batianeh, 2006). 3.33% of the situations (n=2), Jordanian participants like to deny their intent on harming the victim in response to situation 8. For example:

   *I did not mean to do that with your Ipod.*

7. **Brushing off incident as unimportant.** Refers to the participants to ask the offended to forget the incident since whatever happened was not worth the attention it was getting (Batianeh & Batianeh 2006). 1.67% of the situations (n=1), Jordanian participants asked the victim to forget the incident in situations 6 and 9. For example

   *Don't make it so hard, it's nothing.*

8. **Asking victim not to be angry.** Refers to that the wrongdoer or participant asked the offended not to be angry (Batianeh & Batianeh, 2006). In table, only one Jordanian participant asked the victim not to be angry. 1.67% of the situations (n=1) this strategy was used in situation 4. For example:

   *Please, don't be mad I don't return it for you.*

9. **Blaming victim.** It refers to the participants who blamed the offended for what happened (Batianeh & Batianeh, 2006). The table above shows us the response to situations 3, 6 and 7, in which the Jordanian participants blamed the victim for what happened. The percentage of this strategy is 3. 34% of the situations (n=2) as exemplified in expressions such as:

   *You should wake me up as I told you.*

10. **Denial.** Refers to the participant who denied being responsible for something damaged or broken (Batianeh & Batianeh, 2006). The table above has shown us that the Jordanian participants don't use denial strategy in common. In response to situation 3, only one Jordanian participant denied what he did. So this result marked the lowest percentage, 1.67%, as shown in table 1. For example:

   *It's not my fault because you didn't speak clearly.*

11. **Statement of remorse.** Refers to the wrongdoer or participant who acknowledges that he or she has done something wrong (Sugimoto, 1997). It is the lowest percentage in apology strategies, Jordanian participants used 1.67%. Examples are:

   *It is my mistake and I will try to repair this mistake with lecturer.*

   *I feel guilty about what I have done with your paper.*

5.2. Apology strategies used by Asian undergraduate participants
In their attempts to respond to the situations, Asian undergraduate respondents used the following apology strategies:

**Table 2. Apology Strategies Used by Asian Undergraduate Participants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Situations</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Account</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brushing off incident as not-important</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reparation</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blaming victim</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of responsibilities</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-castigation</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of remorse</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offending</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denial</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In their attempts to respond to the 10 situations given in the interview, Asian participants used the following apology strategies:

5.2.1 Analysis of Apology Strategies Used by Asian Participants

1. **Accounts.** The most common strategy used by Asian undergraduate students is the account strategy to account for what has been done. 38.33% of the situations (n=23), Asian participants used accounts in response to all situations, as in the following example:
   *I forgot your homework and I'm going to explain it to the lecturer.*

2. **Compensation.** It was the second common strategy used by Asian participants. 16.67% of the situations (n=10), Asian participants used compensation in responses to situations 1, 2, 9 and 10. Examples of which are listed below.
   *I broke your umbrella and will buy you a new one.*
   *I am sorry, I can not go but still I'm going to pay for the ticket.*
3. **Brushing off incident as unimportant.** It is a common strategy used by Asian students. 13.33% of the situations (n=8), Asian participants asked the victim to forget the incident in situations 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7 and 8. For example:

*I met friend accident he or she need me more than the others more than the meeting more than the members of this meeting group*

4. **Reparation.** In 10% of the situations (n=6), in response to situations 4, 6 and 8, some Asian participants promised to repair the injury done, as in the following example:

*I'm sorry, I'm going to try and retrieve it Which I deleted it accidentally, I'm going to retrieve the document for you or I'm going to redo the document for you.*

5. **Blaming victim.** The Asian participants used this strategy in some situations. In response to situations 1, 3, and 9, Asian participants blamed the victim for what had happened in 5% of the situations (n=3), using expressions such as:

*I don't care I say that, that is not my fault because you are the person who. You didn't call me you didn't remind me remind me*

6. **Assessment of responsibility.**

   - Positive assessment of responsibility. In 5% of the situations (n=3) in response to situations 7 and 8, Asian participants expressed their responsibility in those situations. For example:
   
   *I would say that it was not supposed to happen like that. I believed it was miscommunication and I'm sure next time I'll be more understandable so that will be no more miscommunication, yea.*

   - Negative assessment of responsibility. In 1.67% of the situations (n=1), Asian participants denied any responsibility or blamed others for the misdeed. Examples to situation 7 are:

   *It was an accident your paper got erased. I say that you are a press liar, aha because you should have come but because you are full enough to give me a good message then that's it. The reason for we fail to meet*

7. **Self-Castigation.** 3.33% of the situations (n=3), Asian participants resorted to self-castigation in which the participants criticized his behavior in situations 6 and 8, such as:

*I'm really sorry, it is very bad and because this some thing you erased you cannot get back and I will feel very, very guilty. And I have to really say I'm really sorry.*

8. **Statement of remorse.** The Asian participants expressed their remorse to what had happened in 3.33% of the situations (n=3); situations 2, 3 and 4. For example:

*I'm very sorry, some how that I had failed to return his or her paper because something happened and I really apologize so I say I'm sorry.*

9. **Offending victim.** This strategy was not common among the Asian participants. The percentage is very low. 1.67% of the situations (n=1), only one Asian participant employed this strategy in situation number 7. For example:

*I say that you are a press liar, aha because you should have come but because you are full enough to give me a good message then that's it. The reason for we fail to meet*
10 **Denial.** This strategy was not common among the Asian participants. The percentage is very low. In response to situation 2, only one Asian participant denied what he did. This marked the lowest percentage, 1.67%. For example:

*I say that the iPod already broke; I receive that iPod not in good condition, that's it. That's what I'm going to say, I'm not going to apologize.*

**Table 3. A Summary of Apology Strategies Used by Jordanian and Asian Undergraduate Students**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Jordanian Number</th>
<th>Jordanian Percent</th>
<th>Asian Number</th>
<th>Asian Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Account</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>38.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Compensation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reparation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brushing off incident as not important</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-castigation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blaming victim</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.34%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assessment of responsibility</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8.33%</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Showing lack of intent to do harm</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of remorse</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.33%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Denial</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asking victim not to be angry</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67%</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offending victim</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.67%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The most common used by both Jordanian students (45%) and Asian students (38.33%) are account strategy. The second common strategy by the two groups of participants is compensation, Jordanian participants (13.33%), and whiles the Asian participants (16.67%). Then the third common strategy used by the Jordanian groups of participants was reparation strategy; Jordanian participants (8.33%), but the Asians’ strategy's used as the third one was brushing off incident as not important percentage was (13.33%).

This study is in line with various studies in regarding to the strategies of apology. A study done by Hussein & Hammouri (1998) discovered that Jordanian and American students used varied strategies than American used such as 1) apology expressions (2) explanation or account. (3) responsibility. (4) repair. (5) promise of forbearance. (6) expressing concern for hearers, while this study used almost the same strategies.

This finding seems to support studies done by Al-Hami (1993) on Arab students. There are some strategies used in this study and the same in his study such as offering of repair, account and assessment or acknowledgement of responsibility strategies were used in both studies. Another study was done by Thasanee (1998) was used one of apologizing strategy is the same of this strategy "offering of repair". Also, the results of this study is similar to another study done by Ugla & Zainol Abidin (2016) on Iraqi students.

On the other hand, a study was done by Alfattah (2010) investigates the apology strategies among 314 Yemeni EFL Arab university students based on the pragmatic point of view. Alfattah results show that (IFID) strategy was the most frequent used among the participants. While this study is very different, it shows that the most strategy used by Jordanian and Asian students was account, followed by Compensation.

Various studies such as (Al-Hami, 1993; Alfattah, 2010; Bataineh, and Bataineh, 2006; Banikalef & Marlyna, 2013; Ugla & Zainol Abidin, 2016; Maros, 2006; Tun Nur Hamizaht & Paramasivam, 2013; Thasanee, 1998; and Wouk, 2006) were in line with the strategies that used by their participants. This study used the same strategies with different percentage. However, there are other studies used different types of apologizing strategies done by the researchers as we have seen that in section two.

6. Conclusion
It found that the most frequently apology strategies used among the Jordanian and the Asian participants were account, and compensation. There are similarities between the ways of apologizing strategies made by Jordanian participants and Asian participants. For example, apology in both cultures is considered to maintain the social equilibrium in the sense that the participant, as being ashamed of what he or she has done, wants or asks to be forgiven by his or her friend. Differences on the other hand, reflect culture-specific and context specific uses, which are governed by the norms and value of speech community. Accordingly, we should be aware of these cultural norms and values and how they operate in different ethnic and cultural backgrounds.

7. Implications of the Study
According to Hussein & Hammouri (1998), the main goal of foreign language teaching and learning is to create and develop the learners' communicative competence in their target language.
Moreover, learners' cultural should know other people's culture to avoid communication breakdowns with other speakers.

The fact that strategies of apologize are cultural specific requires a special orientation in the instruction between language. Culture-specific patterns must be taught side by side with vocabulary and other aspects of language. Tutors' awareness and understanding of their own culture and the cultures of their students would inevitably make this cultural training more successful. Learners should learn apologizing strategies in such a way to capture their semantics meaning as well as pragmatic use in order to employ them appropriately.

The role of teacher is to provide with appropriate methods of assisting language learners to acquire them. However, when planning for teaching apologizing strategies with their cultural patterns, tutor may follow a sequence such as introducing students to the linguistic strategies, have students interpret them, asks students to develop appropriate ways of responding taking into account the culture situations as well as the possible areas of sociolinguistics interference.

Acknowledgement
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References
Damen, L. 1998. Cultural learning: The fifth dimension in the language classroom. Reading,
A study of Apology Strategies in English: A case study on Jordanian Huwari

MA: Addison-Wesley.
Appendix A 'situations'

Dear Respondent,

The researcher is conducting a study entitled contrastive study into Apology strategies between Jordanian undergraduate students and Asian undergraduate students. You are kindly requested to answer the items of the interview carefully and accurately.

Thank You.
The Researcher

I. General Information:

Major:…………………………       Nationality:………………………

II. Please respond to these questions as realistically and honestly as possible.
1. You borrowed an umbrella from your best friend, and the wind broke it beyond repair. What do you say?

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2. You have made plans to go to a concert with your friends; you could not make it and you still owe them money for the ticket. What would you say to them?

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3. You showed up an hour late for a group trip on mid-semester break. What do you say to the students traveling with you?

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4. You have borrowed a classmate's homework, submitted yours and failed to return his/hers. What do you say?

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5. You didn't show up for a meeting due to a friend's accident. What do you say to the student; who was supposed to meet with you?

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6. You borrowed a CD from your roommate and did not return it for three weeks. What do you say to him/her?

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7. You failed to meet a friend at the hotel due to miscommunication. What do you say to him/her?

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8. You were playing with your friend's computer and erased the important paper s/he had been working on for the past two weeks. What do you say to him/her?

............................................................................................................................
...........................................................................

9. You borrowed your brother's/sister's ipod and broke it. What do you say to him/her?

............................................................................................................................
...........................................................................

10. You cancelled a club meeting and inconvenienced all the members of the club. What do you say to them?

............................................................................................................................
...........................................................................
The Effectiveness of STOP and DARE in Planning and Drafting Argumentative Writing: 
A case of Saudi College Level Students

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Northern Border University, Male Campus
Rafha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
Changing social dynamics have influenced writing a lot and learning and teaching process has also evolved greatly in terms of its theoretical as well as practical aspects. EFL learners in Saudi context behave very much differently to the writing tasks as English is introduced at a later stage in school education. Consequently, learners face a lot of challenges in responding positively to the methods and strategies implemented at the college level. The courses are intensive but failed to achieve the desired outcomes at the end of the program. A sample of work from 20 second year bachelor level students is taken to check the validity STOP and DARE strategy in improving students’ writing skills and also to see how the learners respond to this method. Teaching of argumentative writing is a part of their mother tongue teaching of which they are conceptually aware of but how do they respond in EFL learning is of interest to this present study.

Key words: Arab EFL learners, argumentative, SRSD, writing

1. Introduction
The recent studies and their findings suggest that, even if we aren’t getting any worse, we aren’t doing as much as we could to provide students with the best writing instructions. Writing skill is difficult to master as it combines thought, feeling, and social interactions to be able to completely express oneself using linguistic cues (Perin, 2013) and demands “cognitive analysis and linguistics synthesis” (Seitova, 2016). However, the skill of writing in English, particularly the argumentative type, presents as an obstruction for Arab L2 learners in general (Ahmed, 2010; Doushaq, 1986), and Saudi students in particular (Ali Al-Khair, 2013; Alrabai, 2014, 2016; Elyas & Picard, 2010; Grami, 2010; Mohammad & Hazarika, 2016). One reason to such weakness is due to the different cultures background between L1 and L2. Ferris (1994) examined 60 argumentative papers for undergraduate student half of them are native speakers and the other half are non-native speakers. The results of the study revealed clear differences between the two groups regarding the length of writing, and the use of counterarguments (Ferris, 1994). Ferris (1994) indicated that her ESL students in writing is the result of poor composing ability rather than inadequate proficiency in language in general (Ferris, 1994). Another explaining is related the difference between native and non-native argumentative writing to the contrast between rhetorical traditions such Confucian, Taoist, and Buddhist and English language which is based on “Aristotelian notions of directness, justification, and proof” (Hinkel, 1997).

In the same regard, Chinese writers demonstrate epistemological and dialogical emphases and highlights the need to use analogies comparing to American writers (Liu, 2005). Though that the Western influence considered powerful and in the past century and explain the similarities between the Chinese and English rhetorical conventions, the Marxist philosophy is still the dominant philosophy in China and explain its contrast from English culture (Liu, 2005). The influence of cultures on writing has a strong impact on the Persian argumentative writing where the Iranian writers use various indirectness modes of expression since they prefer to avoid refutation and direct arguments (Biria & Yakhabi, 2013). The argumentative writing between Arabic and English does not go far from this dissimilarity where the former tends to use the Thorough-Argumentation and the latter prefer the Counter-Argumentation style (Hatim, 1997). In the Thorough-Argumentation style the writer usually imply to the opponent’s claim and avoid the direct addressing to his argument. Hatim (1997) addresses the Arabic argumentative writing as: thesis-substantiation-conclusion while the English prefers to address the opponents directly: thesis- opponents-substantiation- conclusion. In Arabic the use of the through-argumentation to solidarity, politeness, and face-saving as factors of preference of this style (Hatim, 1990).

This may explain the difficulty for L2 learners when they write in the target language because when write in a L2 context, L2 learners evokes the L1 as a framework for their writing (Connor, 1987; Kaplan, 1966). Adding to this most of writing instructions seen in ESL classroom based on drills and exercises (Parker Lara-alecio & Gomez, 1996). In addition, instructions in teaching writing in Arabic focus mainly on grammar and the feedback is merely correcting sentences with fixed phrases such as “good” and “excellent” (Alshammari, 2011; Liebman, 1992). This can be related to adapt the product-approach in teaching writing in the classroom which focus on the grammatical accuracy of student’s writing (Badger & White, 2000) and emphasizes the rhetorical drills (Silva, 1990). However, the product approach is widely common in teaching...
Arabic in Saudi Arabia (Bakry & Alsamadani, 2015) as well as English (Al-hazmi & Scholfield, 2007; Ezza, 2010; Grami, 2010).

The challenge faces the L2 learners in English argumentative writing lies on the contrast between English and Arabic argumentative style rather the linguistic competence students need.

1.1 Argumentative writing
Argumentative writing is a genre of writing in which a learner investigates a topic. A learner collects, generates, and evaluates evidences to establish his position on the topic in a very concise manner. It is different from expository essay in terms of amount of pre-writing or the invention and research involved. The argumentative writing is ordinarily allotted as a capstone or final project in first year writing or advanced composition courses and includes extensive research. Expository writing includes less research and is shorter in length. These are often used for in-class writing exercises or tests, for example, the GED or GRE. Argumentative writing is considered to be a vital for composition courses at school as well as college levels. However, it is quite evident that students do not work enough on analytic or interpretative essays to be prepared for the much complex task of argumentative essays (Applebee & Langer, 2006).

The researches available on reading suggest that this writing task is the most challenging one for the students. Newell (2011) offered a number of reasons why the students face difficulty in comprehending their field specific texts as they are failed to apply argumentative text structures and eventually face difficulty in generate evidences to support their reasons and counter arguments. Sometimes even the teachers avoid dealing with the arguments due to various reasons which is the reasons why students lack this perspective of textual structures wherein their own reasons are the bases of developing a perspective (Newell et al, 2011: 277). He also proposes that reading and writing should go in hand in hand in order to achieve the necessary requirements for argumentation. It is crucial as it forms the basis for generating content for the argument and its corresponding vocabulary and grammatical structures. Lack of these elements would result in poorly conceptualized arguments.

Creativity and logic have a significant role to play in writing as the task of generating ideas to the final organization and crafting of ideas in a well comprehensible structure is all about argumentative essay writings (Janks, 2012; Mendelowitz, 2013).

1.2 SRSD and its influence on writing
SRSD is an instructional approach that combines explicit instruction in self-regulation procedures and strategy instruction. It has been used in various academic areas such as reading and math; but focus has been given to writing (Graham & Harris, 2003). The Self-Regulated Strategy Development (SRSD) is a framework consists of six instructional stages used to teach argumentative writing (Harris & Graham, 1996) and was the median for many different type of writing strategies to teach K-12 learners (Harris et al., 2008). The SRSD instructional model proves to be beneficial to students’ argumentative writing (Berry & Mason, 2012; De La Paz & Graham, 2002; Graham & Perin, 2007; Mason et al., 2013).

Though the SRSD was mainly designed to improve students’ writing who have some disability, its features are found to be effective in L2 learning. First, it emphasizes on the explicit role in
acquiring language in the declarative memory in which adult learners rely explicitly on nature (Spada & Tomita, 2010; Ullman, 2004). This goes in the line of Anderson’s ACT theory (1983, 1992) of three stages for second language learners, of which the first stage is the cognitive stage in which the learners can describe verbally the declarative knowledge that he/she has acquired. The second stage of SRSD instructional framework is explicit instruction “discuss it” and the third stage is “model it”.

Second, the process approach is more productive and more beneficial for L2 learners (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2004; Graham & Perin, 2007; Zamel, 1982) and particularly Saudi learners (Alhosani, 2008) is now considered the dominant approach of writing in middle and high school in the United States (Applebee & Langer, 2011). However, the SRSD instructional framework follow the process approach proved its beneficial value on native English speakers who are at different educational levels such as college (Graham & Harris, 2003; Song & Ferretti, 2013), high school (Mason et al., 2013), intermediate school (De La Paz & Graham, 2002), and elementary school (Graham et al., 2005), as well as L2 English learners at the elementary school level (Glaser & Brunstein, 2007). Also, a recent study that used (SRSD) framework revealed a significant improvement on undergraduate Saudi students’ writing majoring in English at Saudi university (Alshammari, 2016).

Moreover, the importance in practice in the classroom is crucial for learning… Finally, the SRSD encourage the collaborative learning which is beneficial for L2 learners writings (Shehadeh, 2011; Storch, 2005), where it allow participants to share writing in the fifth phase of its six phases. All these features of the SRSD which meet the requirement of L2 acquisition make it convenient model for L2 writing even for natural learners.

The aim of the present study is to investigate the influence of SRSD model L2 learners who are majoring in English in a foreign language context and see if the model improves their argumentative writing in total and what parts of the essay have the most influence and what parts has the least. Moreover the study will measure the participants’ responses and compare it their level of writing and see who are beneficiate most from the model the good writers and the weak ones.

Research question
1. To what extent, does the SRSD instructional model with the STOP and DARE strategy improve Saudi students’ argumentative writing?
2. Who benefit from the SRSD instructional model most, the good writers or the weak ones?

2. Methods
2.1 Participants and Procedure
The study took place in Northern Border University in Saudi Arabia. 20 male students in experimental group and 19 males in the control group participated in the study. The participants are students in the English department and translation in the NBU. They ranged from 18-20 years old. All the participants are in the second year in their program and never been studied English outside the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In other words, their exposure to English language is limited to classroom because English in Saudi is in a foreign language context. The participants took two
courses in writing (Writing1 and Writing 2) and at the time of the study they were taking the final course of writing (Writing 3).

The participants in both groups took a pretest which was an argumentative writing essay. The topic was decided by a team of expert English teacher who teach English as second language for long time. The topic in the pretest as well as in the post-test was considered that does not need a special knowledge in writing about it. After the pretest, the experimental group took a course for six weeks in argumentative writing. The course was based on Self-regulated Strategy Development instructional framework (Harris & Graham, 1996) using the STOP and DARE strategy (De La Paz & Graham, 1997). The study last for six weeks and participants took a post-test in the seventh week. For six weeks, they took two hours per week. Since the English language in Saudi Arabia is considered a foreign language and students have limited opportunity to practice it outside the classroom, the participants in the experimental group were given more time to practice writing in phase 5 where they write first in groups, in pairs, and finally independently in phase 6. The control group took the regular lessons designed for Writing 2 course.

The pretest and post-test essays for both groups was analyzed using SPSS model. First, the improvement for both groups separately. The study followed (Berry & Mason, 2012) rubric of evaluating essay parts: (a) thesis statement that includes opinion and a support (one point), (b) three reasons that support the thesis statement (three points), (c) three explanations for the reasons (three points), and (d) conclusion (one point). Another variable analyzed is the length of essays and investigate if the SRSD model motivates students to write more words.

3. Data collection and analysis

Control Group:
We can summarize the data pre and post training as under:

Table 1. The data pre and post training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S.No.</th>
<th>Particular</th>
<th>Pre Training</th>
<th>Post Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Total no of students</td>
<td>19.00</td>
<td>19.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Total no of passages</td>
<td>51.00</td>
<td>59.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Total no of word count</td>
<td>1,169.00</td>
<td>1,019.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Average no of word count</td>
<td>61.53</td>
<td>53.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Average no of passages</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>3.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>No of students covering 'thesis'</td>
<td>17.00</td>
<td>19.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>No of students covering 'reason'</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>19.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>No of students covering 'explanation'</td>
<td>11.00</td>
<td>4.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table we can see that:

1. Total number of passages written by the group has increased by 16.67% and average number of passages written by the students has increased from 2.68 to 3.13 after getting the general training.
2. The total number of word count has also decreased by 9.26% after the general training. The number of students with more than 50 word count has decreased from 12 to 9 after the training.
3. The number of students covering more than two areas/headings has decreased from 12 to 6.
4. The number of students covering ‘Thesis’ in their writing has increased from 17 to 19 after training.
5. The number of students covering ‘Reason’ in their writing has increased from 16 to 19 after training.
6. The number of students covering ‘Explanation’ in their writing has increased from 11 to 4 after training.
7. The number of students covering ‘Ending’ in their writing has increased from 6 to 3 after training.

We conducted ANOVA single factor test to check whether the training has significant impact on the total number of passages written by the students.

Null Hypothesis: There is no significant difference between the mean number of passages, word count, thesis, reason, explanation, ending covered by the students’ pre and post training.

The data collected by means of the pre and post-test design.

Table 2. Pre & Post test scores on all four elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Max score</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total score</strong></td>
<td>2.684211</td>
<td>3.131579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Thesis score</strong></td>
<td>0.921053</td>
<td>0.947368</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The control group show insignificant improvement in the total score of the essays, F (1, 36) = 1.85, p = .182. The parts of the essay show insignificant improvement in the thesis and ending sections while the reason and the explanation show a significant improvement. Unaspiringly the students’ ability to write more vocabulary did not improve between the pretest (M= 61.53) and the post-test (M= 53.63).

Correlation Analysis:

Table 3. Pre & Post-test correlational analysis between headings, word count & No. of passages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Correlational Analysis (Headings, Word count &amp; No. of passages)</th>
<th>Pre Training</th>
<th>Post Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between word count and total no. of passages</td>
<td>0.36</td>
<td>0.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance between word count and total no. of passages</td>
<td>7.64</td>
<td>14.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correlation between no. of headings and word count</td>
<td>0.39</td>
<td>0.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Covariance between no. of headings and word count</td>
<td>7.09</td>
<td>4.66</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The correlation coefficient between word count and total number of passages written has increased from 0.36 to 0.54 post training.

The correlation coefficient between number of headings/areas covered and word count has decreased from 0.39 to 0.31 post training.

Table 4. Experimental Group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>S. No.</th>
<th>Particular</th>
<th>Pre Training</th>
<th>Post Training</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Total No of Students</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Total No of Passages</td>
<td>79.83333333</td>
<td>112.8333333</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Total No of Words</td>
<td>1257</td>
<td>2642</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Average No of Word Count</td>
<td>59.86</td>
<td>125.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Average No of Passages</td>
<td>3.80</td>
<td>5.37</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
From the table 4 we can see that:

1. Total number of passages written by the group has increased by 41.34% and average number of passages written by the students has increased from 3.8 to 5.37 after getting the special training.
2. The total number of word count of the group has significantly increased from 1257 to 2642 after the general training. The number of students with more than 50 word count has increased from 11 to 20 after the training.
3. The number of students covering more than two areas/headings has decreased from 18 to 20.
4. There was no change in the number of students covering ‘THESIS’ in their writing after training.
5. The number of students covering ‘REASON’ in their writing has decreased from 21 to 20 after training.
6. The number of students covering ‘EXPLANATION’ in their writing has increased from 18 to 19 after training.
7. The number of students covering ‘ENDING’ in their writing has increased from 8 to 17 after training.

We conducted ANOVA single factor test to check whether the training has significant impact on the total number of passages written by the students.

Analysis revealed that there is a significant difference between the mean number of passages, word count, reason, explanation, thesis, ending covered by the students’ post training. There is no significant change in the number of student covering more than two area/heading post training. The experimental group results shows that the strategy STOP and DARE has a significant influence on students writing. ANOVA single factor test were conducted to check whether the treatment has a significant impact on the total score of essay written by the students as shown in table (2).

Table 5. Pre & Post training differences among the students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Effectiveness of STOP and DARE in Planning and Drafting

Al Shammari

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source of Variation</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>MS</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P-value</th>
<th>F crit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>25.92857</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25.92857</td>
<td>9.166881</td>
<td>0.004299</td>
<td>4.084746</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>113.1402</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.828505</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>139.0688</td>
<td>41</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The p-value show a significant improvement of the SRSD framework using the STOP and dare strategy on student’s writing $F(1, 40) = 9.17$, $p = .004$. Moreover, the using this strategy helps students to produce more vocabulary in the post-test, $F (1, 40) = 17.32$, $p = 0.0001$.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Average</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-training</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>1257</td>
<td>59.85714</td>
<td>991.5286</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-training</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2642</td>
<td>125.8095</td>
<td>4282.862</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To see the exact influence of the treatment on the vocabulary, a regression analysis has been conducted and marked that 61.85% of the variation in the total scores of passages written by students in the experimental group is explained by the total number of word count.

**Table 5. Variation in the total scores of passages**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regression Statistics</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Multiple R</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adjusted R Square</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard Error</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To see which parts in the essays that written in by the experimental group and has a significant improvement, a single factor ANOVA test was conducted on the four essay’s parts as seen on table (6).

Table 6. Pre and Post test scores on all four elements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Max score</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>P-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thesis score</td>
<td>0.936508</td>
<td>0.960317</td>
<td>0.412844</td>
<td>0.524195</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reason score</td>
<td>1.642857</td>
<td>2.166667</td>
<td>5.821973</td>
<td>0.020502</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.031746</td>
<td>1.619048</td>
<td>6.039484</td>
<td>0.01842</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ending score</td>
<td>0.261905</td>
<td>0.626984</td>
<td>8.504823</td>
<td>0.005782</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is clearly that the treatment has insignificant influence on the Thesis part in the experimental group. However, the Reason, explanation, and ending improved significantly in the post-test.

Another test where conducted to see is there a significant difference between the number of essay parts written by the students in the experimental and the control group in the post-test. The results show that participants in the experimental group write more essay parts than the control group in the post-test, F (1, 38) = 13.38, p = 0.0008.
Comparing the scores of the total scores between the control and experimental group shows the experimental group scores are significantly higher than the control group in the post-test, F (1, 38) = 20.57, p < 5.6E-05. However, the scores between the two groups on the pre-test doesn’t have a significant difference that means they are in the same level of writing before the beginning of the experiment. Moreover, an ANOVA single factor was conducted to compare the word count in the post-test between the control and experimental group. The results show that participants on the experimental group write significantly more words in the post-test than in the control group, F (1, 38) = 20.07, p = 6.64E - 05. Finally, the results show that participants on the experimental group cover significantly more parts of the essay than participants on the control group, F (1, 38) = 37.39, p = 3.96E-07.

4. Discussion
The significant improvement of participants in the experimental group with the relative short time of the experiment support the conclusion that the ESL students are weak in the composing ability rather than language proficiency (Ferris, 1994). The study supports other studies (Berry & Mason, 2012; De La Paz, 2005; De La Paz & Graham, 2002; Glaser & Brunstein, 2007) in proving the benefit of SRSD instructional model in teaching. More specifically, this study along with (Alshammari, 2016; Glaser & Brunstein, 2007; Song & Ferretti, 2013) prove the benefits of SRSD with natural learners. Moreover, the study comes up with similar results with a previous study used SRSD with different strategy, TREE strategy (Alshammari, 2016). Both study show significant improvement on students writing in the experimental group in the total scores and reasons, explanation, and ending section, not however, thesis section.

What is interesting that the current study along with the (Alshammari, 2016) improve the ability of writing more vocabulary and consequently increased the length of essay and the average length increased from (M = 59.86) in the pretest to ( M = 125.81) in the post-test. However, both studies did not include teaching vocabulary but it seems that the SRSD framework instructional motivate learners to recall vocabulary they did not use usually. It is also noted that in both studies that most of the participants in the control group fail to write the conclusion part though it is only a summarization of the thesis while participants in the experimental group have a significant improvement in ending section. This might because students who study the SRSD have a clear idea of the essay parts and became aware of the characteristics of each part. Moreover, the six steps of the SRSD that learners have gone through were able to wash up the L1 style and implement the L2 (Kaplan, 1966). On the other hand, participants on the control group seems still confused of their L1, Arabic, language style which basically locate the thesis statement at the end of the essay which function also as a conclusion (Bacha, 2010).

Conclusion
Though the overall of the study prove the improvement for the SRSD using the STOP and DARE strategy, the relative short time of the experiment limit its benefits for the students and future studies should consider allowing more time for participants to see and compare the effect of the SRSD instructional model. This study along with other studies prove that teaching L2 learners English writing style is not impossible and good results can be achieved in relatively short time. It is important to use this study and other studies, e.g. (Alshammari, 2016) as an evidence for benefits of using the process approach represented by the SRSD instructional model in Saudi
Arabia to improve the weakness of Saudi learners who are majoring in English (Ali Al-Khairy, 2013; Grami, 2010; Mohammad & Hazarika, 2016).

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Text Structure and Its Teaching Implications: An Analytical Study

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Abstract
The way information is organized in a text enables students to read effectively. As such, the current study content analyzed the first and the second stage secondary English as a foreign language (EFL) textbooks taught at public schools in Jordan. This descriptive analytical research design was carried out to explore the means and frequencies of text structure types included in both textbooks and the extent of fairness in presenting these structures within the reading texts of both textbooks. The main aim of the study is to provide insights for both EFL teachers and book designers to expose students to varied types of text structure. A content analysis sheet for coding the material based on the criterion of inclusion was used. The reading passage was the unit of analysis. The analysis of the study revealed that the Jordanian secondary stage textbooks include a variety of text structure types that are not fairly distributed; nevertheless, the descriptive structure was the most frequent structure in both textbooks. Starting from this premise, the current study discussed the pedagogical implications of text structure teaching. Accordingly, the study recommends that book designers should integrate reading texts of varied text structure types without ignoring some structures in favor of others, also it recommends that EFL teachers should be trained to use text structure strategy in EFL reading classes.

Keywords: content analysis, implications, text structure, EFL

Introduction
Textbooks are undoubtedly the most popular teaching materials used in English as a foreign Language (EFL) classes and reading is an integral skill in these textbooks. However, it is understandable that many EFL students encounter difficulties in understanding a piece of EFL reading text. Accordingly, EFL reading researchers have presented many reading strategies used by readers; some of these strategies are traditional like skimming and scanning, and other strategies are recent like activating schemata, recognizing text structure, using mental imagery, generating questions, monitoring comprehension and visualizing (Blachowicz & Ogle, 2008; Kern, 2002).

Reading is highly significant in the learning process; nevertheless, it is very demanding in EFL contexts as it involves being well-equipped with the knowledge base that enables students to control the reading passage; in order to achieve the ultimate goal of reading which is comprehension. In this concern, Urquhart and Weir (1998, p. 22) define reading as "the process of receiving and interpreting information encoded in language form via the medium of print". Accordingly, comprehension can be achieved with such interaction between the reader and the text. In such interaction, the meaning is elicited from the text which is beyond the printed words (National Reading Panel, 2003). Now, teachers need to play a significant role in developing their student's reading comprehension through text structure acknowledgment (Lyon, 2001).

Grabe (2009) states that reading texts is not only a collection of words; it is rather more by making sense of such words. Successful readers approach a text based on their knowledge of how a particular text is organized. The schema then guides them in organizing the text during the process of encoding. In this regard, Kintsch and VanDijk (1978) believe that students build a kind of hierarchical representation of the ideas in the text with an emphasis on the order in which sentences are read. During the last decades, reading comprehension instruction, or the lack of it, has been given considerable attention from reading researchers, teachers and educators (Pearson, 2009). One of the problematic facts about student's low performance in reading is that they cannot see the underlying structure of text as they are lost in the words and cannot see the whole picture. In this respect, Tovani (2000) argues that students’ knowledge of text structure can reduce any confusion related to the lack of clarity in meaning. As a result, this can enable them to anticipate the main ideas of the text easily.

Typically, a text is read considerably in the same manner a house is built. In this respect, Pearson and Fielding (1991) assert that texts are organized in different patterns and any sort of attention to clues that show how authors relate ideas to one another or any attempt to trace the structure imposed upon a text, especially written texts reveal the relationships between main ideas, facilitates comprehension and recall in terms of both short term and long term memory of the text. In this context, readers should recognize that any text has a structure and they should be familiar with the signal words that exist in a text, and be practiced to acknowledge the structure of the text in the light of the signal words (Williams, 2007).

Each reading text has its own text structure; if students are aware of the underlying structure; they will be able to get the main message of the text. Such types of structure may include
events and results, compare and contrast, and problem and solution text-structures (Meyer & Freedle, 1984). Besides, raising the students’ knowledge of text structure, according to Tompkins (2007), helps them to identify main ideas without exerting much effort on less important details. Further, considering the text structure enables students to understand how the important ideas of a text are inter-related, which may in turn increases their ability to decode the data based on such relationships. Here, Grabe and Stoller (2002) give examples of these relations; such as those found in comparison, causation, sequence or problem and solution. As a result, the process of meaning-making becomes easier.

Meyer and Ray (2011) state that understanding multiple text structures comes only from purposeful instruction using a variety of texts. The rationale behind teaching students the structure strategy is that it enables students to follow a logical structure of the text in order to understand how an author organized and emphasized ideas. Readers who are unaware of text structures often approach text reading without any plan, while readers who are familiar with text structures have more expectation of what may read in the following paragraphs in a particular text. Villanueva de Debat (2012) claims that making students aware of the rhetorical organization of texts contributes to both reading fluency and efficiency; as it is a rational instrument in the hands of those who can use it.

As students reach the secondary level, it is expected that they may read challenging texts for the purpose of identifying information. Consequently, teachers need to teach their students how to identify various text structures as it helps them to have control over main ideas and other supporting details in a particular text. Moreover, Carrell (1984) asserts that passages are easier to be recalled when they have a clear organizational text structure.

In this regard, effective teachers need to show their students how to deal with a variety of text structures. For example, they may teach them to identify the signal words or clues that show the relationship between sentences or paragraphs. In this respect, Koda (2005) highlights the significance of teaching text structures where explicit instruction helps students to be exposed to various structures of texts which may make them ready to handle the demands that await them later on. Likewise, Dymock (2005) emphasizes teaching the structure of the text as a reading comprehension strategy that facilitates recall and comprehension. Furthermore, in order to show mastery over written texts for the purpose of comprehension, Meyer (2011) asserts there is no doubt that teaching text structure can definitely increase understanding and raising the student’s test scores.

What is more, knowledge of text structure is related to reading achievement. Students’ lack of understanding of text structure causes difficulties (Gersten, Fuchs, Williams & Baker, 2001). Broadly speaking, EFL students at the secondary stage struggle to comprehend expository texts. In this concern, McNamara (2008, p. 140) states that "in contrast to narrative texts, expository texts tend to place increased processing demands on the reader due to their greater structural complexity, greater informational density, and greater knowledge demands".

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Additionally, Toledo (2005), Guthrie and Davis (2003) mention that a significant percentage of students are unaware of text structure; they do not use the basic structure of a particular text to understand and remember information; those students cannot be as successful in comprehension as those who received instruction on text structure. In this concern, Hall, Saby and McClellan (2005) point out that teaching students to identify common text structures can help them to improve their comprehension. This is explained by the assumption that denotes that once readers have the knowledge of the organizational patterns of text, they will be aware of text structure and they will use it as a strategy to comprehension.

Analyzing curricula in general and text books in particular plays a significant role in EFL learning process. It helps textbook's authors and researchers to find the points of strength and weakness in the textbook and to what extent it is suitable for both students and teachers. Cunningsworth (1995) states that knowing strengths and weaknesses in textbooks, excellent use can be made of strong points and weaker points can be adapted or substituted from other books. The textbook occupies a basic position in the learning process. Thus many evaluation studies were conducted on the currently taught EFL series Action Pack in Jordanian schools. Therefore, the continuous evaluation of the content of the textbook is needed by using different criteria. When it comes to teacher practices, there is clear evidence that reading comprehension instruction is highly beneficial for students of all levels. When teachers explain a comprehension strategy accompanied by providing them with guided practice with feedback, students begin to use the strategy independently and eventually their reading levels will be improved (Stevens, 2003; Biancarosa & Snow, 2006).

Alvermann (2002) believes that the rationale behind explicit instruction of text comprehension is that comprehension can be improved by teaching students to use specific strategy when they encounter barriers to comprehension when reading. Teachers make the difference in effective reading instruction by helping learners make sense of written language. Effective instruction is grounded in a professional knowledge of how we read and how we learn to read. It is best provided by knowledgeable teachers who organize instruction to meet the varying needs of all their students, read to students using a variety of text types, including various types of fiction and nonfiction and multicultural literature, on a variety of topics to build their student's familiarity with written language and their background knowledge on a variety of topics, freeing the instruction from stereotypes (National Commission on Excellence in Elementary Teacher Preparation for Reading Instruction, 2003).

To perform precisely, text structure is the rhetorical organization of ideas in text. It specifies the inter-relationships among the main ideas and supporting details which compose the text. Other terms which are used to refer to text structure are: rhetorical organization, rhetorical structure, or organizational pattern (Talbot, 2004). In the present study, text structure refers to the way the ideas are arranged and organized and the relationship that connect these ideas. Text structures in Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12 were investigated by using a content analysis sheet developed by the researcher.
Theoretical background
Views of reading comprehension have changed over few decades, comprehension was thought to be a process of decoding. Developments in the analysis of text organization were in line with developments in schema theory. Schema theory is considered one of the most influential theories from the mid-1970s on as it provides new insights of text structure. The gist of schema theory lies in that reading provides directions as to how readers should make sense of the text based on his/her previous knowledge (Carrell, 1992).

According to Brown (2001), the main premise of schema theory, with regards to reading, is that a text does not by itself have meaning. The reader brings information, knowledge, emotion, and culture, to the text. More meaning is contributed by the reader than by the words of the text. Consequently, this would all point to the fact that the reader’s understanding of a text depends on how much related schema a reader possesses while reading. However, failure to make sense of a text is caused if the text doesn't include sufficient clues or if the reader doesn’t possess the appropriate schemata that can easily fit with the content of the text.

Any piece of written text has a text structure which is considered part of the formal schema that include in addition to text structure, orthography, syntax, and cohesion. Based on the theory of formal schema, the primary belief is that once readers develop specific knowledge about the organizational structure of a particular genre, these schemata make the readers' task easier in constructing meaning and doing predictions while they read because they make connections with their previous knowledge. In relation to comprehension, Lynch and Mendelsohn (2002) define the term schema as “a package of prior knowledge and experience that we have in memory and can call on in the process of comprehension”.

Meyer (1975) argues that text structures are considered integral part of the readers’ formal schemata because good readers can comprehend a text based on their previous knowledge of the conventional organization of a piece of reading. For example, readers may look for any given text in their repertoire to guide them in organizing the text during the process of encoding. In this context, if a reader reads a problem-solution text being aware with structure of the text, he/she will look for the problem and the solution. Further, he/she will also look for the causes of the problem and other details relevant to the problem and the solution. Meyer also argued that the inclusion of transition words in a text can make the text structure more identifiable.

Text structure and reading comprehension
Sharp (2004), in an experimental study, examined a large number of ESL secondary students from Hong Kong to determine the effect of rhetorical organization on reading comprehension. The researcher used four rhetorically different texts namely; description, cause-effect, listing and problem solving. The students were asked to read and to write a recall in a given time. Then, they were required to do a cloze test. Cloze testing showed significant differences between the four texts, while the results of recall protocols indicated no significant differences between the text...
types. Sharp argued that this phenomenon is due to the education system in Hong Kong, where the emphasis is on memory related tasks.

Newman (2007) investigated the effect of explicit instruction of expository text structure on reading comprehension. The participants were third grade EFL students who were divided into three groups of experimental group and a control group. The experimental groups received training on text structure with the use of graphic organizer. The students in the control classroom received regular guided reading instruction. The trainer used different reading strategies such as thinking aloud and graphic organizers during the treatment of experimental groups. After the post test, there was a significant difference in their ability to comprehend expository text.

Additionally, Hirai (2008) explored the effect of providing Japanese EFL readers with two different rhetorical structures (namely; temporal order and problem/solution) in order to reveal which rhetorical structure is more feasible to EFL readers. A written recall was managed for the participants who were two groups, in order to measure their reading comprehension. The results indicated that the upper group recalled significantly more information than the lower group even when the rhetorical structures and paragraph orders were changed. In addition, problem/solution structures were recalled more than temporal order structures.

Ting and Tee (2008) studied student's awareness and familiarity on the structure of academic text types among second and fourth year undergraduates at a Malaysian university. The findings indicated that a significant percentage of the participants lack familiarity with academic texts due to insufficient exposure to the structure of such text type. This suggests the importance of the use of expository type of texts in reading instruction and simultaneously taking into account the grade-level factor. All in all, it was reported that secondary school students need to be exposed to discourse structure in expository texts as it best suit their level.

In another study, Latawiec (2010) studied the effects of text structure awareness as a metacognitive strategy on (EFL/ESL) reading comprehension and academic achievement over three years of tertiary education of 115 Polish EFL learners at an English Teacher's Training College. The rationale of the study stands on the theory of strategic text processing, and on the paradigm for teaching the text structure, which when taught explicitly, it enables better comprehension and better information recall. The researcher utilized pre-test and post-test to examine the relationship between student's awareness and use of text structure strategy. The results obtained from statistical calculations suggested that the awareness of text structure is a significant predictor of academic achievement along with other available predictors.

Chalak and Asfahani (2012) examined the effect of text-structure strategy instruction, compared to that of traditional instruction, on the reading comprehension of Iranian EFL learners. The participants were forty Iranian advanced level students. They were divided into a control group...
and experimental group. The participants were pre-tested to make sure that there are no statistically significant differences in reading skill and no text-structure knowledge. Then, the students in both groups were taught four reading comprehension passages. The students in the control group were taught traditionally and the students in the experimental group were taught through text-structure awareness instruction. At the end of the fourth week, the students were post-tested. The results showed that the students who received the text-structure awareness instruction showed a significant improvement in the reading comprehension skill over time.

**Content analysis and reading texts in EFL contexts**

Sidek (2009) examined the reading passages in a Malaysian EFL textbook in order to determine how well an EFL secondary textbook prepares students for tertiary reading in English. The researcher categorized reading comprehension passages in the EFL secondary textbook as either narrative texts or expository texts. By using the data obtained from a content analysis of the textbook in focus, the author established that the textbook does not prepare students for university education as it overemphasizes narrative passages which are below the student's level. Also, the study showed that students needed to be exposed to expository texts in order to be prepared for tertiary reading.

Sholichatun (2011) carried out a study entitled content analysis of reading materials on *Sky Textbook* for junior high school. The purpose of the study was to find out the kind of genre of the reading passage found in the book under study and to find out the lexical density of these reading texts. The researcher used content analysis to collect the required data. The results showed that the book includes three genres, They are procedure, report, and narrative text. In terms of lexical density of reading texts, the results showed quite lexical density; which means that the text is suitable and not difficult.

Smadi and Alghazo (2013) content analyzed *Action Pack 11* in terms of authenticity; to determine to what extent the reading texts are authentic in the light of the specific reading outcomes under the Reading Section in the General Guidelines and General and Specific Outcomes for English Language in Jordan of 2006. The researchers used frequencies and percentages to present the results of the question of the study. The findings of the analysis showed that the reading texts of the student's book in *Action Pack 11* are highly authentic. Also the results revealed that there is a strong match between reading specific outcomes and the reading text's authenticity in *Action Pack 11*.

Kheshta and Seif (2013) evaluated the availability of Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) in the reading exercises of *English for Palestine Grade 8* in order to find out to what extent the reading exercises in the student book and workbook match the suggested criteria. The descriptive analytical approach was adopted by the researchers to achieve the purpose of the study by showing various frequencies and percentages supported with examples from the books under study, the
researchers found that the skills available are not well-distributed in the student book neither in the work book. In the light of these data, the researchers recommended reviewing the reading exercises in order to modify it by providing them with rich material that includes HOTS.

More recently, Freahat and Al-Faoury (2015) examined the appropriateness of the reading content in *Action Pack 11, Action Pack 12* and an EFL textbook that is taught for *Communication Skills* module at Yarmouk University. The researchers analyzed the types of the reading passages included in the three textbooks by using content analysis instrument entailing expository, descriptive, narrative and persuasive text structures. The results showed that the three textbooks in focus exposed the students more to the descriptive and expository types of passages than to the narrative passages. However, descriptive texts were reported as scoring the highest occurrence across the three textbooks, while persuasive texts were reported as not to be. Furthermore, Rohmatillah (2015) used content analysis to determine the types of the reading texts in an EFL textbook entitled *English Alive* for Senior High School where the result of the analysis showed that there are five kinds of text, namely; recount, narrative, procedure, descriptive and news items texts.

These studies have attempted to content analyze reading texts for many purposes using variety of criteria. Further, a lot of studies investigated the effect of teaching text structure on students’ reading comprehension. However, studies which content analyzed the types of text structure and the degree of fairness in presenting these structures in the secondary EFL textbooks are scarce particularly in Jordan. Thus, the current study has been done to fill this gap.

Being a teacher herself, the researcher felt student's problem in comprehending written texts. Due to its difficulty, reading comprehension passages in the secondary stage EFL textbooks become more and more complex as the texts are longer and fuller of themes. It likewise turns out to be gradually more diverse in lexis. Now the secondary stage in Jordan consists of the eleventh and twelfth grades which is very crucial as it is supposed to prepare students to the General Secondary Stage Exam (GSCE). Research findings in Jordan shed the light on reading comprehension deficiency. For example, Alkhawaldeh (2012) concluded that Jordanian students struggle in comprehending what they read. Further, Amoush (2012) stated that there is a general dissatisfaction among parents and school teachers from the poor level of reading comprehension achievement of Jordanian students in reading English texts; she added that a large number of Jordanian students face problems while trying to understand written texts in the reading lessons. The students’ reading performance can be attributed to many factors as confirmed by relevant research. One of the essential factors related to the instruction associated with the structure of the reading passages. Myer (2003) asserted that EFL learners of all levels must be familiar with text structure in order to gain academic success. Accordingly, the present study is steered towards stating pedagogical implications through which reading comprehension may be mastered and in order to truthfully visualize such implications.
Method
The design followed by the present research on text structure is analytical descriptive where the researcher content analyzed reading texts and probed into how text structure should be employed by secondary stage teachers. Specifically, the current study aimed to answer the following questions:

1-What are the text structures types included in Action Pack 11? To what extent have the included text structure types been fairly presented in Action Pack 11?

2- What are the text structures types included in Action Pack 12? To what extent have the included text structure types been fairly presented in Action pack 12?

Materials
The materials of the present study consist of the reading passages in Action Pack 11, and Action Pack 12 textbooks. Both textbooks provide many international topic-based contents which are designed to appeal to the educational needs and interests of students in Jordan. The following, however, is a detailed description of each:

Action Pack 11: consists of six thematic modules based on a carefully graded language syllabus. This approach makes it possible for students to develop all four language skills: listening, speaking. Each of Modules 2–6 in the textbook contains two units, which develop the theme in different ways. At the end of each module, there is a project

Action Pack 12: is a recent developed version by Cheryl Pelteret, Liz Kilbey and Judith Greet. Five units have to be covered each semester with a total of 10 units. The Ministry of education decided to adopt this book for 12th Jordanian students with the beginning of the scholastic year 2015/2016.

Instruments
In order to elicit the required data, a content analysis sheet was developed by the researcher. The applicability of content analysis made it so appropriate to be utilized in this study as Krippendorff (2004, P. 18) maintains that “Content analysis is a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts or other meaningful matter to the contexts of their use”. That is why content analysis is effective in the current study; it is not merely to determine the frequency of the incorporated structures, but also to provide information for the textbooks writers.

Moreover, Holsti defines the term content analysis as any technique for making inferences by objectively and systematically identifying specified characteristics of massages (1969, P.14). The present study is restricted to the analysis of text structures of the reading texts in two secondary textbooks; namely: Action Pack 11 and Action Pack 12.
The categories of the analysis are the eight text structures which are sequential, enumerative, compare and contrast, problem and solution, cause and effect, compare and contrast, question and answer, descriptive and argumentative structures. The unit of analysis is the reading passages included in the textbooks in focus and the criterion of analysis is the inclusion of the eight text structures.

To establish the validity of the content analysis sheet, the researcher defined the terms operationally, prepared the criterion, units and the categories for analyzing the books under study. To establish the intra-rater reliability of the content analysis, the researcher analyzed the reading content of the textbook under study according to the categories of the study and repeated the analysis after two weeks by using the same units and categories of analysis. To establish the inter-rater reliability, however another analyst was asked to conduct the analysis using the same categories and units of analysis. The second analyst is an assistant professor in TEFL who published two content analysis studies and volunteered to take part in this study.

Data Collection and Analysis
The researcher analyzed the reading sections content of both Action Pack 11 as well as Action Pack 12 textbooks. The aim was to find out text structures included in each. Thus, systematic steps for content analysis were followed, that is the inclusion criteria was used for the analysis of the reading passages in focus. Then the researcher constructed a coding scheme by counting the presence and absence of each category in the whole units of the textbooks in focus, the coding unit is assigned to a particular category, that the recording unit should fit into only one category.

Findings
The first research question was: What are the types of text structures included in Action Pack 11? To what extent the included text structures have been fairly presented in Action Pack 11? To find out the answer, the researcher analyzed the reading passages of the student's book of Action Pack 11 in the light of the eight structure types. Frequencies and percentages for every structure were calculated then the data are reported in Table 1.
Table 1 shows the frequencies and percentages of the text structures in *Action Pack 11*. The descriptive structure has the highest frequencies in all content analyzed units; it has 11 frequencies with percentage of 34%. An example of descriptive structure can be found in the first unit, the reading text describes flower festivals in different places in the world using sensory and descriptive language such as "the colorful flower", "beautiful black Iris", "magnificent tulip gardens". Moreover, the reading text in unit 2 page 20 has also descriptive structure of custom and traditions in different countries are presented such as: polite and impolite behaviors, eating rules and time respect.

After that, the sequential structure characterizes seven occurrences with a percentage of 22%; there are seven reading texts that organize the information using this structure. More specifically, these texts are distributed in units 3, 7, 8 and 9. On page 64 for example, the reading text traces the development of means of communication from the fifth century till recent days, more than one signal word indicate the sequence of the events such as: after many years, in 1821, nowadays. Another example of sequential structure is in unit 9, the text traces the history of pizza from the past till today. The sequential cues in this text are marked by using "In" followed by the year or the century six times in the text, each time refers to a specific historical period, for instance: in the third century, in the 16th century, in 1522 and the last paragraph includes the signal word "today" which refers to the development of pizza in our time.

Concerning compare/contrast and problem/solution structures, these types received the least frequencies and percentages as they occurred once with 3% each. The only example of compare and contrast is in unit four page 37; the reading text investigates cycling in the past, the present, and on the future. The text uses "ten years ago" and "nowadays" to hold a comparison between cycling in Jordan in the past and in our present day. Also the only example of problem and solution structure is on page 11; the text discusses the problem of three individuals who have no time to relax because of hard work, the text refers to the problem by using the word “the problem is” then the text presents three solutions for the three individuals to enable them to relax.

Regarding cause\effect structure; it was characterized in two occurrences, the first is in unit six page 52, where the reading text is about "water resources in Jordan" which sheds the light on scarcity of water resources in Jordan. The text shows the government's policy to raise the awareness of this matter. Signal words in the texts are clear such as "consequently", "accordingly". The second text is in unit 8 page 68; the text sheds the light on the reason behind doing research on "wild chimpanzees" and the results of such research; the text includes cues like "in order to", "the results suggest".
Concerning the enumerative structure, it characterized five occurrences with a percentage of 16%. In texts that have this structure, the main idea is followed by examples that are not in a defined order. For instance, in page 72, the main idea in the text involves different cultures and different food as the title of the text tells, then the writer exposes four examples on this idea from four different countries. Another text structure illustrated in the Table is question\answer structure which is characterized in three occurrences in units 5 and 6 consequently. For example, the information in the reading text in page 46 has been organized in a question and answer format between an interviewer and a nuclear physicist. However, the last structure which is characterized only twice is the argument structure with a percentage of 6% out of the total.

In Action Pack 11, both reading texts that have an argument structure are in unit 10. The first text discusses some information about the Nabateans who built Petra, their origin and culture. Here, the argument used by the signal word "might" two times in the text. Similarly, the second text is also organized in an argument structure investigates more than one view behind the disappearance of the Minoan civilization. The signal word "might" has been mentioned five times to support each view in the reading text. All in all, the result of the content analysis demonstrates that the textbook under study contained a varied number of text structures, the result also showed that the text structures were presented in the following order according to their inclusion namely; descriptive, sequential, enumerative, question\answer, argument and cause effect, compare\contrast and problem\solution). Reading passages that have descriptive structure were dominant, it had the highest occurrence across the ten units being analyzed. However, the text embedded structures were these of compare \ contrast and problem \solution structures.

The second research question was "What are the types of text structures included in Action Pack 12? To what extent the included text structures have been fairly presented in Action pack 12? To answer this question, the researcher analyzed the reading passages of the student's book of Action Pack 11 in the light of the eight structure types. Frequencies and percentages for every structure were calculated then the data are reported in Table 2.
Action Pack 12. The descriptive structure appeared most frequently, while cause\-effect and argument structures received the least frequency and percentages. However, problem\-solution structure has no frequency in the book under study.

More specifically, the descriptive structure has 10 frequencies with a percentage of 42%. In the textbook under study, two descriptive text structures are in each unit of 3, 4, 6 and 10. Yet, in units 5 and 7 there is one descriptive structure in each. An example of this structure is on page 24, the text describes one of cancer treatment center in Jordan. The text involves sensory and linguistic description of this center such as "its excellent reputation, lower costs, cultural and language similarities, the Journey to and from the hospital is often difficult". Another example of descriptive structure is on page 46, the text is entitled Space schools which describes a new kind of schools using signal words like "students follow a tailor-made curriculum", lessons are a mixture of small-class tutorials.

Table 2, also, shows that the enumerative structure has five frequencies with a percentage of %21. This structure implies that the ideas are not organized in a defined order like the sequential structure. For example, there is a text in unit1 that gives some ideas about using technology in Jordanian classrooms, the author uses signal words like "also, then, for example, another" to organize the ideas. Another example on this structure is on page 52 where the author talks about the benefits of learning a foreign language, the author moves from one point to another using "also" before each point and "finally" before the last point.
Regarding sequential structures, it appears in 3 texts in the textbook under study. For instance, the author uses the chronological sequence on page 6 to tell the reader about the history of computers. The author uses many signals to guide the reader in his/her reading. Signal words like "first, then, today" have been used in the text to tell the reader about the history of computers from its first invention till today. The author also uses "in" followed by a year seven times to refer to each period. Another example on this structure can be found on page 34, where the text traces the cultural heritage in Jordan since 1966 till now, each cultural activity in the text is preceded by the year in which it was happened.

Compare\contrast and question\answer structures occurred twice with a percentage of 8% each. An example of the comparison structure is on page 14 as there is a comparison between complementary medicine and conventional medical treatment where the author guides the reader to such comparison using signals like "in recent years", "these days" and "whereas". Moreover, the reading text in page 58 is a question and answer structure where the author starts the article by asking two questions followed by more than one answer.

The structures that have minimal representation in the textbook under study are cause\effect and argument structures with 4% each as shown in Table 2. A reading text on page 18 includes signal words like "due to", "as a result" to show the results that Jordanians gained because of Jordan health conditions are the best in the Middle East. Furthermore, the reading text on page 16 is an argument that investigates whether emotions affect one's health or not, the writer of the text argues that this matter is still controversial.

The results revealed that the textbook under study expose students to varied number of text structures but with varying degrees in light of their inclusion namely; descriptive, enumerative, sequential, compare\contrast and question\answer, cause\effect and argument text structures. However, problem\solution structure was not incorporated in the reading passages in the textbook in focus.

Discussion
Based on the findings of the first question, there are a variety of text structure types incorporated in Action Pack 11 and no ignored structures have been scored which means that the twelfth grade students are exposed to different structures distributed in all of the textbook’s units. However, the structures under analysis haven’t been fairly included. For example, the reading passages that have descriptive structure were dominant as it had the highest occurrence across the ten units being analyzed; but students are hardly exposed to problem\solution and compare\contrast structures,
both types have been incorporated only once across the whole analyzed units. With reference to the other structure types like cause\-effect and argument structures, the shortcomings were related to the insufficiency of the reading texts that follow these structures in the textbook in focus, there are two reading passages organized as cause and effect in addition to other reading passages organized argumentatively. Sequential and enumerative structures are satisfactorily included as there are seven occurrences for sequential structures and five concurrences for enumerative structures. Such occurrence enables the students to recognize these structures better in every time. This is in line with many other studies in the field that recommend presenting the reading texts in a specific structure; so that a better comprehension would be attained.

Based on the findings reported in Table 2, Action Pack 12 (SB) includes a variety of structures with different distribution among the units. However, problem\-solution structure had been ignored as it scored no frequency. Generally speaking, the textbook in focus uncovered different structures to twelfth grade students which is very crucial in increasing the comprehension of each text. A shortcoming would be noticed is the inclusion of a particular structure in favor of the other which means that the eight types of text structures are not included fairly. For example, the descriptive structure had the lion share based on the results tallied in the table. All in all, each reading text in Action Pack 12 (SB) has a specific pattern that would facilitate comprehension if it is really recognized by the students and the teachers as well. As learners become aware with the way the texts are structured, they create mental templates that make it easier for them to access future texts that contain the same structures (Lems, Miller, & Soro, 2010).

Pedagogical implications
In the light of the content analyzed data, There are some important implications in teaching text structure as a reading strategy in EFL reading classes (Alkhondi, et al, 2011). Firstly, the teacher should identify the text structure of the text at hands. Then, signal words should be highlighted and emphasized in each text. Also the teacher may elaborate on additional signal words for each text structure telling the students that each structure has specific signal words and phrases. Being familiar with these signal words and phrases, the teacher asks them to find such clues in the structure of every text they read. Then, they may write some short paragraphs and use some of the signal words and phrases appropriate to each text structure.

Teaching reading requires activating the students' schema by their teachers. For example, teachers may help students at pre-reading phase to recall the knowledge that they already have about the topic of a text; because the reader who is not actively using his/her background
knowledge, the process of comprehension fails (Abraham, 2002, P. 6). Moreover, teachers must provide their students with the appropriate schemata that they lack, and must also help them create a match between their existing and new knowledge. Moreover, teachers themselves need to be provided with sufficient training formal or informal to guides them in the systematic utilization of the text structure as a reading strategy aimed at enhancing reading comprehension. In this context, the teacher’s book can play an essential role in providing many examples and guidelines of how to teach reading comprehension based on the organizational structure of the text (Carrell & Floyd, 1987).

Another important point is that the teacher should work with graphic organizers. For the first few lessons of working with graphic organizers, the students should complete graphic organizer before they start working on the text. This will help them create a good image of the hierarchy of ideas and their interrelationships presented in the passage. Once students became familiar with different kinds of graphic organizers, the teacher can give them blank or incomplete graphic organizer after they have finished reading the passage in order to complete it on their own. At this stage, it would be better for the students to work on a blank graphic organizer independently, elicit the ideas from the text, and assign the hierarchy of the ideas in a graphic organizer.

More specifically, the following procedures are put forth for each structure per se. Regarding the **sequential** structure, the purpose is to show how to do something or make something, or to relate a series of events that happen over time, it is also known as time order or temporal order. This structure is organized from one point in time to another; signal words such as first, next, later, after, before, following, then, in addition to, followed by, and finally are included in the text to help the reader understand how events relate to one another. Besides, dates and times are also used if the order is chronological. Another crucial step in teaching text structure is to ask questions that help the students to grasp the structure of any given text. For example, the teacher may ask the following questions about the sequential structure: How are the steps organized? What is the time span from the first event to the last? How does the author signal the change from one event to the next? What do all of the events explain?

To teach **cause\effect** structure; the teacher should at first teach the students the purpose of using this structure that is to show why something exists or things that happen as a result of an action or to show how one or more causes led to one or more effects. This text structure also has a strong time component that the student should recognize since causes come before effects. Signal words such as cause, effect, as a result, consequently, so, so that, because of, since, in order to, are
used in reading texts organized in cause\effect structure; It would be better to remind the students that many texts do not include just one cause leading to one effect; there may be several causes and several effects. The teacher could ask the students some questions about this structure like: What is the cause? What are the effects? Were there several causes and several effects? How did the cause lead to the effects?

In terms of problem\solution structure; the text’s purpose is to present a problem, and show how it can be (or has been) solved. This text structure can be confused with cause and effect so the teacher may highlight the main difference that problem and solution always has a solution, while cause and effect does not. Signal words may include problem, solution, solve, effect, hopeful, concern, challenge, resolve…etc. Critical questions to be asked may be: What is the problem? What are the solutions? Who worked to solve the problem? Has the problem been solved yet, or will it be solved in the future? What caused the problem?

Concerning compare\contrast structure, the teacher should assign the purpose of this structure that is to present how two topics are the same or different. This text structure is considered somehow easy for students to understand. However, the teacher would pay the student's attention to key thing that the text may use a clustered approach, with details about one topic followed by details about the other or it may also show an alternating approach, with the author going back and forth between the two topics. Signal words to be taught may include like, similar, unlike, on the other hand, also, same as, different from, resembles, yet, as well as, alike, however and too. The teacher could ask questions like: what is being compared? what are the similarities? what are the differences? which similarities and differences are the most significant? are the details alternating or clustered?

Furthermore, the descriptive structure can be taught by presenting its purpose. For example, to tell what something is, to present an item’s attributes or properties, to show what an item or place is like. Signal words include any sensory or linguistic cues that help the reader to visualize and understand a topic or to explain the Characteristics of a subject. The teacher may ask questions like: What is being described? how does the author organize the description? which detail is the most important? how do all of the details fit together?

Regarding the argumentative structure, the purpose is to make a claim or a statement and support it with details. This structure attempts to convince or persuade the reader to follow the views or ideas of the author. Signal words include clearly, logically, surely, in conclusion, might, therefore. Important questions would be asked during the class like: what is the key idea or theme
of the text? what is the evidence that support the idea? how did the author develop the argument? are there any opposing views/do you agree with the author’s claim?

Regarding the enumerative structure, the purpose is to identify a main idea followed by examples that are not in a defined order. Signal words include first, second, third, then, also, for instance, for example, to begin with, furthermore, in addition, more importantly, more, next, finally, in fact, at last, another, other, etc. Many questions would be asked by the teacher like: what is the first idea mentioned in the text, what is the last idea? how many examples are in the text?

Finally, the purpose of question\ answer structure is to get information from posing questions and giving answers. Signal words include how, why, where, when, what, who, the question is, the answer is…etc. To acknowledge this structure, important questions would be raised during the class like: what is the answer of the first question? how many questions raised in the text? who asks this question (if any)? is there any question that have many answers?

Conclusions
This study confirms that Action Pack 11 & Action Pack 12 include variety of text structure types. However, the included text structure types are not fairly distributed; some types of text structure are introduced in favor of other types like the descriptive structure which was the most frequent structure in both textbooks. Based on the results of the study, text structure is an important variable that has to be considered in secondary textbooks and teachers should practice teaching reading texts based on a particular structure through series of pedagogical implications

Recommendations
In light of the results of this study, the researchers feel that it is necessary to submit the following recommendations:

1-Book designers should integrate reading texts of varied text structure types without ignoring some structures in favor of others.

2-EFL teachers should be trained to use text structure strategy in EFL reading classes.

3-It is recommended that other research studies about text structure be conducted on earlier stages.
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An Evaluation of “Sunrise 9” from EFL Teachers’ and Students’ Perspectives in Northern Region of Iraq

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Abstract
Textbooks are one of the essential types of materials that are extensively used in English as a second language classroom instruction. The current study tries to evaluate the textbook SUNRISE 9 based on six categories. This study intends to cover how those categories are represented in SUNRISE 9. The categories are the layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject and content and conclusion. The present study aims at answering the questions about SUNRISE 9 from teachers’ and students’ opinions and finding out whether there is a statistically significant difference between the teachers’ and students’ responses with regard to the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook which are used in language classrooms in all basic schools in the Northern Iraq. Two data collection tools were carried out in the current study. The quantitative data were obtained using questionnaire for teachers and students with a total number of 375 9th grade students and 40 9th grade teachers. They were chosen randomly from Sulaimanyah city in the North of Iraq. The qualitative part of the study, semi-structured interviews were held among 13 teachers to gather more necessary data. The findings reveal that the teacher participants have negative opinions towards most of the sections of the textbook and some others have not stated any opinions but the student participants generally have positive opinions about SUNRISE 9. For this English textbook SUNRISE 9, an empirical evaluative study and an in-depth method evaluation are also suggested to be conducted to find out more important results.

Keywords: evaluation, material, material evaluation, textbook, textbook evaluation

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Introduction

A textbook is basically one of the essential types of materials that are extensively used in English as a foreign language or English as a second language classroom instruction. More importantly, a textbook can be seen as the most excellent source for practical users (teachers and students) and also plays a vital role in the process of English Language Teaching.

However, it can be argued that the role of a textbook in classroom instruction is more challenging to be defined. According to Cunningsworth, (1995) a textbook can be seen as a guide in achieving learners’ and teachers’ needs. Cunningsworth (1995) states that “Course books should correspond to the learner’s needs. They should match the aims and objectives of the language-learning program” (p. 35). Furthermore, Allwright (1990) has a different view to defining what a textbook is? He defines textbooks as “resource books for ideas and activities rather than as instructional material” (p. 46).

Ur (1996) claims that a textbook needs to be exemplified; the positive and the negative points should be taken into consideration. Therefore, the content of the textbook might be easy. In this case, the textbook should be substituted by another one or it might need extra sources or further information. On the other hand, it may not be satisfactory for a specific level of learners. Owing to the lack of valuable or meaningful content, it will not be effective to use it in the process of teaching and learning.

Cunningsworth (1995) indicates that “materials evaluation is a complex matter” (p.35) because from the textbook that is going to be used in a specific institution, it can be stated that many different factors affect or determine the success or failure of the textbook. Consequently, a textbook evaluation is unquestionably beneficial in the development of teachers’ and students’ knowledge; it also specifically helps teachers to get a useful and understandable vision of the materials that are going to be used.

Materials Evaluation

Jones (1999) enunciates that “evaluation in LL (Language Learning) and LT (Language Teaching) generally refers to the theoretical or empirical assessment of the curriculum itself and its components from various perspectives: assessment of teacher performance, learner achievement and materials and so on” (p. 21). Furthermore, after selecting the textbook for a particular language learning program, the next stage that should be included is the evaluation. In addition, Tomlinson (2003) states that “materials evaluation is a procedure that involves measuring the value (or potential value) of a set of learning materials” (p. 50).

Moreover, it can be mentioned that evaluation is a thorough and systematic process with regard to the aim and the objectives of the materials which are being used by the learners. Tomlinson (2003) also describes three types of evaluation: (1) pre-use evaluation which focuses on finding out the potential value of the materials, (2) while-use evaluation, which particularly gives a special attention to the learners while using the instructional materials in the classroom setting, and (3) after-use evaluation which is describing and selecting what will happen after using the materials.

Methods of Textbook Evaluation
It becomes essential for the researchers to ascertain which particular methods of textbook evaluation can appropriate for a particular social context in the first place, due to the fact that, there are a lot of methods of textbook evaluation which the experts explicated and illustrated.

McGrath (2002) mentions three types of textbook evaluation methods. The first one is an impressionistic method, which refers to the whole impression of the textbook, and it includes general criteria of the textbook. It does not provide a specific glance at the textbook. The second one is an in-depth method that deals with the detailed or thorough evaluation. It refers to a large-scale of evaluation, and also it deals with some kind of learning and valuable assumptions that the materials are based on. Thirdly, the checklist method, which refers to a set of items, criteria and a list of activities as a discipline to decide the worth of evaluation.

**Arguments and Counter Arguments for Using a Textbook**

To begin with, it can be stated that many studies have been carried out in the ESL and EFL classroom instructions to explain the advantages and disadvantages of using a textbook. On the other hand, one can argue that there is debatable discussion in terms of using a textbook or not in the process of teaching and learning. Whilst there has been an argument for and against using a textbook amongst the experts and researchers, as Grant (1987) states that “the perfect book does not exist” (p. 8). This means it is a difficult task to select a better textbook for a particular group of learners; especially it will be of great importance to try to choose a textbook that meets teachers’ and learners’ needs. It can be stated that amongst the studies that have been conducted in the ELT programs so far, they made known that there are a number of experts supporting the importance of using a textbook and there are some who have counter claims for using a textbook. However, Sheldon (1988) explains that the use of a textbook has three major significant advantages, which are:

1. Developing their own classroom materials is an extremely difficult, arduous process for teachers.
2. Teachers have limited time in which to develop new materials due to the nature of their profession.
3. External pressures restrict many teachers. (p. 25)

Further, Richards (1993) has some positive viewpoints about using the textbook. He asserts that many important resources such as videos, teacher’s book, activity book, and CDs which provide a great chance to the teachers and students in the classroom instructions. It might be difficult and it takes a long time for the teachers to prepare the materials in the process of teaching. This is why a textbook can help teachers to save time and also it can be seen as a helpful way for novice and less experienced teachers as well.

Allwright (1982) sheds light on some issues that make the use of a textbook more problematic. One of them is biases of the authors. This means that the language which is used in the textbook is external language; the students’ level and the language used in the textbook might not be taken into account. On the other hand, it imposes an inflexible way of teaching that may not be preferable in classroom instruction also, it would be a great issue which is not helping and giving an opportunity to the teachers to conduct a new method of teaching.
Criteria for Textbook Evaluation

Textbook evaluation is considered to be the most reliable resource of knowledge in the English language teaching and English as a second language program; additionally, it is doubtlessly a great source of knowledge which provides a clear perception of selecting the most appropriate textbook for classroom settings. Thus, it is not an easy task; according to the researchers, it is a complex matter.

Daoud and Celce-Murcia (1979) present a checklist which includes five main categories: subject matter, vocabulary and structures, exercises, illustrations and physical make-up. They also organize a special section for teachers that contain four main categories: general features, type, and the amount of supplementary exercises for each language skill, methodological/pedagogical guidance, and linguistic background information. The assessment process is based on a 5-point scale: excellent, good, adequate, weak, and totally lacking.

In addition, Griffiths (1995) proposes a list of questionnaires for textbook evaluation. He mentions twelve characteristics of materials which have been used in that process: the match between materials and learner objectives, learner-centered materials, facilitative interactive learning, socio-cultural appropriateness, gender sensitivity, up-to-date materials, well-graded vocabulary and comprehensible input, age-appropriate materials, interesting and visually attractive material, relevance to real life, easy to use material, and ethnocentric material.

International Textbook Analysis Studies

Textbooks play a key role in the English Language Teaching program. They are to be considered as the most beneficial materials for the teachers and students in the classroom settings.

Coskuner (2002) evaluates an ESP textbook ‘English for Business Studies’ at English Language School of Baskent University. The purpose of the study is to find out the strengths and the suitability of the textbook. Teachers’ and students’ questionnaires were carried out on the basis of nine categories as follows: aims and needs of the students studying English, layout and physical appearance, language and readability, design and organization, content and coverage, developing four language skills and communicative abilities, encouraging learner interaction in the classroom, presentation and practice of vocabulary and developing learner autonomy. The participants of the study are 189 students and 10 teachers. The findings indicate that the respondents have positive views towards the layout and physical appearance, language and readability, design and organization, content and coverage, and presentation and practice of vocabulary. The participants think that the developing listening skills amongst the four language skills and developing learner autonomy in studying are not effective.

Textbooks in TESL/TEFL have been evaluated by the authors and researchers in worldwide. Litz (2000) evaluates an English language textbook ‘English Firsthand 2’ at Sung Kyun Kwan University in Suwon, South Korea in 2000-2001. The main significant purpose of this study is to find out the appropriateness and usefulness of the textbook in relation to the university language program. Teachers’ and students’ questionnaires were administered. The questionnaires contain seven categories as follows: practical consideration, layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject and content and conclusion/overall consensus. The results indicate that teachers and students have positive attitudes towards most of the sections in the textbook.
conclude that the textbook is organized clearly and the four language skills in the textbook have been integrated effectively. On the other hand, they claim that the textbook has many shortcomings in which the activities cannot be easily changed and updated and the activities do not promote a sensible practice.

**Textbook Analysis Studies in Iraq**

Textbooks can be seen as one of the most brilliant materials in the teacher’s hands. It can be stated that some practical studies which have been conducted in Iraq. AL-AKRAA (2007) evaluates an EFL textbook ‘Iraq Opportunities 3’. The purpose of this study is to examine the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook on the basis of three criteria: **grammar, vocabulary, and culture**. A survey of the questionnaire is selected and the views of English language teachers and the researcher’s personal evaluation are studied. The results indicate that the grammar rules are clearly explained with examples and all the parts of speech have been explained clearly. Then, in terms of vocabulary items in the textbook, the findings demonstrate that new vocabularies are consecutively repeated to make it easier to learn and they are compatible with the students' abilities. Finally, the results conclude that the textbook has enough clarified that inclines the teachers and students to understand the cultural differences of the targeted language.

Akef (2015) evaluates an English language textbook ‘Iraq Opportunities 6’. The participants of the study are 60 English teachers at public and private intermediate school in Baghdad. The researcher uses a questionnaire which was contained ten categories as follows: **general shape, objectives, content, reading and writing, structure and vocabulary, listening and speaking, teaching aids, general features, background information and methodological guidance**. The purpose of the study is to examine the perceptions of 2nd intermediate English teachers about the suitability of the textbook at public and private intermediate school in Baghdad. The results show that some of the sections of the textbook such as general shape, objectives, content and teaching aids are not conveniently effective. Moreover, the findings demonstrate that the students’ needs are not taken into consideration. Finally, the results report that the contents and subjects of the textbook are not reflecting students’ abilities.

**Research Design**

The research design of the current study is a descriptive study. It describes the teachers’ and students’ opinions. A survey was carried out to obtain the opinions of 9th grade EFL teachers and students in the basic schools in the North of Iraq. Brown & Rogers (2002) claim that “Surveys are any procedures used to gather and describe the characteristics, attitudes, views, opinions and so forth of students, teachers, administrators or any other people who are important to a study”. (p. 142)

**Research Population and Sampling**

Sheldon (1988) states that both teachers and students are the practical users of the textbook; this is why they have to be taken into consideration in the case of textbook evaluation. The participants in this study were 375 ninth grade EFL students and 40 EFL teachers that were chosen randomly in Sulaimanyah city in the North of Iraq. Moreover, with regards to the data which they have been given by the General Directorate of Education of Sulaimanyah city, there are 305 basic schools in Sulaimanyah, but only 82 of them have ninth grade. Thus, in these 82 basic schools, 41
schools have been chosen randomly for this study. Furthermore, the number of the English teachers who are teaching SUNRISE 9 in these 41 basic schools is 81. On the other hand, 1435 students study SUNRISE 9 in these 41 basic schools. Therefore, 40 teachers and 375 (approximately 20% of the population) students, 235 females and 140 males have been chosen as the sample for the present study. The questionnaires were carried out for both teachers and students. Moreover, through conducting interviews with 13 EFL English ninth grade teachers, further data and findings were collected.

Data Collection

Two data collection tools were resorted to in the current study. The teachers’ and students’ opinions on SUNRISE 9 were studied by using a student questionnaire and a teacher questionnaire. Questionnaires and interviews are encompassed in surveys. Furthermore, the questionnaires are the most helpful tool to gather information and data because it is a systematic and organized way to elicit information and data. In addition, it makes the process of evaluation easier and accomplishes the task more effectively. (McGrath, 2002)

Students’ Questionnaire

The students’ questionnaire consisted of 20 items, all of which were taken from the teachers’ questionnaire. Moreover, the statements were given to 375 students who were chosen randomly from 41 basic schools in the North of Iraq. In the students’ questionnaire, the items dealt with five categories which are the layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject and content and conclusion. The responses were selected from a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly disagree, Disagree, Not sure, Agree, Strongly agree”. The questionnaire was translated into student’s mother tongue by the researcher. Then, a language expert analyzed it and minor points that could lead to misunderstandings were corrected. As a next step, it was back-translated into English and controlled by a native speaker of English.

Teachers’ Questionnaire

The teachers’ questionnaires encompassed 40 items, which were addressed to 40 teachers. Furthermore, the statements dealt with five sections, which are the layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject and content and conclusion. The responses were again selected from a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “Strongly disagree, Disagree, Not sure, Agree, Strongly agree”. Moreover, the teachers’ questionnaire was equivocally translated by the researcher. Then, a language expert analyzed it to correct the minor points so that the participants could respond to each item properly. Teachers’ questionnaires used in the current study were selected and adapted from the checklists by Litz (2005), Cunningsworth (1984), Sheldon (1988) Matthews (1985), Breen, Candlin, Williams (1983) and R. Williams (1981).

The Questionnaire Pilot Testing

It is highly significant to mention that, to find out the reliability of both the students’ and teachers’ questionnaire, a pilot testing was conducted with a total number of 190 students that were chosen randomly amongst 375 students that participated in the main study and 20 teachers that were also chosen among 40 teachers that participated in the main study.
Furthermore, it can be stated that the five-point-Likert scale to analyze the data was also carried out with regard to the piloting. Despite the piloting, some of the items have been clarified based on the comments by the students and teachers, but the items were not modified.

Moreover, in this study to find out the reliability of the questionnaires for all of the sections in the questionnaires, Cronbach’s Alpha was calculated to be .856 for the students’ questionnaire. For the teachers’ questionnaire, it was found to be .885. Therefore, we can assume that the questionnaires that we used for the current study are highly reliable.

**Interviews**

In this study, for the qualitative part of the study, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 13 EFL teachers amongst the 40 teachers participants as a better way of gathering the necessary data. Cannell and Kahn (1960) claim that the research interview:

> A two-person conversation initiated by the interviewer for the specific purpose of obtaining research relevant information, and focused on him on content which specified by research objectives of systematic description, prediction or explanation. (p. 45)

Therefore, all the interviews were conducted over a period of time, during which the researcher made repeated visits to the schools to meet with the participants at times as a group if further detail was necessary to obtain the responses from the participants.

Gray (2004) identifies three major reasons to use interviews as the most basic instrument to gather information and data, the reasons are:

1. There is a need to attain highly personalized data.
2. There are opportunities required for probing.
3. A good return rate is important. (p. 214)

Moreover, to analyse the qualitative part which is encompassed in the interviews, a deductive content analysis was employed. It is also significant to mention that a deductive content analysis is studied in a context when the researcher wants to re-examine the present data gathered (Catanzaro, 1988). Moreover, Gulati (2009, p.42) states that “deductive means reasoning from the particular to the general”. It is highly significant for the researcher to use deductive content analysis to elucidate the responses in the interview section so as to be able to obtain and find the results objectively and systematically (Holsti, 1969).

**Data Analysis**

The items in the questionnaires in the current study were all coded into the Statistical Packages for Social Sciences (SPSS). Additionally, to find the results about the teachers’ and students’ opinions, a descriptive statistic has been used. Moreover, to find out whether there is a statistically significant difference between the teachers’ and students’ opinions, Independent T-test sample was administered. More importantly, for the teachers’ textbook evaluation questionnaire and the students’ textbook evaluation questionnaire, Cronbach’s alpha was employed by the researcher as one of the most significant measures for the estimation of the reliability of the questionnaires.
Findings

Section 1: Layout and Design

Table 1 T-test Findings for Section 1: Layout and Design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section 1</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<th>P</th>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.90</td>
<td>1.03280</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>-.097</td>
<td>.923</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>.89677</td>
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</table>

As seen in Table 1, there is not a statistically significant difference between the two groups ($t = -.097$, $df = 413$, $p = .923$ ($p > .05$)). When the mean scores of both groups are compared, (Teachers (Ts) = 2.90, Students (Ss) = 2.91), it can be seen that the two groups have negative opinions and they do not think the layout and design of the textbook are clear and well designed. The two groups have different views towards the organization of the textbook. Teachers believe that the textbook is not conveniently organized. However, students think that ‘the textbook is organized effectively’.

Section 2: Activities

Table 2 T-test Findings for Section 2: Activities

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Section 2</th>
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<td>Activities</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.01</td>
<td>.95567</td>
<td>44.290</td>
<td>1.183</td>
<td>.243</td>
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<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>2.82</td>
<td>.75117</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The T-test findings in Table 2 demonstrate that there is not a statistically significant difference between the two groups ($t = 1.183$, $df = 44.290$, $p = .243$ ($p > .05$)). Considering the mean scores of both groups (Ts = 3.01, Ss = 2.82), it can be concluded that teachers find positive appreciations that the activities in the textbook meet the teachers’ and students’ needs and expectations. On the other hand, the students have negative attitudes in relation to the activities in the textbook. They claim that the activities do not cover enough practicing skills and discussion fields.

The students also state that the activities do not bring about constructing, independent and original answers. The two groups also have similar opinions and they indicate that ‘the activities in the textbook incorporate individual, pair and group work’. In terms of the clarification of the grammar points and vocabulary items, both groups concluded different ideas. Teachers believe that through playing games, songs, and narrating stories, the grammar points, and vocabulary items have been clarified. Nevertheless, the students have stated negative opinions and they claim that the grammar points and vocabulary items have not been explained through games, songs and storytelling.
Section 3: Skills

Table 3 T-test Findings for Section 3: Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section 3</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
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<th>P</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Skills</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.90861</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>-.509</td>
<td>.611</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>.82463</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that in Table 3, there is not a statistically significant difference between the two groups \((t = -.509, df = 413, p = .611 (p > .05))\). The comparison of the mean scores of both groups \((Ts = 3.05, SS = 3.12)\) reveals that the two groups have different opinions towards the language skills of the textbook. Teachers claim that the materials of the textbook focus more on the skills that teachers and students need to improve and practice. On the other hand, students state that the materials of the book do not focus more on the skills that students and teachers like to work upon. Teachers demonstrate that there is not a right balance amongst the four language skills in the textbook (listening, speaking, reading and writing). Nonetheless, the students think that ‘the materials provide an appropriate balance of the four language skills’. The two groups have a different point of view in relation to the sounds and natural pronunciation. Teachers do not think the textbook works on the ‘natural sounds and pronunciation (i.e. Stress and intonation)’. However, the students state that ‘the textbook highlights and practices natural pronunciation (i.e. Stress and intonation)’.

Section 4: Language Type

Table 4 T-test Findings for Section 4: Language Type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section 4</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<th>P</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Language</td>
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<td>Type</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>2.71</td>
<td>.70740</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>-5.223</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>.80751</td>
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Table 4 indicates that there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups \((t = -5.223, df = 413, p = .000 (p < .05))\). Concerning the mean scores of the groups \((Ts = 2.71, Ss = 3.40)\), the majority of the teachers think that the language used in the textbook is not common and it is not compatible with the students' abilities. They explain that the textbook does not work on a specific language that teachers and students want to use. They also indicate that the subjects, grammar points, and vocabulary items are not well organized in the textbook. Nonetheless, the students find positive attitudes towards the language of the textbook. They believe that it is the common English language that is used in the textbook and the language used in the textbook suits the actual level of their English. The students also state that the textbook has worked on a specific language that the students like to further their knowledge in. The students also claim that the subjects, grammar points, and vocabulary items are convincingly clear. The two groups have similar opinions that the grammar topics are clearly and with examples further clarified.
Section 5: Subject and Content

Table 5 T-test Findings for Section 5: Subject and Content

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section 5</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>t</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject and Content</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>.85182</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>-1.255</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>.84608</td>
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</table>

According to Table 5, the mean scores of the two groups reveal that there is not a statistically significant difference between both groups ($t = -1.255$, $df = 413$, $p = .210$ ($p > .05$)). The mean scores of the groups (Ts = 3.08, Ss = 3.25) show that teachers and students have positive attitudes towards the subject and content of the textbook. They claim that ‘the subject and content of the textbook are generally realistic’. The two groups have supported the multitudinous topics in the subject and content of the textbook. Teachers think that the subject and content of the textbook do not match the students’ needs, but the students have stated different opinions. They indicate that the subject and content of the textbook go with the students’ needs like a learner of English Language.

Section 6: Conclusion

Table 6 T-test Findings for Section 6: Conclusion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section 6</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>df</th>
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<th>P</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conclusion</td>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>1.16024</td>
<td>413</td>
<td>.696</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Students</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.14502</td>
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</table>

Table 6 demonstrates that there is not a statistically significant difference between both groups ($t = .696$, $df = 413$, $p = .487$ ($p > .05$)). When the mean scores of the two groups are compared, (Ts = 3.25, Ss = 3.11), it can be seen that the two groups have similar opinions and they think that the textbook increases the students’ desire to learn English. Teachers state that they would choose that textbook again to teach. Nonetheless, the students claim that they would not choose this textbook again to use and study.

Discussion

The findings of the current study have been rigorously achieved from two different opinions of teachers and students. The findings were compared to find the strengths and weaknesses of the textbook *SUNRISE 9*. Therefore, by using the questionnaires and semi-structured interviews, the basic concern of this study is to explain about whether the textbook components such as the *layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject and content and conclusions* meet 9th grade students’ and teachers’ expectations and needs. The findings indicated multitudinous views from both respondents about the textbook in question.
In terms of the layout and design of the textbook, the analyses of the teachers’ and students’ questionnaire findings illustrated that the two groups have similar attitudes and find out that the textbook is not clear and well designed. The different results have been found by Hassan and Ghafor (2014). In their study which has been conducted in the North of Iraq, they found that the layout and design of the textbook are clear. Additionally, the teacher and student participants both have negative opinions in relation to the textbook organization. They stated that the textbook is not organized conveniently and effectively. It can effortlessly be noticed that in the interview findings similar opinions can be found by the majority of the teacher participants. They claimed that the textbook does not meet the teachers’ and students’ expectations in terms of the layout and design.

In terms of the activities in the textbook, teachers and students have different views. The current study demonstrated that the teacher participants have positive ideas and they think that the activities encompass enough time for discussion and meaningful practice. The students, on the other hand, have negative attitudes and they believe that the activities do not cover enough practicing skills and discussion fields. The students also think that the activities cannot encourage the students’ abilities to communicate and use the language properly. On the other hand, the findings showed that the teacher participants have positive views and they believe that ‘the activities incorporate individual, pair and group work’.

The language skill is another section that the present study has gathered data about it. Teachers and students have different opinions. The teacher participants think that there is not a right balance amongst the four language skills in the textbook (speaking, listening, reading and writing). Surprisingly, the different results have been found by Al-Aakraa (2007). Quite the contrary, the students think that there is a right balance amongst the four language skills in the textbook. In the interview findings, similar responses have been given by the majority of the teachers. They claim that the four language skills in the textbook are not at a right level. Some of the language skills are studied more than the others.

In terms of the subject and content of the textbook, the teacher participants think that the subject and the content of the textbook are interesting but they do not go with the student’s needs as an English language learner(s). The same results have been found by Akef (2015). In his study, the teacher participants claim that the contents and subjects of the textbook are not reflecting students’ abilities. Nevertheless, the students have opposite opinions. They explain that ‘the subject and content of the textbook are relevant to the students' needs as an English language learner(s)’. In the interviews, similar findings can be seen by the majority of the teachers. The majority of the interviewees claimed that the subject and the content of the textbook are not at a right level of the students.

**Conclusion**

The research findings show that the teacher participants have negative appreciations towards most of the aspects of the textbook *SUNRISE 9*. The language of the textbook, the grammar points, the layout and design, vocabulary items and the natural sounds and pronunciations can be seen as the most common shortcomings of *SUNRISE 9* by the teacher participants. However, the activities in the textbook can be seen as the strengths section of the textbook by the teacher participants.
The student participants have positive attitudes towards most of the sections of SUNRISE 9 except the activities that the students have difficulties with it. It is necessary to show that the students appeared to have problems with regard to some of the items of the questionnaire because they do not have enough knowledge and information about the English language textbooks. They do not have experience with similar and different types of ELT textbooks.

**About the author:**

Burhan Omar Mahmud was born in Sulaimanyah in 1987. He is a graduate of Sulaimanyah University - College of languages – Department of English Language and Literature (2009). He also has a 'Certificate in Teaching English as a Foreign Language' (TEFL) obtained from London Humanities College (2013). He has an MA degree in English Language Teaching at Gaziantep University in Turkey.

**References**


Appendix A. Teacher Textbook Evaluation Form

**TEACHER TEXTBOOK EVALUATION FORM**

Dear colleagues,

This questionnaire is designed to identify your perceptions about the English Textbook for grade 9th (*Sunrise 9, Grade 9th*) with a range of issues from layout and design, activities, skills, language type, subject and content to conclusion.

Your answers to the questionnaire will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes. Read the statements below and put a tick (√) next to the item which best reflects your perception.

Thanks for your contribution.

BURHAN OMAR MAHMUD

Teacher’s Name (optional):_____________________________________

School: (Optional): ___________________________________

Qualification: Diploma             B.A              B.Ed              M.A             M.Ed

Experience in teaching English: [ ] First year [ ] 2-5 years [ ] More than 5 years [ ] More than 5 years

Arab World English Journal
www.awej.org
ISSN: 2229-9327
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook Evaluation Form</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>A. Layout and Design</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>1. The textbook includes a detailed overview of the functions, structures and vocabulary that will be taught in each unit.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. The layout and design is appropriate and clear.</td>
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<td>3. The textbook is organized effectively.</td>
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<td>4. An adequate vocabulary list or glossary is included.</td>
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<td>5. Adequate review sections and exercises are included.</td>
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<td>6. An adequate set of evaluation quizzes or testing suggestions is included.</td>
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<td>7. The Teacher’s Book contains guidance about how the textbook can be used to the utmost advantage.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8. The materials objectives are apparent to both the teacher and student.</td>
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<td>9. The textbook meets the long and short term goals specific to my learners.</td>
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<td>10. The workbook includes appropriate supplementary activities.</td>
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<td>11. There is an adequate explanation to enable teachers to understand the cultural differences of the target language.</td>
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<td><strong>B. Activities</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>12. The activities encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice.</td>
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<td>13. The activities incorporate individual, pair and group work.</td>
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<td>14. The grammar points and vocabulary items are introduced in motivating and realistic contexts through games, songs and storytelling.</td>
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<td>15. The activities promote creative, original and independent responses.</td>
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<td>16. The tasks are conducive to discovery learning and to the internalization of newly introduced language.</td>
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<td>17. The textbook's activities can be modified or supplemented easily.</td>
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<tr>
<td>18.</td>
<td>There are interactive and task-based activities that require students to use new vocabulary to communicate.</td>
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<tr>
<td>C. Skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>19.</td>
<td>The materials include and focus on the skills that I/my students need to practice.</td>
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<td>20.</td>
<td>The materials provide an appropriate balance of the four language skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>21.</td>
<td>The textbook highlights and practices natural pronunciation (i.e. stress and intonation).</td>
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<tr>
<td>22.</td>
<td>The practice of individual skills is integrated into the practice of other skills.</td>
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<tr>
<td>D. Language Type</td>
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<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>The language used in the textbook is authentic - i.e. like real-life English.</td>
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<td>24.</td>
<td>The language used is at the right level for my (students’) current English ability.</td>
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<td>25.</td>
<td>The progression of grammar points and vocabulary items is appropriate.</td>
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<td>26.</td>
<td>The grammar points are presented with brief and easy examples and explanations.</td>
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<td>27.</td>
<td>The language functions exemplify English that I/my students will be likely to use in the future.</td>
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<td>28.</td>
<td>The language represents a diverse range of registers and accents.</td>
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<td>29.</td>
<td>The new vocabulary words and language structures are repeated in subsequent lessons to reinforce their meaning and use.</td>
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<tr>
<td>E. Subject and Content</td>
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<tr>
<td>30.</td>
<td>The subject and content of the textbook is relevant to my (students’) needs as an English language learner(s).</td>
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<tr>
<td>31.</td>
<td>The subject and content of the textbook is generally realistic.</td>
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<td>32.</td>
<td>The subject and content of the textbook is interesting, challenging and motivating.</td>
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<td>33.</td>
<td>There is sufficient variety in the subject and content of the textbook.</td>
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<td>34.</td>
<td>The materials are not culturally biased and they do not portray any negative stereotypes.</td>
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</table>
35. Students learn about the customs and cultures of English-speaking countries.

36. The textbook is methodologically in line with the current worldwide theories and practices of language learning.

37. Compared to texts for native speakers, the content includes real-life issues that challenge the reader to think critically about his/her worldview.

38. The subject and content of the textbook is designed in accordance with the theory of Multiple Intelligences.

F. Conclusion

39. The textbook raises my (students') interest in further English language study.

40. I would choose to study/teach this textbook again.

Appendix B. Student Textbook Evaluation Form

STUDENT TEXTBOOK EVALUATION FORM

Dear students,
This questionnaire is designed to identify your perception about the English Language Textbook for grade 9th (SUNRISE 9, Grade 9th) you have been using. Your answers to the questionnaire will be kept confidential and used only for research purposes. Read the statements below carefully and put a tick (✓) next to the item which best reflects your perception.

Thanks for your contribution.

BURHAN OMAR MAHMUD

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Textbook Evaluation Form</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Not sure</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
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<tr>
<td>A. Layout and Design</td>
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<tr>
<td>1. The layout and design is appropriate and clear.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. The textbook is organized effectively.</td>
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<td>B. Activities</td>
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<td>3. The activities encourage sufficient communicative and meaningful practice.</td>
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<td>4. The activities incorporate individual, pair and group work.</td>
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<td>5. The grammar points and vocabulary items are introduced in motivating and realistic contexts through games, songs and storytelling.</td>
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### Appendix C. Interview Questions

1. Do the aims of the coursebook correspond closely with the aims in the teaching program and with the needs of learners?
2. Does the course include examples of authentic language and materials?
3. Is the coursebook flexible? Does it allow different teaching and learning styles?
4. Are all four skills (speaking, listening, reading, writing) adequately covered at an appropriate level?
5. What opportunities exist for children to interact using English?
6. What components does the teacher’s book include?
   A. Are there guidelines for evaluating how well lessons went?
   B. Does it explain any methodological issues regarding teaching young learners?
7. What is your overall opinion about the textbook you have been using?
The Role of Vocabulary Knowledge in Speaking Development of Saudi EFL Learners

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Abstract

Speaking in a foreign language is considered to be a challenging aspect of language learning that demands competence and mastery in learning any foreign language. Vocabulary learning verifies to play an important role in oral communication. However, literature lacks the studies where both English as a foreign language (EFL) students and teachers’ views are obtained to provide analyses of the situations in which learners are not showing desired results in speaking. The current study explores the problems of lack of vocabulary that Saudi EFL students face with special focus on their speaking proficiency. It aims to seek EFL teachers’ opinions on the extent to which lack of vocabulary has influence on EFL students’ performance in listening, and conversation classes, and in expressing their ideas and feelings, and especially in speaking skill. A questionnaire was used for the responses from the students and an interview for the teachers to reveal their perceptions about the vocabulary hindrance in speaking skills. 20 EFL instructors and teachers of Preparatory Year Program (PYP) section of a public university and 110 EFL students participated in this study. The analysis of the data showed that both teachers and learners indicated that lack of vocabulary is one of the major factors in students’ inability to speaking English. In the current study, among many other suggestions it is proposed that the inclusion of mobile assisted language learning could be useful way of developing vocabulary for spoken proficiency of Saudi EFL learners.

Keywords: EFL, speaking vocabulary, spoken proficiency

A Study on the Relationship between English Language Proficiency and Intercultural Communication Competence among Arab Students in Malaysia

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Abstract
This study was carried out to evaluate the relationship between English language proficiency (ELP) and intercultural communication competence (ICCC) of Arab students in Malaysia. This study included both of the quantitative and the qualitative data sets to further the information. The participants of this study were 108 Arab students from nine different Asian and African nationalities. Based on the results of this study, English language was the main means of education for the participants, and the main means of their communication with students from other cultures. The results from this study found some significant correlations between the attributes of ELP and ICCC. The good levels of ELP encouraged and enabled individuals to be involved in daily interactions with their peers from different countries who speak different languages, and their interactions helped them to improve the levels of their ELP. Moreover, the participants who obtained higher scores in English language proficiency test got higher mean scores in ICCC as well. Based on the results, in some cases, their personal characteristics and the low levels of their ELP had negative effects on the process of interactions among Arab and other students. The results of this study may add some interesting information in the literature regarding the relationships between ELP and ICCC of Arab students in an Asian multicultural collegiate environment.

Keywords: Arab students, English language proficiency, intercultural communication competence, interpersonal communication competence.

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Introduction
Language is the main means of communication among people from different backgrounds, and communication is the main opportunity that enables them to collaborate, to share their information, and to understand one another so as to establish some social, cultural and professional relationships. Communication is the main carrier that enables different people to share their cultural values, and to establish social relationships (Kim & McKay-Semmler, 2013), and language is the main means of communication among different people (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015). At the same time, Yoshida et al. (2013) introduce language proficiency and communication competence as the main requirements for conducting successful communication among people from different cultures.

Intercultural communication competence refers to the knowledge and abilities enable individuals to think and interact properly in culturally diversified environment, and English language proficiency includes the abilities enable individuals to perform and speak in an acquired and proper language (Aba, 2015; Hammer et al., 2003; Moreno, 2016). Thus, both of intercultural communication competence and English language proficiency may help university students to conduct proper and fruitful interactions with their peers from different cultures. Moreover, communication is essential for the daily lives of students and researchers who stay and study in modern multicultural university campuses which host hundreds of students from different nationalities and cultural backgrounds. As argued by Lin (2011), interactions among individuals enable them to learn, to understand one another and to find their right places in the modern societies.

Moreover, according to the Malaysian Ministry of Higher Education (MOHE) (2012), English language is the main language of instruction at Malaysian universities. Successes of students depend upon the levels of their proficiency in the language of instruction, and being proficient in the language of instruction affects the overall communication and performance of students (Wilkinson, Morrow & Chou, 2008; Malekela; 2003). English language is the main medium of interactions among international students of Malaysian universities. A good level of English language proficiency is among the main predictors of academic adjustments and socio-cultural issues in ever-growing multicultural environments (Yu & Shen, 2012). Zhang et al. (2012) argue that the levels of their English language proficiency affect daily social and professional lives of individuals from various nationalities who stay in multicultural environments. Communication competence and English language proficiency are among the main requirements of employment in multicultural organizations in the Asian countries (Goh & Chan, 1993). Thus, it is important to assess the relationship between English language proficiency and intercultural communication competence among Arab students in Malaysia who are the potential workers of multicultural organizations in the future.

According to Hamilton and Woodward-Kron (2010), because of the complex interlinks among culture, communication and language, foreign language learners should focus on the effects of culture and communication on language utilization. Language proficiency is connected with the levels of self confidence and personal skills (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015). So far, the relationship between the levels of language proficiency and communication competence grabbed the attention of many researchers and scholars to work on these important and interrelated issues. Different
studies in the past have identified English language proficiency as an essential determiner for involvements in the helpful interactions, university related activities and academic success of students (Martin-Beltrán, 2010; Yoon, 2008; Dooley, 2007; Haneda, 2008; Harklau; 2000; Sarwari, Ibrahin & NorAshikin, 2016). As pointed out by Enright (2010), when students prepare themselves to achieve some of their important communicative goals, they must be prepared with good communication competences and linguistic skills.

Interactions among students enable researchers to evaluate the levels of their linguistic abilities and social skills. Understanding of the relationships between linguistic skills and communication competence of students may help scholars and researchers to outline some effective ways for both language learners and communicators in the academic environments. The situation of daily interactions among students helps researchers to know the levels of their skills and abilities (McDermott, 1996). By understanding the social ways that construct proficiency, researchers can find more effective ways for improvement of language learning methods (Martin-Beltrán, 2010). However, the cited assertions of the previous researchers emphasize on the existence of some close relationships between communication competence and linguistic skills. But, for the best of our knowledge, the previous works were mostly conducted in the western parts of the world and under the western context of communication and social and cultural norms. Thus, this study aims to evaluate the relationships between English language proficiency and intercultural communication competence among Arab students from different nationalities in Malaysia.

Theoretical Support
The main theory that guided this study was the Contact Theory of Allport (1954). While daily contacts and communication among people grabbed the attention of many scholars and researchers (e.g. Baker, 1934; Lett, 1945; Williams, 1947) in the early 20th century, Allport had introduced his theory and had pointed out some steps and preconditions for peaceful and successful interactions among different groups and individuals under his Contact Theory. According to the Contact Theory, the process of interactions between groups/individuals from different backgrounds includes the four main steps as: Sheer Contact, Competition, Accommodation, and Assimilation. Based on the said proposed steps which were introduced by Allport (1954) the process of interactions between/among individuals and groups from different backgrounds starts by mere contacts and their involvements in interactions. Then, they struggle to find their right places, accommodate in their places and later integrate with their peers. Eller, Abrams and Gomez (2012) have stated that the Contact Theory of Allport (1954) focuses on the reduction of prejudice and conflicts among individuals through their involvements in the daily interactions.

As language is the means of direct and spoken communication among people, thus the said steps of the Contact Theory of Allport (1954) may have direct and indirect connections with the linguistic skills of communicators. As pointed out, linguistic skills are among the main preconditions for conducting successful interactions, and language has significant effects on the levels of personal abilities and self-confidence of individuals (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015). As the both theories focus on the reduction of anxiety among individuals, the findings of a study in Japan indicated that the promotion of learning of a foreign language is an essential way to cultivate and increase the optimistic attitudes among individuals in an organization (Yamao & Sekiguchi, 2015).
The cited assertions of the above mentioned researchers and scholars indicate the connections between the proposed steps and preconditions of the mentioned theories for successful interactions among people from different backgrounds and the levels of their linguistic and communicative skills.

**Literature Review**

Understanding of how different cultural beliefs and norms may affect the linguistic choices of communicators is essential to have successful direct interactions, especially in a multicultural academic environment (Hamilton & Woodward-Kron, 2010). Intercultural communication competence is the skill that enables communicators to have safe and successful interactions in a multicultural environment (Marron, 2005). Intercultural communication competence is among the essential aspects of social life in the modern societies. According to Reed (2008), intercultural communication competence as a main predictor of intercultural interactions focuses on the understanding of those cultural norms that may influence daily interactions among individuals. The important skills in intercultural interactions among different people are: initiation, the necessary skills to express own feelings and ideas and the abilities to estimate thinking of others, language skills and communication competence, and also logical thinking and mental strength (Yoshida, Yashiro & Suzuki, 2013).

So far, most of the studies on interactions among international students from different countries in multicultural collegiate environment were conducted in the western parts of the world, especially in the United States, which have different social, cultural and communicative norms from Malaysia and other Asian countries (Abdulla, 2008; Abu Bakar and Mustaffa, 2013; Izumi; Sarwari & Nubli, 2017). The differences between social and cultural norms between Arab students from the Middle East and American students had affected their interactions negatively, but their personal efforts helped Arab students to make some friends from the local students and be happy in the new environment (Abdulla, 2008). Reed (2008) based on the results of a study on intercultural interactions among students in Harvard University argued that collegiate environments are important locations for reducing anxieties and promotion of intercultural communication competence among students. As we experience the ever-growing multicultural locations and environments and different cultural norms in our lives, we must carefully evaluate the abilities of communicators in the multicultural settings of communication (Reed, 2008).

The available works on the literature emphasizes on the mutual effects of language skills and communication competences among communicators. As argued by Fallah (2014), the foreign language learners and teachers have to try to improve the levels of motivation and self-confidence among students for their involvements in interactions and try to decrease the level of their anxieties. Kassim and Ali (2010) focus on the usefulness of verbal communication among professionals of engineering field for the Malaysian context of communication. Daily interactions among students illustrate their communicative abilities and social skills, and this opportunity helps them to evaluate their own abilities and improve the levels of their linguistic and social skills. According to Martin-Beltrán (2010), involvements in the daily interactions and language practices show the levels of social and linguistic skill of individuals, and also show the ways that they use language and also the ways that they deal with a discourse situation. Furthermore, the findings from different studies in the past ask the educators to arrange the learning circumstances that
enable students to use language proficiently (Martin-Beltrán, 2010). The findings of a study on impact of linguistic skills in the educational affairs also illustrated that the language proficiency is changing and improving through interactions with other people (Martin-Beltrán, 2010).

It has been identified that the level of English language proficiency is an important factor that influences on the psychological conditions of individuals who are outside of their countries and communities (Zhang, Hong, Takeuchi & Mossakowski, 2012). According to Mui, Kang, Kang and Domanski (2007), people who have limited level of ELP may become suspicious that they are mistreated and victimized because of their low level of language proficiency. They may face problems in the process of their interactions, and also may worry about embarrassment and interpersonal distress which may lead to social isolation and cause negative mental consequences. Moreover, among the different psycho-social elements, discrimination may play an important mediating role to link the low level of ELP and psychological distress (Zhang et al., 2012).

Based on the above mention assertions and findings of the previous researchers, the relationship between the levels of English language proficiency and intercultural communication competence is an interesting issue to be assessed and evaluated.

**Methodology**

This study applied both of the quantitative and qualitative data sets to further the information and strengthen the findings from the quantitative survey thorough the direct views of the participants. The main data set was the quantitative data and the qualitative data were collected to further the information. According to Tashakori and Teddlie (2009), researchers integrate the quantitative and the qualitative data and approaches to answer their research questions well.

**Participants**

Participants of this study were 108 Arab students of a Malaysian public university who were from nine different countries, with their Mean/St. Deviation scores of $M = 96.5, SD = 13$. From all participants, 82 (75.9%) of them were male, and 26 (24.1%) others were female students. Also, from all participants, 63 (58.35%) of them were degree students, and 35 (32.4%) of them were master students, and 10 (9.25%) of them were PhD students. From all participants of the quantitative survey, 10 of them agreed to be interviewed for the qualitative section of this study and were interviewed. All interviews were conducted directly and audio taped.

**Instruments**

The Intercultural Communication Competence Questionnaire (ICCQ) of Matveev (2002) was used to assess intercultural communication competence among the participants of this study. The revised version of ICCQ includes 24 items and all items are designed based on the Likert Scale with five options per item (question) from (Strongly agree) to (Strongly disagree). The ICCQ assesses intercultural communication under five domains which are: Interaction engagement; Interpersonal skills; team effectiveness; cultural uncertainty; and cultural empathy. The Language Experience and Proficiency Questionnaire (LEAP-Q) of Marian, Blumenfeld and Kaushanskaya (2007) was used to assess the levels of English language proficiency of the participants. The revised version of LEAP-Q has 17 items with five options per item and designed based on the Likert scale. The LEAP-Q assesses English language proficiency under five domains, which are:
Acquisition history; contexts of acquisition; present language use; language preference and proficiency ratings; and accent ratings. The language preference and proficiency ratings domain include the reading, understanding, speaking, and writing attributes.

At the same time, the recorded scores of the participants for the International English Language Test (IELTS) and the English Proficiency Test (EPT), which applies the same regulations and scoring system as IELTS, were recorded through the documentary review process. The IELTS/ EPT scoring range of 5.0 and above is among the main requirements for master students and the scoring range of 6.0 and above is for PhD students to be enrolled at Malaysian public universities. The Cronbach’s alpha rating for the ICCQ was .85, and for the LEAP-Q was .73. Prior to the main data collection procedure, the questionnaire was checked through a pilot study. The instrument for the qualitative section of this study was an interview protocol which included 8 open-ended interview questions.

**Data Analyses Procedure**

The quantitative data were analyzed through the essential tests of SPSS. The descriptive test was applied to find out the frequencies and percentages and the bivariate correlation test was conducted to find out the probable correlations between the attributes of ICC and ELP. For the qualitative data analyses, the constant and comparison method which was introduced by Glasser and Strauss (1967) was used. Under this method, all interviews were transcribed, divided and categorized under the research questions and research themes, and also the newly emerged themes.

**Findings**

**Quantitative Findings**

The descriptive test of SPSS was applied to find out the frequencies and percentages of answers of participants and the Mean and SD scores for the different categories. Based on the results of the descriptive test, the Mean and SD scores for all participants for the ICCQ items were $M = 76.9$, $SD = 6.3$, and their overall $M/SD$ scores for all items of the LEAP-Q together were $M = 51.7$, $SD = 4.2$. The given mean scores for both of the ICCQ and LEAP-Q are above the average mean scores. According to the results from the documentary review of the recorded scores of the participants for the IELTS/ EPT, from all 128 participants the IELTS/ EPT of 52 (40.6%) of them were under the category of 5.0-5.5, from all participants 55 (43%) of them were under the category of 6.0, and the scores of 20 (15.4%) of them were under the category of 6.5-7.0 and above. The overall $M/SD$ scores of 52 participants, who were under the IELTS/EPT scoring category of 5.0-5.5, for intercultural communication competence items were $M = 73.8$, $SD = 6.4$, the scores of 55 participants, who were under the category of 6.0, were $M = 81.2$, $SD = 6.1$, and for 6.5-7.0 and above category the $M/SD$ scores were $M = 78.4$, $SD = 6$.

Based on the descriptive results for the LEAP-Q, all (128) participants of this study have reported that they have used the English language as the main means of their daily interactions with students from other nationalities. Moreover, from all of them, 64 (50%) of the participants reported that they had more than 60% of their daily interactions with students from other countries rather than people from their own countries, and they have used English language for their interactions. Moreover, 68 (53.1%) of the participants reported that they understood almost all parts of the conversations when talking with students from different nationalities, and 89 (69.5%)
of them reported that they were satisfied during their interactions when using the English language as the main means of their contacts.

The bivariate correlation test of SPSS was applied to find out the relationships between the items and variables. Based on the results, there were some significant correlations between the categories of IELTS/EPT scores and ICCQ attributes, and also between the attributes of ICCQ and LEAP-Q. Table 1 below includes the results for the bivariate correlation test.

Table 1: Illustrates correlations between the attributes of IPCC and ELP

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable/Attribute</th>
<th>1</th>
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<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- IELTS score</td>
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<td>2- Initiation</td>
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<td>0.298</td>
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<td>3- Negative assertion</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.551</td>
<td>0.324</td>
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<td>4- Disclosure</td>
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<td>0.355</td>
<td>0.249</td>
<td>0.480</td>
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<td>5- Emotional support</td>
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<td>0.463</td>
<td>0.612</td>
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<td>6- Conflict management</td>
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<td>0.370</td>
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<td>7- Acquisition history</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.359</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.415</td>
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<tr>
<td>8- Contexts of acquisition</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.294</td>
<td>0.243</td>
<td>0.348</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.435</td>
<td>0.513</td>
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<tr>
<td>9- Present language use</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.322</td>
<td>0.421</td>
<td></td>
<td>-0.266</td>
<td></td>
<td>0.494</td>
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<tr>
<td>10- Proficiency ratings</td>
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<td></td>
<td>0.541</td>
<td>0.472</td>
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<td>11- Accent ratings</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>-0.204</td>
<td>0.253</td>
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</table>

Qualitative Findings
The qualitative section of this study includes the findings from the interviews of 10 interviewees who were from 9 different countries. Based on Glasser and Strauss (1967) constant and comparison data analyses method, all interviews were transcribed and divided and categorized based on the research themes. The interviewees of this study were 1) a PhD male student from Iraq, 2) a master male student from Algeria, 3) a PhD male student from Egypt, 4) a degree female student from
Iraq, 5) a degree female student from Syria, 6) a master female student from Oman, 7) a degree
male student from Yemen, 8) a master male student from Sudan, 9) a PhD male student from
Libya, and 10) a PhD male student from Algeria. To prevent the use of personal identification of
the participants of this section, they were coded as P1 for (Participant number one) and instead of
their information, the given number will be used in the upcoming paragraphs. The results from all
interviews were categorized under the three main themes which are 1) interaction engagement and
the levels of ELP and ICC among participants of this study, 2) mutual effects of the levels of ELP
and ICC on each other, and 3) the effects of intercultural communication among students on their
personal and academic lives.

Based on results from the answers of all 10 interviewees, all of them used English language
as the main medium of their interactions with their peers from different cultures. Based on the
results from the answers of the interviewees, the levels of their English language proficiency and
intercultural communication competence had mutual effects on each other. The qualitative
findings from the answers of the interviewees are categorized under the three categories as below:

**Interaction engagement and the levels of ELP and ICC among participants**

Based on the answers of the vast majority of the interviewees of this study, because of their stay
and study in a multicultural university campus, they have improved the levels of their linguistic
and communicative skills and were happy to stay and study in a multicultural campus. For
example, as P6 stated that “At first when came to Malaysia, I was not able to communicate with
other students properly, but because of my daily practices now my English language is also good
and I can easily interact with students from different nationalities.” P1 said that “I do not care of
the social and cultural differences among university students and I do not have any problem to
have communication with people from other countries.” At the same time, P7 stated that “I have
daily interactions with students from different countries and almost all of my friends are from other
countries, but I am a little shy when interacting with female students and sometimes my main
problem to interact with other students is the linguistic issues.” P10 asserted that “As we are out
of our homelands and hometowns and are studying at an international university, thus one of the
main interesting points of oversees study is to communicate with people from different cultures
and nationalities and make some friends from them. Now, I am good enough to have
communication with people from different countries.” Based on the answers and statements of the
above mentioned interviewees, their daily interactions were helpful for them, and some of them
were in a good communicative situation and also had a good level of ELP to communicate easily.
In some cases, their personal characteristics could affect their daily interactions as well.

**Mutual effects of the levels of ELP and ICC on each other**

Based on the answers of most of the interviewees, daily interactions among students from different
cultural backgrounds and the level of their ELP had important mutual effects on each other. Their
good level of ELP helped students to have more and successful interactions and their daily
interactions helped them to improve the level of their ELP. As pointed out by P9 “I am quite a
social person and am always in contact with my friends and fellow researchers from different
countries. Initially, when I joined this university, I was not able to speak and understand English
language well, but my interactions with other students help me to improve my English language
and now I have no problem talking with anyone.” Also, P7 said that “As the main means of our
education is English language, thus the level of my ELP is good but as I didn’t have any experience to stay in any multicultural environment before coming to this country, but now I can interact with other students.” P8 had to say that “As I come from a different environment, thus when I joined this university, I have learnt both how to speak English language when talking with different people and to interact with people from different countries.” At the same time, P6 asserted that “When we are in our [Arab] countries, we learn English language and spent many years to learn it. But we do not have enough opportunities to practise spoken English language with foreigners, and when we move to a foreign country and join an international university, we can find some opportunities to interact with different people and improve our spoken English language, but still I wait for other students to start the communication process.” Based on the mentioned answers and assertions of the interviewees, the levels of ELP and daily interactions among them had significant effects on each other.

The effects of intercultural communication among students on their personal and academic lives

According the participants’ responses of the qualitative section of this study, their daily intercultural communication had some important effects on their social and academic lives. For example, P2 had to say that “When I was in my country, I had different ideas and assumptions about the Asian people and Asian countries. But, when I came to this university and lived on a multicultural campus, I learn many new things from my interactions with students. I have gained many useful skills and information and become aware of the realities among Asian people. Also, my interactions help me to easily do my academic tasks and assignments.” P4 also stated that “I had very limited level of information about people from different countries. But, when I joined this university and stayed here for around three years in a campus with students from different countries.” P6 also said that “My stay and study at an international university in Malaysia helped me to know how to interact with different people and improve my English language proficiency through my daily interactions with other students, but still English language is the main factor that affects my interactions negatively.” The answers and ideas of the interviewees are supportive of the positive effects of their daily interactions with their peers from different nationalities on their social and academic lives.

Discussion and Recommendations

Communication is the main transporter of culture and social relationships, and communication competence and language proficiency are the main requirements enable individuals to conduct successful communication (Kim & McKay-Semmler, 2013; Yoshida et al., 2013). Thus, this study was carried to assess the relationship between English language proficiency (ELP) and intercultural communication competence (ICCC) among Arab students from different nationalities in Malaysia. The main language of instruction in the Malaysian public universities is English language (MOHE, 2012), and based on the results from this study, English language was the main medium of interactions among the participants of this study. Based on the results, their involvements in interactions with their peers from different cultures and the use of English language as the main means of their communication helped the participants to improve both of their ELP and ICCC.

As argued by Hamilton & Woodward-Kron (2010), the complicated relationships among language, communication and culture ask researchers to focus on the probable mutual effects of
culture, communication and language on one another. The results from this study also confirmed that the levels of English language proficiency and intercultural communication competence of the participants had mutual effects on each other, and there were some significant correlations between the main attributes and domains of ELP and ICC of the participants. As pointed out, intercultural communication competence helps individuals to conduct proper interactions in a multicultural environment. At the same time, English language proficiency enables individuals to perform proper language and language is the means of communication (Aba, 2015; Moreno, 2016; Yoshida et al., 2013). The findings from this study are supportive of the cited assertions on the relationship between communication competence and language proficiency. However, there were some negative correlations between the personal language use attribute of ELP and the team effectiveness attribute of ICC, and between the accent ratings attribute of ELP and the cultural uncertainty attribute of ICC. It means that, the ways people perform language and use different accents affect their intercultural skills and team effectiveness abilities. This finding was supported by the qualitative results as well.

Moreover, the results from this study confirmed the existence of some significant correlations between the attributes and domains of English language proficiency and intercultural communication competence of the participants. Based on the results, the participants with higher scores in ELP got higher mean scores in ICC as well. It means that their good levels of ELP helped the participants to be more competent in intercultural communication. Their interactions helped the participants to improve both of their ELP and ICC and to conduct successful interactions with their peers from different nationalities. These findings are supportive of the argument of Martin-Beltrán (2010) on the effectiveness of daily interactions among university students on the improvement of their linguistic abilities.

The qualitative findings also confirmed that, the levels of English language proficiency and daily intercultural interactions of the participants had mutual effects on each other. Based the qualitative results, their personal characteristics and their low levels of their ELP could affect the process of interactions among Arab and other students negatively. At the same time, their good levels of English language proficiency helped the participants to have more interactions with other international students and their frequent interactions helped them to gain more social, cultural and linguistic skills. Based on the qualitative findings, students with good linguistic skills were more active and happier at the university campus. According to Zhang et al. (2012), their good linguistic skills help students to deal with the environmental and social challenges and students who have good linguistic skills are more flexible in multicultural collegiate environments. The quoted assertion is supportive of the above mentioned findings from this study.

Based on the results of a study at Harvard University, Reed (2008) argued that university environment is the main location for students to gain some new essential skills and reduce the levels of their anxiety. The answers of the interviewees of this study also have confirmed that their daily interactions and conversations among had significant impacts on their personal and professional lives. Their interactions and conversations enabled the participants to gain some useful social and cultural information about other people and to improve their intercultural communication competence. Their talks and interactions with their peers from different backgrounds also helped the participants to know the different ways of oral communication and
understand the accents used by people from different countries. Through their daily talks and contacts, they also learned some new strategies to deal with the different levels and circumstances of linguistic challenges. At the same time, their daily talks and interactions with people from different countries gave some positive skills and ideas for them to look for some multicultural organizations after their graduation, and to find self-confidence towards shifting and working outside of their countries. The findings of this study are almost new for an Asian context of communication and may be interesting and helpful for university students and managing bodies of universities, and also for the future researchers as well.

**Recommendations**

In the ever-growing aspect of internationalization of higher education and increase of the number of multicultural collegiate environments and multicultural organizations in the world, the relationships between linguistic skills, communication among people from different backgrounds, and successes of the employers and employees will remain among the essential and interesting issues in the future. Thus, researchers in the future can focus on the impacts of daily interactions among students, and/or among employees from different social and cultural backgrounds and their social and linguistic skills on the success of organizations in the process of their globalization. Researchers in the future can also focus on the effects of personal characteristics of students and individuals on the levels of their linguistic skills and communication competence.

**Conclusion**

This study was carried out to evaluate the relationship between the levels of English language proficiency and intercultural communication competence among Arab students in a Malaysian collegiate environment. The results from this study confirmed that the participants of this study used English language as the main means of their daily interactions when interacting with their peers from various cultural backgrounds. Based on the results, the levels of English language proficiency and intercultural communication competence of the participants had significant relationship and influenced each other to be improved. According to the findings, the participants who possessed a good level of English language proficiency had more fruitful interactions and got higher mean scores in intercultural communication competence. At the same time, those participants who had more interactions have gained some new and essential social skills and improved the levels of their linguistic skills. Moreover, the results indicated that their personal characteristics and the levels of their ELP are among the main factor that affect interactions among Arab students and their peers from different cultures and countries. The results of this study may encourage university students to choose multicultural university campuses and be involved in the daily contacts and conversations with students from other nationalities to improve both of their English language proficiency and intercultural communication competence.

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Technology-Supported Online Writing: An Overview of Six Major Web 2.0 Tools for Collaborative-Online Writing

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Abstract
The emergent of the internet and the rapid development of information and communication technologies (ICT) envisaged a system capable of quickly transforming and modernizing the teaching and learning processes. The 21st century Web 2.0 technologies, such as Edmodo, Google docs, Zoho writer, Blogs, Wikis, and Facebook can be used in blended or virtually online learning classes, forums or courses. They play significant roles in promoting mutual interaction, collaborative platforms for communication and learning among people. This paper aims to give an overview of six major webs 2.0 technologies most capable of providing online writing in blended or virtual online classrooms. It was found that despite the enormous applications of Web 2.0 technologies in education, they are not formally enacted as part of the educational curriculum, though, they are widely considered as techniques that aid learning or used for social interaction purposes per se.

Keywords: Blended learning class, collaborative learning, online writing, Web 2.0 technologies, and Web-facilitated class

1. Introduction

The application of technological tools in the fields of teaching and learning brings profound changes and intense transformations in the education system and facilitates the ways of learning interaction between teachers and students or between students and their peers. Moreover, different acronyms emerged in applied linguistics literature referring to the application of computer in language teaching and learning which historically started in the late 1950s to date, such as ‘computer-assisted language learning’ (CALL), ‘computer-assisted language teaching’ (CALT), ‘computer assisted language instruction’ (CALI), computer-assisted language testing’, ‘intelligent computer-assisted language learning’ (ICALL), computer-mediated communication’ (CMC), ‘technology-enhanced language learning’ (TELL), and ‘Web-Enhanced Language Learning’ (WELL). The last term is reference to applications of internet and other social-media sites to enhance or support language learning (Beatty, 2013, Warschauer, & Healey, 1998; Chappelle & Douglas 2006; & Higgins, 1995). By the same token, the title of the present study ‘technology-supported online writing’ suggests the application of web technologies in teaching and learning writing online.

In this case as Westwood (2008) claims that writing is no longer a paper-based activity, but it also involves a richer media such as multimedia platforms. Consequently, both teachers and learners use various social media sites as well as other technological tools invented in 21st-century which play essential roles directly or indirectly in the educational system. Moreover, with recent developments in information and communication technologies (ICT) have led teachers to create contemporary learning environment modernizing current teaching techniques, materials, methods as well as assessment tools (Ekmekçi, 2016). The pedagogical purpose of using technology in modern day classrooms is to enable students to acquire the skills that are required in modern-day academic life and digital world as well as future career. Apart of this, the use of modern technology in today's classroom can boost the learners critical thinking and analytic skills that are needed purposely for promoting thinking and skills of students by self-development (Ismael & Al-Badi, 2014).

The beginning of 21st century marked noticeable changes in the internet whereas it used to facilitate learning. According to Klobas (2006) Anne Clyde is one of the pioneers of using internet for virtual collaborative learning. “The World Wide Web-based services enabled people not just to read what was on the Web, but also to write to the Web, reached a critical mass, and new terms were coined to describe this new phenomenon (p.11)”. With the application of web-based technologies (Web 2.0) to education, students become more interactive and learning focused on more student-centered. Thus, students’ dependence on the teachers is reduced drastically. The philosophical goal of web-based (Web 2.0) technologies is to offer an effective learning environment for students by means of collaborative learning which then increase their academic performance (Su & Cheng, 2015).

Several studies pinpoint some benefit of using technological inventions especially those that are referred to Web 2.0 technologies. Some studies postulate 2.0 tools of having many advantages of utilizing the Internet for giving more grounded inspiration to learning among learners. The Internet permits cost-effective information services, blended or collaborative learning, more than has ever been imagined (Teehan, 2010; Woods, & Thoeny, 2011).
2. Online Writing

Writing is one of the demanding language skills that require a high linguistic knowledge and grammatical background. The intricate nature of writing is that it is seen as ‘a process as well as a product’ which requires creativity, concentration, and determination from the writers (Connally, 2013). Writing especially by second language learners (L2) writing is viewed as very difficult skill to learn by L2 learners, which requires for systematic and comprehensive writing instruction (Langan, 2013; & Casanave, 2013). Studies of skilled writers illustrate well the complexity of the writing process (McCutchen, 2011). Learners are required to address content, organization, structure, and mechanics appropriately to convey meaning through writing simultaneously (Lee & Lee, 2013).

Online writing is part of online language learning (OLL). This can take place in Web-facilitated, hybrid, or fully virtual. The term online language learning (OLL) can refer to a number of learning arrangements: a Web-facilitated class, a blended or hybrid course, a fully virtual or online course. These are new language learning environment with online instruction delivery formats, along with the mix of the technological tools employed therein, overlap in many cases with the differences in nomenclature having more to do with the percentage of content that is delivered online (Blake, 2011). There is increasing evidence that technology, when properly infused and integrated into teaching and learning, has a significant positive effect on students learning process (Solomon & Schrum, 2007).

In the research context, information and communications technology (ICT) seems to be able to provide a cyberspace to conduct alternative writing instructions overcoming the restrictions of curriculum, syllabus, session times, and classroom interactions (Tai, Pan, & Lee, 2015). The American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Language (ACTFL, 2013) noted that technology has been used to both assist and enhance language learning. It is now rare to find a language class that does not use some form of technology (Parvin & Salam, 2015).

3. Web 2.0 Tools Used for Collaborative-Online Learning

Internet in the 21st century witnessed virtual changes with the rapid development of Social websites. Various terms are used researchers referring to social website tools supported learning such as learning management systems (LMSs), web 2.0 technologies, virtual learning environment (VLE) or course management systems (CMS), collaborative learning and blended learning classroom (Conradie, Moller, & Faleni, 2015; Ekmekci, 2016). In its broadest sense, social websites include any software tool that supports group interaction or collaborative platform for a group of users (Woods & Thoeny, 2011).

The common thing social software share is that they are tools that facilitate social interaction, collaboration and information exchange, group or mass communication. They also provide online social communities for small or large groups of users (Klobas, 2006). Meanwhile, collaborative learning is the mutual transformation process of individual internal cognition and social interaction (Li, 2014). The idea of collaborative learning is centered on Vygotsky’s (1960) socio-cultural approach which viewed learning as social interaction and knowledge co-construction (Wegerif, 2006). It seems to be an established procedure for proposing classes at University and the expansion of online activities induced a reflection on the best practices and
tools to be used during the e-learning classes (Hou & Wu, 2011). Such sites allow multi-users to publish share ideas, edit texts, or amend various ideas, debate, comment, on a post, negotiate or construct deep understanding concerning some phenomena (Yücel & Usluel, 2016).

The term Web 2.0 is ‘is the new generation of the Internet’ (Teehan, 2010) perhaps the most frequently used of web-based supported learning terms. It comprises all web platforms used by people to connect online make a collaborative participation (Kosalge, 2017). The term web 2.0 was first introduced by a team headed by Tim O’Reilly to mark that transitional stage of web-based technologies in the sense of advancement and transformation of web-tools and development of new social sites (Klobas, 2006; Woods & Thoeny, 2011; Ekmekci, 2016). The most frequently cited web 2.0 tools classified as social collaborative learning systems include Google docs, blogs, wikis, Facebook, and Edmodo, and Zoho (Klobas, 2006; Teehan, 2010; Woods, & Thoeny, 2011).

On the other hand, the term ‘online learning’ is an established procedure for proposing classes at University and the expansion of online activities induced a reflection on the best practices and tools to be used during the e-learning classes (Hou & Wu, 2011; Yücel & Usluel, 2016). Collaborative and cooperative didactic methods were tested and considered optimal for delivering courses (Parvin & Salam, 2015).

Furthermore, various researchers adopt the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) to investigate the effectiveness of web 2.0 technologies. The UTAUT is a useful framework that can be used to gauge information to the appropriateness and behavioral intention to use technological tools. Study of Venkatesh, Morris, Davis, and Davis (2003) using UTAUT indicates that majority of the participants showed behavioral intention to use technology.

3.1 **Edmodo as a Tool facilitating Online Collaborative Writing**

Edmodo is a free and secure learning platform designed by Jeff O’ Hara and Nick Borg in 2008 for teachers, students, parents, schools, and districts, and is available at www.edmodo.com (Chada Kongcham, 2013). Edmodo is a form of web-based social learning application for teachers and students (Halm et al., 2012) commonly called ‘Facebook’ for the higher education, this is because its environment and features look similar to Facebook, but is much more private and safe because it allows teachers to create and manage accounts and only for their students, who receive a group code and register in the group, can access and join the group; no one else can participate or spy on the group (Jarc, 2010). Ekmekci (2016) defines Edmodo as an alternative assessment tool is embedded in a learning management system (LMS) called Edmodo which is a user-friendly and popular platform. The next section focuses on learning management systems in general and then Edmodo as an assessment tool is presented. The site provides a simple way for teachers and students in a virtual class to connect and collaborate (Cauley, 2012; Zain et al., 2016).

Concerning the interface of Edmodo is somewhat similar to Facebook. This enables the users of Edmodo to create a sense of familiarity among them. It is easy to use since most students have a Facebook account and to ensure that it is user-friendly. However, the difference between Edmodo and different SNSs is it is a social platform that allows for collaborative learning, whereas the students, facilitators, and parents, as well as guardians, can work together to convey or share content, get to homework and view grades. The greatest favorable position of Edmodo contrasted
with different SNSs is that it has the essential parts designed pedagogically for academic assessment and evaluation of students progressive achievement in learning tasks, for example, Quiz, Assignment, Poll, and so on. These features will truly aid learning by the group of people who were collected online when they are far from the grounds. Thus, they supported distance learning by the group of learners or blended class where students will still connect together when they back home to do some assignments or workout some learning task. Other than that, guardians can likewise see their kids' academic advance when the guardians sign in. With respect to the educator, they can get the measurements of appraisal promptly consequently decreasing their chance taken on the off chance that they needed to figure it physically. Borg and O'Hara trusted that a person to person communication adapted towards the requirements of understudies could profoundly affect how understudies team up and learn in their reality, as opposed to the school setting their educators experienced childhood in (Gushiken, 2013). Instructors have noticed that Edmodo even fortified the connections amongst understudies, and prompted a more grounded classroom group (Mills, 2011).

Learners can collaboratively share content, do the assignment together or submit their homework online. In addition, they can partake in quizzes or tests online whereas their facilitators can give instant feedback to learners. Other features of Edmodo include notes giving, alerts and polls for voting (Jarc, 2010). Therefore Edmodo can be seen as one of the famous web 2.0 tools, which is easy to use by learners and simple to set up by teachers or facilitators to manage online collaborative classes (Witherspoon, 2011).

Furthermore, the American Association of School Librarians in 2011 has recognized among the top 25 web 2.0 that aided collaborative learning as well as fostering the qualities of innovation and creativity in learning (Habley, 2011). These tools are in the category entitled “Social Networking and Communication” (Habley, 2011). Edmodo has more than 6.5 million users and hosts online conferences entitled Edmodo.com with thousands of participants (Flanigan, 2011).

3.2 Blog as a Tool Facilitating Online Collaborative Writing

A blog is a short form of web-blog. It is a social networking service and general informational site published on the World Wide Web which consists of discrete entries classically displayed in reverse chronological order. The blog is an asynchronous Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) from the family of Web 2.0 technologies, a very useful tool for teaching online writing (Karlsson, 2015).

The rudimentary system and emergence of Blogs began in the late 1990s and widely used in the 21st century, which coincides with the advent of web publishing tools that aid the posting of content by non-technical users. The blog provides an interactive forum for users that leave comments and share messages (Boyd, 2006). Hajiannejad (2013) posits that blogs allow learners to share their personal thoughts and ideas, and to meet and interact with people around the world. Learners are exposed to authentic uses of the language, stimulating and challenging them in ways that traditional classroom experiences cannot. However, Blog remains primarily a form of the collaborative platform where the software supports communication from one author to many readers (Klobas, 2006).
In an effort to provide an effective avenue for learning EFL via online writing, Bakar and Ismail (2009) studied the effectiveness of blogs in developing students' ability to write constructively. They found that students had positive attitudes about blogging and that social interaction helped students improve their writing skills. The students' level of proficiency in English was intermediate with some basic knowledge of computer skills. The students created their group blog and began the discussion in class. In order to participate in the discussion, they collected information from the Internet. The study questionnaires were distributed at the end of the semester.

3.3 Google Docs as a Tool Facilitating Online Collaborative Writing

Google Docs is a free web-based tool that looks like an online version of Microsoft Word that offers collaborative features which can be used to facilitate online collaborative writing. Blau, and Caspi (2009) state that Google Docs is another digital tool that includes the functions of blogs and wikis. It is a free web-based tool offered by Google that combines features of word processor and spreadsheet, presentation, form, and data storage service (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014). It enables users to create, edit and store their documents online (Thompson, 2008). Meanwhile, it provides an extensive revision history of document edition which can help users to view documents as it appears over a time. An author can choose to revert to an earlier version. The Google Docs application permits access from any personal computer (PC) and facilitates the capacity to work together by offering a report to others as watchers or associates, or by distributing it on the web (Conner, 2008).

Moreover, Google Docs as web-based tool categorized under web 2.0 technologies, is very easy and fast to develop. It is a well-suited tool that can facilitate online collaborative writing that combines peer editing with cooperative grouping and small group. Sharp (2009) construes that the collaborative editing tools allow for collective editing of a document simultaneously by individuals while they can see the changes made by others in real time. This special feature of Google Docs makes ‘a powerful program’ that can aid collaborative writing especially, in the language learning classes. It is important as the learners can share documents and keep them online, that can be accessed anytime. Chinnery (2008) posits that Google Docs is a productive web 2.0 technology that offers a productive design of learning activities in creatively collaborative context. For instance, an instructor might post a text, intentionally replete with errors requiring his or her students to correct. On the other hand, students can easily collaborate to edit or peer-edit their writing using annotation bottom called ‘editing trail’ in Google Docs. Another editing feature in Google Docs is called ‘chain storytelling’, it is a special feature that allows for collaborative construction of story initiated by the teacher or facilitator whereas each learner will be asked to contribute in completing the story. Thus, we can say that Google Docs allows learners to work together on a common task without restrictions they are imposed in a traditional face-to-face contact (Conner, 2008; Perron & Sellers, 2011).

Furthermore, Google Docs is a web-based learning tool which helps to implement the learner-centered approach in a collaborative learning environment. In the same token to Wikis, Google Docs empowers collaborative learning which allows for peer editing of documents an archive composed by different users, and by proposing changes through remark composing, without altering with the content of the document (Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014). As Oxnevad (2013) states that document sharing using Google Docs provide students with opportunities to
receive immediate feedback. Meanwhile, learners can collaboratively create online materials that reflect what they have learned previously and their current learning experience by demonstrating associations between their previous knowledge, the course content, and their own encounters.

Since Google Docs is put away on the web, learners can work at school and at home from any PC with an Internet association, and they will probably return to their work in the event that they know another person will remark on it. To embed a remark, learners simply show some content in the body of the report and the remark will show up on the correct side of the page. At that point, they can tap on any remark and watch the featured content in the report change color to quickly pinpoint the suggested revision. Comments are smart and they disappear after the issue has been addressed by the author so students feel a sense of accomplishment as they work their way through the suggestions of their peers. In addition, Google Docs provides support for collaboration in real time so students and teachers can have a virtual mini-conference about the work in front of them from any location if the timing is right.

Again Google Docs allows for synchronous changing and remark composing and spares variants of the record, choices that bear the cost of collaborative learning. The Educational Edition of Google Apps is free; it was assembled particularly for schools, colleges, and charitable associations, and does not require downloading new programming or purchasing equipment (Oishi, 2007). Sharing substance utilizing the application is extremely straightforward, may encourage joint effort, permits peer audit of scholastic materials, and bears aggregate age of information (Blau, & Caspi, 2009).

3.4 Zoho Writer as a Tool Facilitating Online Collaborative Writing
Zoho Writer is Web-based office productivity application categorized as one of the popular web 2.0 technologies based on word processing tools. Zoho Writer is another web 2.0 technology introduces by Chinese based technology which ‘enable multiple users to collaboratively edit the same document stored on a Web server synchronously with nothing but a Web browser at any time from anywhere’ (Shen & Sun, 2011). Godwin-Jones (2008) describes Zoho Writer as is a web-based tool that enables editing, documenting and assessing writing online. It offers automatic production of online text, document templates, and direct blog posting from within the editor. In fact, most of the editors are specifically designed for creating posts to blogs or social networking sites. Zoho Corporation provides free Wiki service to support the full performance of potential value of collaborative learning (Li, 2014). The editable features of Zoho Writer provide learning efficiency to learners more than the traditional design process of websites (Li, 2014).

In Educational setting on the web office apparatuses like Zoho Writer and Google docs additionally, give methods for offbeat correspondence for numerous clients (Hodges & Hunger, 2011). Tutors can set collaborative online course. By doing that, they can without much of a stretch satisfy the errand of students clients and investigation course of action, pull in understudies to do application hone by direction on learning, apply different application segments to satisfy community oriented educating amongst understudies and educators and submit an appraisal of examination reports between understudies instantly; besides, understudy site hit and premium degree on segment can be straightforwardly gained through page activity measurements and investigation capacity to idealize the assessment of instructors on shared learning outline.
3.5 Wiki as a Tool Facilitating Online Collaborative Writing

Wikis is one of the One of the most popular Web 2.0 technological tools used in education especially in higher education. It plays significant roles in promoting communication and interaction among students or between students and teachers (Cilliers, 2017). Wiki sites allow for co-authored of editable and accessible files by a group of users. Wiki files are flexible and allow simultaneous editing via the web browser. They allow for writing online a text in collaboration (Biasutti, 2017). Klobas (2006) construes that wikis refers to web-based tools that enable collaborative communication among the internet users in both large scales like in the case of wiki-based encyclopedias, and small-scale as in the case of wiki sites managed by close users taking on collaborative projects in their particular area of interest. The first wiki was the Portland Pattern Repository, developed by Ward Cunningham in 1995 (Teehan, 2010).

The word wiki is derived from the Hawaiian word that means quick. This term is applicable if we look at the basic principle of the wiki as a Web site that can be quickly created (Teehan, 2010). As a collaborative site, wiki contains "web pages designed to enable anyone who accesses it to contribute or modify content, using a simplified markup language” (Mitchell, 2008, p. 1). Wikis can be the most effective internet tools used for educational purpose 21st-century era where world become a social global village in which people can collaborate interact via the internet (Teehan, 2010). Wikis are amazingly web-based collaborative tools that make use of ‘a simplified format language’, quick to create with ‘no special software or web skills are required’ (Allwardt, 2011). Whereas the basic word processing skills are enough for users to create or manage a wiki site (Heng & Marimuthu, 2011).

A wiki is a web-based tool that encourages online collaborative writing among the group of students. Using wiki site students can create editable file providing new information concerning ones are of interest or matter of discussion. The information displayed on a wiki is content oriented that is the is made based on the content rather than chronology as in the case of other social sites in web 2.0 categories like Blog and Facebook (Chao & Lo, 2011; Slotter, 2010). Furthermore, the wiki is considered as a significant collaborative tool that enables the students to actively participate in the content creations process, promote critical thinking, collaborative learning, and communication (Beldarrain, 2006; Usluel & Mazman, 2009).

3.6 Facebook as a Tool Facilitating Learning

Regarding the role of Facebook in facilitating English as a second language (ESL) or English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ learning, especially at university levels, studies emphasized that by using Facebook, learners can create new groups or join existing ones as online communities (Ellison, Steinfeld, & Lampe, 2011; Razak, Saeed, & Ahmad, 2013). They can also observe the activities of these groups to which they belong through the track feature (Lampe, Wohn, Vitak, Ellison, & Wash, 2011). Learners can also engage in creating learning content and sharing it with a potentially global audience (Duffy, 2011). Another feature of Facebook is the commenting facility through which learners can comment on one another’s post. Being integrated into classroom-based courses, Facebook can assist ESL learners in their writing process (Haverback, 2009; Majid, Stapa, & Keong, 2012).
There is also an extensive use of Facebook among learners as part of their out-of-campus or university practice of English (McCarthy, 2013; Vandoorn & Eklund, 2013). Facebook enables EFL learners not only to learn that language but also its culture (Mitchell, & Chandra, 2012). Yet, there are several aspects of weaknesses of such SNSs including learners’ gradually diminished participation and control of their learning (Grandzol & Grandzol, 2010), distraction caused by many other posts and comments irrelevant to learning, and learners’ tendency to use short forms and abbreviations that might affect their writing (Yunnus, Salehi, & Chenzi, 2012). This suggests that learners’ use of Facebook for learning will not ensure effective learning without instructors’ facilitation and other peers’ support in the learning activities.

4.0 The Implications of the Study
The use of the Internet in the 21st century is pervasively trending with applications of more social sites coined as Web 2.0 technologies in educational and business contexts. Under this brand online document collaboration tools such as Google Docs, Zoho Writer, Edmodo, blog and many others are becoming increasingly popular, especially in educational settings. However, this is not free from back tack implications. This is one of the reasons why still web 2.0 technologies are not formally enacted in most of the curriculum. One of the challenges with web 2.0 technologies is that some of them cannot replicate a face-to-face traditional collaborative learning. For instance, Wiki pages can be made to look like blogs pages, but they don’t come out of the box with all the pages needed to automatically write and publish blog entries. Blogs are usually focused on one-to-many communication, but wikis are more oriented to many-to-many communication about shared content (Woods, & Thoeny, 2011).

Another implication of using web 2.0 technologies is time management. As Allwardt (2017) states that among discussion group participants, time management was the most problematic issue reported. Some students may be frustrated when some members of the group were inactive until just before the due date approached and that group members did not reply to their postings in a timely manner.

Managing sites might be confusing to inexperienced students that have less expertise on the computer. In this case group coordination and management, individual feedbacks may be difficult by peers or tutors in the case of some collaborative tools. Complicated to get the appropriate sites for consumptions we advocate for the use of mind maps as an accessible notation for describing web 2.0 and we suggest tutors adopt the Unified Theory of Acceptance and Use of Technology (UTAUT) to investigate the effectiveness of web 2.0 technologies prior to their selection of tools.

Dealing with the negative effects of the online collaborative tool: Towndrow and Kannan (2002) argue that the “negative experiences in using collaboration tools are not always technological in nature” (p. 78). They suggested that ‘collaborative online experiences, individuals, irrespective of specific task objectives, collaborate best when they start on the basis of shared knowledge and interests. This precondition can be met in two ways: (i) when online collaborators build on the edifice of prior face-to-face working relationships; and (ii) when inputs from collaborating partners are balanced in terms of vision and effort’.

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5.0 Conclusion
The aim of taking this overview was to give an overview of six major webs 2.0 technologies most capable of providing online writing in blended or virtual online classrooms. Internet users were bulted in the 21st century whereas various social media sites popularly known as Web 2.0 technologies have prevailed in almost every aspect of people life, business, economic and more especially the educational endeavour. The concentration on this paper was centered on the application of six of the popular web 2.0 tools that support online collaborative writing. The tools included in this paper include: Edmodo, Google Docs, Zoho, Blogs, Wikis, and Facebook. As observed in this paper, various social sites that are classified as Web 2.0 can be used for different purposes, however, they all allow for online interaction by either closed group's user, or public groups of users of that have access to the internet.

Therefore, the recent call for more insightful investigation of web 2.0 technologies such as wiki, blog, or Facebook from the participants’ contributions to these communities suggests the importance of exploring how online learners, especially those who are still new members, describe their learning experience from the perspective of their membership level after a period of time.

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Social Constructivism-Based Reading Comprehension Teaching Design at Politeknik Negeri Sriwijaya

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Palembang, Indonesia  

Abstract  
This study aimed at investigating students’ reading comprehension achievement, vocabulary mastery, and social values among the third semester students at Computer Engineering, English, and Business Administration department of Politeknik Negeri Sriwijaya Indonesia. In this research, the writers used Research & Development (R & D) methodology. The purposive sampling included 3 high classes and 3 low classes consisting of 148 students. To collect the data, tests of reading comprehension and vocabulary were given and then statistically calculated with the paired-sample t-tests. Shapiro-Wilk test was used to the normality of data distribution. The findings indicated that the students in the high and low classes could significantly improve their reading comprehension achievement and vocabulary mastery. The students have also shown very positive moral values towards their friends such cooperative, respectful, responsible, and helpful and report that it has made their reading process more tangible and interesting. These results verify the efficacy of the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design and the researchers recommends its application in Politeknik Negeri Sriwijaya.

Keywords: Reading comprehension achievement, vocabulary mastery, social Constructivism  

Introduction
In general, the goal of education is to improve the literacy skills of any individual, for example, reading. Literacy development is a beneficial activity involving students in ways of making, interpreting, and communicating ideas or meaning with written language. It means that literacy is the way to understand other skills. Students must be taught to be aware of their own literacy skills reading, writing, speaking through different kinds of reading materials.

One of the literacy skills that must be developed is reading. Reading is the basic skill for any students to understand in the process of learning. Having low comprehension in reading will influence students’ active thinking and participation in the classroom (White & Coleman, 2000; Souvignier & Mokhlesgerami, 2006). To make students active in thinking and participative during the teaching and learning process, any English lecturer must be able to create and use an effective reading comprehension teaching design.

Literacy development in Indonesia especially for reading is really needed in all levels of education. The students are going to find a job, work, and attend many kinds of seminars (Alwasilah, 2012; Suleimani & Nahizadah, 2012). In short, to be able to compete in the globalization era and succeed in any aspects of professions and lives, students must be knowledgeable. To be a knowledgeable one, someone must read a lot because of the fact that all up-to-date information of science is in the form of the written text.

Based on the average scores of TOEIC from 2014 to 2017 at Politeknik Negeri Sriwijaya, it was found that students’ scores of TOEIC were still low. The average score of Listening part was around 135-200 and of Reading comprehension was around 125-175 (English Department Polsri, 2017). The low scores in reading comprehension part of TOEIC could be an indication that there was a problem in the teaching and learning process of reading comprehension course at Politeknik Negeri Sriwijaya. To overcome such a problem, there had to be an effort to fix the teaching and learning process of reading comprehension course in the classroom. The solution, based on the writers’ point of view, was by creating a reading comprehension design that could improve students’ reading comprehension achievement.

The observations conducted by the writers started from February to April in 2017 revealed that many English lecturers in teaching the reading-comprehension course still employ a teacher-centered method covering activities of making list of difficult words, translating their meanings into L1 (First Language), asking students to read loudly and/or silently, and having students answer the questions related to the text. However, this kind of method caused negative effects on the teaching and learning process and affected students’ reading skill. Only some students, categorized “knowledgeable”, dominated the classroom. Other students kept silent, did not participate and made a noise. In the classroom, there was a partition between students who were knowledgeable on English course and students who were less-knowledgeable on English course. When the English lecturers asked them to work in a group, the knowledgeable students did not want to select less-knowledgeable students to join their group. They just selected students whose competencies were like theirs. They welcomed less-knowledgeable students to be a member of their group after the English lecturers had insisted on them. It surely made the learning atmosphere in the classroom less-encouraging.
The writers believe that to overcome the above problems is by creating a reading comprehension teaching design of social constructivism that is able to improve students’ reading comprehension achievement, accommodate all students at any reading level of English, and grow social values to eliminate a friction among them. The reading comprehension teaching design itself must place an English lecturer as an academic leader and facilitator of students.

Social constructivism has important implications for teaching. The constructivist teachers have the role of guides for the students and provide their students with opportunities to test the adequacy of their current understandings. According to Gagnon and Colley (2001), a constructivist approach is oriented on construction of knowledge putting students in practical situations under the guidance and tutelage of teachers. It seems to be based on the belief that learners construct their own knowledge through interaction, and the assumption that knowledge is physically constructed by learners who are involved actively in learning process appears to be substantiating it. While Lord, Magill, & King (2005) and Amineh and Asl (2015) propose that knowledge in the constructivist approach, is constructed in social environments, where the interaction is considered to be a fundamental factor for effective teaching learning process. Under such circumstances the role of a teacher cannot be neglected rather it becomes more significant in terms of coaching students to selecting appropriate activities for learning (Lord et al., 2005; Amineh and Asl, 2015).

Students are active stake holders in the process of knowledge construction and its dissemination. Students participate in teaching learning process and assume responsibility of their learning by giving it their own meaning in their respective contexts. Hence, constructivism offers students opportunities of cooperative and collaborative learning (Lowenthal and Muth, 2008; Santrock, 2010; Singh and Rajput, 2013). In conclusion, the constructivism emphasizes, the student as being the active learner, playing a central role in mediating and controlling learning and maintains that students create or construct their own new understanding, or knowledge through the interaction of previous experiences, ideas, believes, events, etc, and activities with which they come in contact.

Themes in constructivist work include active engagement in processes of meaning-making, text comprehension as a window on these processes and the varied nature of knowledge, especially knowledge developed as a consequence of membership in a given social group. According to Au (2005), social constructivism includes the idea that there is no objective basis for knowledge claims, because knowledge is always a human construction. Au (2005), Mogashoa (2014), and Amineh and Asl (2015) state that the process of knowledge construction is by the social group and the inter-subjectivity established through the interaction of the group. It is in line with what Duffy (2006) explained that students generate knowledge and meaning from an interaction between their experiences and their ideas (p.16). To conclude, social constructivist research on literacy learning focuses on the role of teachers, and peers members in mediating learning on the dynamics of classroom instruction.

According to Pratton and Hales (1986), and Von Glaserfeld (2005), the students spent more time in doing activities that required thinking, responding and verifying their knowledge. Therefore, active participation of students (social constructivism) was affirmed to be an efficient instructional approach for creating & sustaining motivation and passion for knowledge.
construction. The same idea is also stated by Mvududu and Thiel-Burgess (2012) that social constructivism is widely touted as an approach to probe for students’ level of understanding and to show that that understanding can increase and change to higher level of thinking. Based on the above ideas, the writers come to a conclusion that in the view of constructivism, the students select information, construct hypotheses, and make decisions, with the aim of integrating new experiences into their existing knowledge and experience.

The root of social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design derives from the reciprocal teaching reading strategy. Social constructivism, as a foundation for the use of reciprocal teaching, emphasizes the social genesis of knowledge; that is, "every function in the [student's] cultural development appears twice: first, on the social level, and later, on the individual level" (Vygotsky, 1978, p.57). This social genesis of knowledge construction is comprised of three primary assumptions: (a) knowledge and meaning are active creations of socialization; (b) knowledge and meaning are social creations and as such reflect social negotiation and consensus; and (c) knowledge and meaning are constructed for the purposes of social adaptation, discourse, and goal achievement (Gergen, 1999; Prawat & Floden, 1994).

Social constructivists believe that the process of sharing individual perspectives-called reciprocal teaching (Leeds-Hurwitz, 2009) -results in learners constructing understanding together and this construction, according to Woolfolk (2010) in Amineh and Asl (2015), cannot be possible alone within individuals. On the other hand, Kalpana (2014) says that the social contexts of learning and knowledge are mutually built and constructed. By interacting with others, students get the opportunity to share their views and thus generate a shared understanding related to the concept (p.30). Reciprocal teaching has also been recognized for building learner capacity in the key competencies: thinking; using language, symbols and text; managing self; relating to others, and participating and contributing (Alton-Lee et al., 2012). Within learning communities students not only develop comprehension skills but also learn structures for thinking and how to interact meaningfully with other learners to build collective understanding. Reciprocal teaching is also readily incorporated in most learning areas of the curriculum (Alton-Lee et al., 2012; Arbor, 2013; Rosenshine & Meister, 1994). In short, through collaborative dialogue, a shared text and a group exploration of principles, ideas and themes, the reciprocal teaching groups develop to be a learning community.

In 2010, a middle school teacher in Queensland decided to expand the stages of Reciprocal Teaching to better guide her students. By adding orientating, connecting, and giving feedback to the original four stages of Reciprocal Teaching, her students were able to have deeper, higher-level discussions over what they were reading. The result was a higher level of reading comprehension, which is needed for upper grade level students (Meyer, 2010; Hughes, 2011).

In the attempts to improve students’ reading comprehension achievement, vocabulary mastery, and to enhance social values among students, the writers have designed the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design. The social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design itself is the results of development of a reading strategy - “reciprocal teaching” combined with social constructivist approach in which a social interaction takes place in real life situations.
Literature review

Reading comprehension

Reading in a foreign language is a complicated process involving both lower-level and higher-level processing skills with the interaction of first and second language. In order to help learners improve their reading comprehension achievement, numerous researches have been conducted to identify reading comprehension problems with the purpose of developing comprehension strategies that can be used by readers. Al Odwan (2012) and Huang (2012) say that the requirements of reading comprehension increase as students reach higher grades when they are expected to comprehend more complex materials that are often concrete to requiring well developed reasoning skills as well as an ability to apply proper background knowledge in a range of contexts. Unfortunately, conventional and text-centered classrooms do not provide instruction in the skills and strategies necessary for students to learn how to comprehend text (Huang, 2012). Considering how important reading is for students in daily teaching and learning process, Sung, Chang, & Huang, (2008) and Tuan (2010) mention that the teacher needs to consider the best strategy for teaching reading in order to enhance students’ comprehension. Strategy-based instruction has been regarded as an effective approach to enhance reading comprehension.

Reading is a complex cognitive activity that is crucial for adequate functioning and for obtaining information in current society and requires an integration of memory and meaning construction. The main goal for reading is “comprehension”, and everything else is a means to this end (Goldenberg, 2011; Loew, 1984). Comprehension is the ability to go beyond the words, understand the ideas in a text and the relationships that exist between those ideas (McNamara, 2007). Traditional views of reading assumed readers, as passive recipients of text information, possessing a large number of sub-skills which were automatically used to comprehend all kinds of texts. It was assumed that reading comprehension occurred automatically (Dole, 2000; Dole et al., 1991).

Cognitive views of reading comprehension indicate that reading is an interactive and comprehension is a constructive process and that skilled readers are differentiated from weak readers by their flexible use of a set of strategies to make sense of the text and to monitor and regulate their reading processes. According to Baker & Brown (1984), Dole et al., (1991), and Van Keer (2004), providing students with explicit instruction in comprehension strategies can be an effective way to help them overcome difficulties in understanding texts. In addition, Graham & Bellert (2004) in RAND (2012), and Johnson-Glenberg (2005) mention that reading strategies do not build reading skill, but rather are a bag of tricks that can indirectly improve comprehension. These tricks are easy to learn and require little practice, but students must be able to decode fluently before these strategies can be effective.

According to Rahmani and Sadeghi (2011), Behjat, Bagheri& Yamini (2012), and Ahmadi and Pourhossein (2012), reading comprehension is defined to get the correct message from a text/linguistic language. Reading comprehension is an interactive mental process between a reader’s linguistic knowledge, knowledge of the world, and knowledge about a given topic. Reading comprehension as an interactive process, in which readers interact with the text as their prior
experience is activated. Moreover, readers construct meaning from the text by relying on prior experience to parallel, contrast or affirm what the author suggested in the text.

During the last century, to comprehend lessons usually consisted of students answering teachers' questions, writing responses to questions on their own, or both. The whole group version of this practice also often included "Round-robin reading"; teachers asked individual students to read a portion of the text (and sometimes following a set order). But now, according to Ahmadi & Pourhossein (2012) and Rahmani & Sadeghi (2011), the associated practice of "round robin" reading had also been questioned and eliminated by many educators.

**Different models of reading comprehension**
Reading is a cognitive process that consists of a reader, a text, and the interaction between the reader and the text. According to Babashamsi (2013), and Fatemi et al. (2014), there are three models of reading process: the bottom-up model, the top-down model, and the interactive model.

**Bottom-up model**
The bottom-up model begins with decoding the smallest linguistic units, especially phonemes, graphemes, and words, and ultimately constructs meaning from the smallest to the largest units. While doing this, the readers apply their background knowledge to the information they find in the texts. This bottom-up method is also called data-driven and text-based reading (Carrell, 1989). This reading model focuses on the smaller units of a text such as its letters, words, phrases and sentences. Then, a syntactic and semantic processing occurs during which reading reaches the final meaning.

The readers will only be successful in reading if they accurately decode the linguistic units and recognize the relationship between words. According to Ahmadi & Pourhossein (2012), and Hughes (2011), in the reading process, the readers’ understanding is the result of their own constructions rather than; the result of the transmission of graphic symbols to their understanding. Hence, without their background knowledge, they cannot comprehend the texts.

**Top-down model**
Top down model focuses on linguistic guesswork rather than graphic textual information. The readers do not need to read every word of a text. Readers might start predicting from the title of the reading text. According to Ahmadi & Pourhossein (2012), and Nuttall (1996), while reading the message, comprehension begins with higher levels of processing (making hypotheses), and proceeds to the use of the lower levels. Top-down and bottom-up are both strategies of information processing and knowledge ordering; used in a variety of fields including software, humanistic and scientific theories, and management and organization. In practice, they can be seen as a style of thinking and teaching.

A top-down approach is also known as the stepwise design or deductive reasoning, and in many cases it is used as a synonym to analyze or decompose the breaking down of a system to gain insight into its compositional sub-systems. In a top-down approach an overview of the system is formulated, specifying but not detailing any first-level subsystems. Each subsystem is then refined, until the entire specification is reduced to base elements (Babashamsi, 2013). A top-down
model is often specified with the assistance of "black boxes"; these make it easier to manipulate. However, black boxes may fail to elucidate elementary mechanisms or be detailed enough to realistically validate the model. In short, a top-down approach starts with the big picture and then breaks down from there into smaller segments (Ahmadi & Pourhossein, 2012; Nuttall, 1996).

**Interactive model**
Stanovich (1980) in Hughes (2011), and Bentahar (2012) argued that the interactive model is a process based on information from several sources such as orthographic, lexical, syntactic, semantic knowledge, and schemata. While reading, decoding processes can support one another in a compensatory way. If, when reading word by word, readers with good bottom-up skills do not comprehend the texts, they need to use their prior knowledge (schemata) to assist them. Alternatively, according to Stanovich (1980), Santrock (2010), and Fatemi et al. (2014), readers who rely on the top-down model use textual clues and guess wildly at the meaning, but they need to compensate for deficits such as weaknesses in word recognition and lack of effective bottom-up processing.

Nuttal (1996) argued that efficient and effective reading requires both top-down and bottom-up decoding. L2 readers, for example, may use top-down reading to compensate for deficiencies in bottom-up reading. To comprehend the meaning, readers use their schemata to compensate for the lack of bottom-up knowledge. Therefore, the interactive model is a process that is based on information from several sources.

These three models of the reading process help explain how readers construct meaning and how they compensate for their comprehension deficits. Successful readers usually alter their model based on the need of a particular text and situation. The interactive model, which is the combination of the bottom-up and top-down processes, leads to the most efficient processing of texts. Knowing that the interactive model can help readers in achieving successful reading, teachers should find reading instructions based on this model to promote readers’ abilities.

**Principal theoretical perspectives**

*Cognition and metacognition*
Research focuses variously on the development of basic cognitive processes for handling information (e.g. memory; phonological processing), the ‘metacognitive’ executive awareness and control of thinking and learning (e.g. ‘thinking skills’, learning strategies and ‘learning how to learn’), and sometimes on the inter-relationship of these aspects of cognition (e.g. the links between word reading and reading comprehension). There is some acknowledgement that cognition is ‘situated’ meaning that children’s attainment is affected by the familiarity, level of abstraction and the perceived purpose of investigation and problem solving (e.g. Gersten et al., 2001).

*Social constructivist teaching*
Much research, according to Amineh and Asl (2015), is conducted with a social constructivist perspective related to learning, viewing children as active and curious learners who are motivated to join other people to solve problems, develop knowledge and contribute to the development of the learning community to which they belong. Watson (2001) asserts that learners benefit from
the thoughtful attention and support of other people who provide expert knowledge and guidance which is gradually internalized to allow self-regulation (‘scaffolding’ and guided participation). According to Shunk (2000) in Amineh and Asl (2015), social constructivist teaching approaches emphasize reciprocal teaching, peer collaboration, cognitive apprenticeships, problem-based instruction, web quests, anchored instruction, and other methods that involve learning with others. Instructional models based on the social constructivist perspective highlight the need for collaboration among learners and with practitioners in the society. Rosenshine and Meister (1994) cited that some social constructivist approaches explicitly share some of the teaching responsibilities to pupils via a process of modeling and guided practice (e.g. reciprocal teaching for developing reading comprehension in children at all levels of reading development.

*Generic metacognitive approaches*

The teaching of transferable thinking and learning skills is commonly emphasized in professional guidance (Tilstone *et al*., 2000). Effective teaching strategies may include the use of ‘procedural facilitators’ like planning sheets, writing frames, story mapping and teacher modeling of cognitive strategies, although for quality and independence in learning, it is crucial to extend these technical aids with elaborated ‘higher order’ questioning and dialogue between teachers and pupils (Gersten *et al*., 2001).

*Teacher’s role*

Constructivist teachers encourage and accept student independence and schema. They use raw data and primary sources, along with manipulative, interactive and physical materials. When framing an assignment, constructivist teachers use cognitive terminology, such as classification, analyses, prediction, and creation. Constructivist teachers allow students’ responses to drive lessons, instructional strategies, and alter content. “For conceptual learning occur, first, learners must play an active role in selecting and defining the activities; second, there must be suitable teacher support as learners build concepts, values, schemata, and problem-solving abilities (Fosnot, 1996, p.92).

To make easy real learning, teachers need to organize their classroom and their curriculum so that students can collaborate, interact, and raise questions of both classmates and the teacher. Children’s questions are important to help teachers understand developmental progression of children and how they understand literacy tasks.

*Student’s role*

The constructivist model views learners as vital in the process of learning language. Learners are active in seeking and constructing meaning and in seeking communication with others. Children learning language produce hypotheses and test them with the speaker in the environments. They try to combine sounds and words in different situations. Constructivists believe that this problem-solving behavior is very important in learning language. They also believe that the errors in children’s speech reflect new knowledge about language rules. They also recognize the importance of social interactions in the development of language. Many constructivist researchers believe that infants control much of their interaction with adults in their environments by smiling, making sounds, and repeating adult sounds to continue the interactions (Brewer, 2001; Ensar, 2014).
Education programs based on constructivism

The goal of any constructivist program is to stimulate children in all areas of development. Physical development, social and emotional development, and cognitive development are all important. Language development and an emphasis on the process of learning are also important. Brewer (2001) explained that socio moral atmosphere includes a child’s relationship with his/her teacher, other children, and the rules. This social moral atmosphere should grow among students. Constructivism stands in contrast to the more deeply rooted ways of teaching that have long typified American classrooms. Traditionally, learning has been thought to be a mimetic activity, a process that involves students repeating, or miming. Constructivist teaching practices, on the other hand, help learners internalize, reshape, or transform the new information. Transformation occurs through the creation of new understandings that result from the emergence of new cognitive structures. The constructivists based on the assumption that children mentally construct knowledge through reflection on their experiences. A child is an active architect of learning. This view of children’s development constructs with the behaviorist view of a child as a passive receptor of knowledge, which is acquired through imitation and practice and is internalized through the processes of reward and punishment (Roopnarie & Johnson, 2000).

In the constructivist classrooms, a teacher needs to consider the necessity of moral aspects of schooling and described the teacher-child relationship. DeVries and Zan (1995) argued that the constructivist teachers respect children by upholding children’s rights to their feelings, ideas and opinions. These teachers use their authority selectively and refrain from using power unnecessarily. In this way, they give children an opportunity to develop personalities characterized by self-confidence, respect for self and others, and active, inquiring, creative minds.

Despite their general similarities, the goals of different constructivist programs can vary. There are some programs based on Piaget’s theory. In George Forman’s program, the goals are to help children develop cognitively through activities selected specifically to help them with the ideas of correspondence, transformations, functional relations, and changing perspectives. The high/scope program, developed by David Weikart, is known for emphasizing careful and systematic observations of children and for organizing the curriculum around key experiences. Key experiences have been identified in the categories of social and emotional development, movement and physical development, and cognitive development. The other example was the Bank Street Program that is based on the work of Lucy Sprague Mitchell, who had been a student of the most famous educator John Dewey. Mitchell began a school for young children in which play would be taken seriously, in which children could play and researchers could study them doing so in a naturalistic setting. The following principles are the framework of these programs: development involves changes in the way a person organizes experience and copes with the world; individuals are never at a fixed point on a straight line of development; and the child’s sense of self is built up from his/her experiences with other people and with objects.

Reggio Emilia schools of northern Italy have been influenced on the early childhood educators. These community preschools are based on the following principles: all children construct their own learning and are capable of learning; the community is an important force in the school, providing both financial support and involvement with programs and children; collaboration, sharing, and personal relationships are valued; the environment—the third teacher...
is important in motivating interest and encouraging creativity; teachers consider themselves as learners and work with other teachers and parents (Roopnarine & Johnson, 2000; Brewer, 2001).

Constructivist programs stress the importance of environment that encourages children to make choices and involve their play with peers. Learning centers with materials for art, block play, writing and drawing, dramatic play, and exploration with raw materials, such as dirt, sand, and water, are available for children to select both individual and group projects (Roopnarine & Johnson, 2000).

In the constructivist model, group games are a central feature of the curriculum. Curricula are planned and learning experiences are selected to follow children’s interests or expose them to new areas according to their interests (Nawaz, 2012). Many activities and experiences are selected to help children think about solutions to social as well as cognitive problems. Literacy is taught in the context of children’s other activities, as they extend their language to reading and writing. Constructivist assumes that literacy skills are best learned within a context in which they can be applied.

Wellhousen and Kieff (2001) emphasized on block play. They explained that block play provides a basic foundation for promoting language and literacy learning. To build an oral language development, they clarified three specific ways; children playing together with blocks need to communicate with one another and sometimes with an adult; children expand their vocabulary during block play; and dramatizing provides opportunities for using rich language.

Constructivist approach is based on Piaget’s theory. This constructivist orientation considers the development of social skills, personality, and self-esteem as critical to children’s active involvement with their environments (Kamii & DeVries, 1980). The approach encourages cooperative activities for the purpose of respecting the feelings and rights of others and coordinating different points of view.

This study attempts to fill the gap and find whether the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design could improve high and low students’ reading comprehension achievement, vocabulary mastery, and enhance social values. To fulfill the purpose of this study, the following research questions are addressed:

i. Is there any statistically significant difference in reading comprehension scores of high and low classes who are exposed to the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design?

ii. Is there any statistically significant difference in vocabulary scores of high and low classes who are exposed to the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design?

iii. What are the social values that enhance the students of high and low classes after being exposed to the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design?
Methodology

Research design

The methodology used in the research is Research & Development (R&D), as outlined by Borg and Gall (2003, p.775) consists of 10 stages: (1) research and information collecting, (2) planning, (3) develop preliminary form of product, (4) preliminary field testing, (5) main product revision, (6) main field testing, (7) operational product revision, (8) operational field testing, (9) final product revision, and (10) dissemination and implementation. Gall, Gall & Borg (2007) claim that to investigate new products, the Research and Development method is necessary to use. No other area of research in education is now as productive and intellectually stimulating as that related to Research and Development method. This method is a design-based research to develop new programs and materials to improve education.

This research only followed the first six steps of Borg and Gall (1983) in consideration of time effectiveness and cost. The educational product of Research and Development is called the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design.

Participants

There were six classes comprising 148 students of three study programs; Computer Engineering, English, and Business Administration, at Politeknik Negeri Sriwijaya in the academics year 2016-2017. They were all on the third semester students distributed into two categories; high classes and low classes which were based on their previous class average scores of reading comprehension and vocabulary tests. All classes were taught with social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design. This study was administered for 10 sessions. Every session took three hours in one week.

Table 1. Participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Study Programs</th>
<th>High Class</th>
<th>Low Class</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Computer Engineering</td>
<td>Class A (24 students)</td>
<td>Class B (25 students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Class A (23 students)</td>
<td>Class B (25 students)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>Class A (25 students)</td>
<td>Class B (26 students)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Instrumentation**

To achieve the aims of the study, the researcher used achievement (pre-post) tests of comprehension and vocabulary comprising forty items for each test. Tests of reading comprehension and vocabulary were in the form of multiple choices consisting of 40 items of reading comprehension test, and 40 items of vocabulary test. Before piloting the tests, the writers distributed the test items to 9 respondents. They were 4 English lecturers from Politeknik Akamigas, 2 English lecturers from Politeknik Sekayu, and 3 English lecturers from Universitas Negeri Sriwijaya. They were asked to judge the appropriateness and difficulty of test items. Before applying the paired-samples t test, the writers had to analyze the normality of distribution of data with Shapiro-Wilk test. If the distribution of data is normal, then the writers used paired-samples t test to know whether there is a significant differences before and after the treatment (pre-test and post-test).

To know the growth of social values among students, a classroom-based evaluation referring to individual and group works was used.

**Table 2. Classroom-based Evaluation Checklist for Individual**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>THE OBSERVED ASPECTS</th>
<th>RESULT OF OBSERVATION</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Attention</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Question</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Argumentation</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Discipline</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 3. Classroom-based Evaluation Checklist for Group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NUMBER</th>
<th>THE ASSESSED ASPECTS</th>
<th>PARTICIPANTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Arguing</td>
<td>Roy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Sams</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Answering</td>
<td>Sasha</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Appreciating</td>
<td>Tom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 4. Lesson Plan for Social Constructivist-based Reading Comprehension

#### Teaching Design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Step</th>
<th>Activities by Lecturer</th>
<th>Activities by Students</th>
<th>Media and Teaching Aid</th>
<th>Character(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1)</td>
<td>•communicate what students are going to learn for today</td>
<td>•listen</td>
<td>•syllabus</td>
<td>•careful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(2)</td>
<td>•communicate why the topic is important to learn</td>
<td>•pay attention</td>
<td>•course agreement</td>
<td>•cooperatively</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(3)</td>
<td>•communicate how the learning process is happening</td>
<td>•question</td>
<td>•reading text</td>
<td>•responsible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(4)</td>
<td>•communicate how the learning process is happening</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>•critical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>•communicate the expectation towards the learning objectives</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>•communicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(5)</td>
<td>•motivate students</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>•respectful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Middle

- The heart of the lesson

- The steps in the reciprocal teaching

- Place students in a heterogeneous group of 4-5 students (depend on the number of students in the class)

- Have students play their roles in their group as a predictor, clarifier, questioner, and

- Listen and pay attention

- Question, predict, and present

- Play a role as predictor, questioner, summarizer and clarifier in a group

- Cooperate in a team

- Present the group’s work and propose a question(s)
Results

In table 4, it is known that $P$-values (Sig.) of reading comprehension tests and vocabulary tests of high classes and low classes for normality test Shapiro-Wilk are bigger than $\alpha = 0.05$. It means that the data of reading comprehension tests and vocabulary tests from high and low classes are normally distributed.

Table 5. Summary of Normality Test in the High and Low Classes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study Program</th>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Shapiro-Wilk</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Test</strong></td>
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<tr>
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<td>High</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Vocabulary 24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Department</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
<td>------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading Comprehension</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
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<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<tr>
<td>Low</td>
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<td>25</td>
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<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>.325</td>
<td>.249</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
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<td>.174</td>
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<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>26</td>
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<td>26</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.354</td>
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</table>

Because the distribution of data is normal, one of the parametric statistics, t-test, can be used to know whether two sets of data are significantly different from each other. The t-test is generally applied to normal distribution.

The pretests and posttests of reading comprehension and vocabulary were given to the students in the high and low classes. Pretests were given before the treatment and the posttests
were given after the treatment. Both high and low classes were treated with the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design.

Based on the table 6, all classes either high or low classes could significantly improve their reading comprehension achievement and vocabulary mastery. It means that the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design could be applied at any level of reading proficiency. The highest achievement of reading comprehension was obtained by computer engineering study program of high class with mean score 2.0833. The highest vocabulary achievement was obtained by English study program of high class with mean score 1.9565.

Table 6. Reading Comprehension and Vocabulary Test of High and Low Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High Class</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th>Post-test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
<th>t</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Reading Comprehension</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Engineering</td>
<td>5.5313</td>
<td>7.6146</td>
<td>-2.0833</td>
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<td>.5503</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<tr>
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<td>6.6563</td>
<td>8.1771</td>
<td>-1.5208</td>
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<td>.000</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English Department</td>
<td>5.8804</td>
<td>7.8478</td>
<td>-1.9673</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>.7083</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<td>5.8913</td>
<td>7.8478</td>
<td>1.9565</td>
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<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>5.8400</td>
<td>7.6300</td>
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<td>6.0100</td>
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<td>1.7800</td>
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<td>.7300</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 6 also informed that social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design could be applied either to good readers or poor readers.

The implication of the finding of the present research toward the teaching of reading comprehension is that the steps in the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design, such as predicting, questioning, clarifying, and summarizing, are worth applying even for students of English as a foreign language with any level of proficiency to improve reading comprehension achievement, vocabulary mastery and to grow social values.

**Conclusions**
The results show that students’ reading comprehension achievement, and vocabulary mastery in the high and low classes are significantly improved. The nurturant effects of the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design are the growth of social values among students. The results are in line with Wilson and Lianrui (2007, p.5) who say “…the social constructivist approach to reading offers tools and principles for EFL teachers which can help them to improve their reading comprehension, draw their students into energetic participation in text events, entering into active dialogue with texts (and their authors), not as outsiders, but as active participants.” Thus, teachers of English should be encouraged to apply the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design in their classes of reading comprehension. Grabe (2009) suggests that reading teachers should incorporate strategy instruction as a part of everyday reading instruction and work toward the automatization of strategy use for fluent reading.
Some limitations need to be considered when interpreting the findings of this study. First, this study included only the Indonesian EFL students at Politeknik Negeri Sriwijaya Palembang. A more comprehensive study including other nationalities and/or learners will enhance our understanding of the effects of top-down/bottom-up processing and cognitive styles on reading comprehension reflected into the social constructivism-based reading comprehension teaching design. Secondly, to increase the external validity of the study findings, replication is needed in different settings with diverse populations.

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References


