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Metaoperational Linguistics: Issues of Translatability and Visibility

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Abstract
This paper aims to explore the reasons behind the limited dissemination of Adamczewski's Metaoperational approach to language beyond the French academic sphere. The theory, which developed in and by contrastivity between 1976 and 2005, is built on the basic assumption that utterances exhibit on their surface observable traces of the utterer's invisible structuring activity. It is initially derived from a corpus-based approach to English and applied to languages as different as French, Arabic, Turkish, Madagascan, and Kwa languages. The theory's visibility is investigated primarily in relation to its readability and translatability.The findings suggest that visibility retarders and obstructers are more associated with a general context of global scientific publication marked by the hegemony of English as the language of science than with the theoretical framework itself. However, if the model's body of knowledge and conceptual apparatus lend themselves to smooth interlingual transfer, as shown in books of Metaoperational inspirations in Spanish (Matte Bon (1992)), Italian (Gagliardelli (1999)), English (Adamczewski (2002)), and Arabic (Kahlaoui (2010)), the theory's high degree of formalism and its dense metalinguistic description are in some didactic contexts generative of reader frustration.

Keywords: Enunciative approach, metalinguistic status, metaoperational linguistics, readability, translatability, visibility
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Introduction

In spite of its valuable contribution to contemporary linguistic thought, the work of many French scholars and theoreticians has suffered poor visibility in the Anglophone academic world community and beyond. Eminent figures like G. Guillaume, E. Benveniste, B. Pottier, A. Culioli, C. Hagege and H. Adamczewski to name a few, are conspicuously absent from graduate and postgraduate linguistics curricula outside a few French universities. The case of Henri Adamczewski's work is discussed in this article with a special focus on its readability, translatability and intrinsic and extrinsic visibility obstructers.

The paper attempts to address the following research questions:

- To what extent is the visibility of a linguistic model dependent only on intrinsic factors, such as a coherent and firmly grounded theoretical construct, an explanatory and predictive power, verifiability and correctability of the new data, and a functional conceptual apparatus?
- How does a model's readability affect its translatability and promote its visibility within an epistemic community?
- How can non-Anglophone new research, especially in social and human sciences, gain due recognition in a disempowering monolingual global research environment where English monopolizes the scientific landscape?

The Metaoperational Linguistic Model: "the linear is not the message."

Building on Guillaume (1960), Benveniste (1974), and Culioli (1970 and 1971), the work of Henri Adamczewski on "Be+ing" (1976) has gradually developed into a systematic approach not only to English but also to natural languages. It draws on the assumption that language, being directly unreachable, can lead to its functioning only via its surface manifestation. The final product of a complex and multi-faceted process, "utterances exhibit on their surface observable traces of an invisible activity" (1982, p.5-transl.mine). They codify "mental operations whose main object is not to enable the speaker to refer to the world, but to indicate how the utterance was built up (…), what the speaker's position is relative to what s/he is saying and also relative to the addressee" (Santin-Guettier, A.-M. & Toupin, F. (2006)). The visible/audible linear arrangement, therefore, alludes to the activity underlying discourse, but cannot help to explain the utterance. For Adamczewski (2000), the linear utterance is not the message but "the final product of simultaneous/successive cipherings, phonological, lexical and syntactic (p.12). English modalized utterances offer illustrative and almost transparent examples of this linear fallacy:

(1) *Peter must have forgotten his appointment.*

In (1), we cannot rely on the surface order to account for the working of the utterance; the grammatical subject *Peter* is not the real subject of *must*. The modal marker is there to codify the judgement of the linguistic subject.

Utterer *(Peter must have forgotten his appointment.)*

In France, Adamczewski is fairly considered a precursor of subsequent changes in pedagogical grammar and theoretical linguistics. His linguistic and didactic endeavor is mostly directed toward

i. rehabilitation of the surface of discourse, a conveyor of visible/audible indications about the working of languages, after the long-time generativist hegemony which privileges research on deep structures;
ii. rehabilitation of the context of production and reception of utterances, a key parameter entirely ignored by both structuralists and generativists;
iii. rehabilitation of the role and status of the utterer and the co-utterer in the production and reception of discourse;
iv. rehabilitation of learners' autonomy by equipping them with adequate conceptual tools to enable understanding of utterance structure and working (such autonomy has been impaired by atomistic approaches inducing memorization of grammatical rules)
v. rehabilitation of "unprivileged" languages which had long been marginalized by monolingual approaches to human language. In this respect, Adamczewski considers contrastivity a domain of linguistic research, not a just a methodological device.

As for first language, Adamczewski, (2000) rejected both Skinner's imitation-reinforcement theory (1957) and Chomsky's innateness hypothesis (1965). He (2000) argues that:

> "the key to acquisition is neither in the exposure to language nor in the biological redisposition to learn but "in the organization of language itself: languages are built in such a way that children cannot fail to discover their secret. The intelligence of the child meets the intelligence of the system." (pp.12)

From *A University Grammar of English* to *Grammaire Linguistique de l' Anglais*: A New Episteme?

Adamczewski and Delmas's seminal work *Grammaire Linguistique de l' Anglais* (1982), (GLA) appeared at a time when Quirk and Greenbaum's *A University Grammar of English* (1973) was the undisputed English grammar reference in tertiary education. A crude comparison shows that the French manual is not just one of the numerous English grammar books which overwhelm the market every new academic year. *GLA*, in fact, announces not only a transition from descriptive to explicative grammar but also a real paradigm shift that breaks with dominant approaches to grammar in the early 1980s. Table 1 shows the lines of demarcation between the two approaches to grammar.

Table 1. *A University grammar of English* vs. *Grammaire Linguistique de L'Anglais*

	A University Grammar of English	***Grammaire Linguistique de l'Anglais***
1	descriptive / structuralist	explicative / post-tructuralist
2	monolingual approach	intra- and interlingual approach
3	direct assignment of meaning to formal categories / referential function	metalinguistic function of operators
4	context insensitive	context- and corpus-based analysis

5	linear description	"The linear is not the message."
6	centrality of the grammatical subject	centrality of the linguistic subject
7	sentences / language	utterances / discourse
8	focus on macro-structures	focus on grammatical micro-systems
9	taxonomic and rule-based	core-value approach / invariance theory

If the scope of both grammars is to provide a better understanding of how English works, the logic and the context governing them remain fundamentally divergent.

First, in the descriptive approach, language is observed, data is collected, sentences described and grammatical rules formulated, whereas the explicative model assumes that we cannot describe what we are not in a position to explain, or "the surface order in which the constituents of the utterance appear does not necessarily correspond to the order in which the mental operations underlying utterance construction were performed by the speaker" (Santin-Guettier & Toupin, 2006). The analyst has therefore to decode the processing operations at work (explanation) in order to properly describe the final product. The surface is a *sine qua non* insofar as it displays visible traces of invisible activity.

Second, the work of Adamczewski is the product of a highly prolific post-structuralist era of profound changes in language study. It witnessed the emergence and development of new domains of research heralding a new episteme in linguistic sciences and pedagogy. Fields such as Pragmatics, Discourse Analysis, Text Linguistics, Contrastive Rhetoric and Corpus Linguistics constitute a major source of influence not only on Adamczewski but on the tenants of the enunciation school in general. Theoretical linguistics at that time was shifting from mentalism and formalism to an empirical corpus-based study of language at work in socio-cultural contexts.

If the work of R. Quirk and S. Greenbaum and other descriptivists still enjoys a better worldwide visibility in academic curricula, this is not because it is more persuasive than explicative models. On the contrary, descriptive grammarians of English persist in their direct assignment of meaning to meaningless (formal) grammatical categories, such as the numerous meanings attributed to the modals *will*, *shall* and *should*; hundreds of counter examples invalidating the dominant explanation of *do, be+ing, demonstrative pronouns, articles, the subjunctive* and *verbal patterns*. Language teachers adopting descriptive approaches to grammar are not equipped to explain to their students the difference between minimal pairs, such as:

I leave tomorrow. vs. *I am leaving tomorrow*.
Mary resembles her mother. vs. *Mary is resembling her mother more and more*.

For Adamczewski (2000), "this particular weakness of practically all the grammars of English available in 2000, has dramatic consequences on the didactics of English. Even the latest manuals

for first-year learners of English still stick to the traditional but false opposition "habitual versus real present" (simple present vs. continuous present). (p.6)

The Dialectical Triad: Readability, Translatability and Visibility

This paper claims that the readability, translatability and visibility of a source text (ST) interrelate dialectically . Each concept should be understood as a continuum ranging from a low to high extreme, not a discontinuous unit.

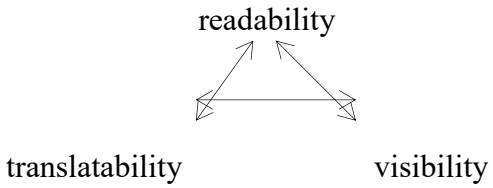
Readability has been approached by classical rhetoricians as an argumentative category and by applied linguists. Dale and Chall, (1948), McLaughlin, (1968), and Oakland & Lane, (2004) from a communicative perspective. The focus has been on those textual properties that would enhance or hinder persuasion, understanding or communication and often with the aim of developing readability formulas which define readable texts. Only recently has readability been approached from a translational stance in the context of corpus-based translation studies Baker, (1995) and (1996). However, given the elusive and relative character of readability which is governed not only by textual properties but also by the types of readers (for pleasure, understanding, translation, etc.) and their reading potential, our focus will not be restricted to textual properties; it will include learners and translators as readers of GLA and recipients of Adamczewski's theorizing linguistic discourse in general.

Second, text *translatability* is not a recent issue in theories of translation. It dates back to the early debates on the nature of language and the interchangeability of linguistic codes. In *The Task of the Translator*, Benjamin (1923) defines translatability as an essential quality of certain works of art which do not lend themselves to interlingual transfer. His definition dissociates the reader from the process. "In the appreciation of a work of art or an art form, consideration of the receiver never proves fruitful." (p.71) Catford (1965) proposed a method to assess text translatability and distinguished between linguistic and cultural untranslatability (1965, p.99). For Nida and Taber, "anything that can be said in one language can be said in another, unless the form is an essential element of the message" (1969, p.4), such as in poetry. With the advent of the Cultural Turn in translation studies (Bassnett & Lefevere1992), the debate on translatability has been relegated to a marginal position. Kade (1968) (in Wills 1982) considers "the denial of translatability presupposes a subjective ranking of the various languages." (p.46) In De Pedro's terms (1999, p.555) "postulating the untranslatability of a text implies sustaining the view that some languages are not apt for expressing certain aspects of human experience."

In contemporary work, as the conception of interlingual equivalence is shifting from identity and sameness to similarity and approximation, we consider that all texts lend themselves to translation in various degrees. The process is always dependent on more than one contextual factor: the text type and function(s), the language and metalanguage at work, and the translators' knowledge and reading potential.

The three parameters under scrutiny interrelate dialectically. Readability bears on translatability as it may facilitate or impede the process of transfer. Both readability and translatability act as visibility triggers and the latter as a reflector of ST accessibility. On the

other hand, translatability is indicative of the extent of readability and visibility. The latter is a reflector of the ST's accessibility and a generator of prospective target text (TT) enhancement.



The Metaoperational Model: Extrinsic and Intrinsic Visibility Obstructers

For a new linguistic model to enjoy academic visibility, it is not enough to build on sound theoretical foundations or to raise pertinent questions and provide ample evidence refuting a predominant explanation. Intrinsic factors alone are not necessarily conducive to wide dissemination of new approaches and ideas, especially when these announce a sharp break with well-established theories and convictions.

Several extrinsic factors combine to partially explain the very limited dissemination of Adamczewski's approach to language. These factors are associated with the general context of his publications, not with his texts themselves.

i. Theorizing about English grammar in French: it is noteworthy that writing publications and even doctoral dissertations on English language in French at the time of Adamczewski amounts to a tacit national policy aimed at empowering scientific research, enriching collective intelligence, and halting a linguistically mediated Anglo-American disempowering soft power. Global hegemony is maintained not only through military, political, economic and ideological means. It is also instituted through language, Mayr (2008, p.14) and Clayton (2006, pp.202–03). This power relations argument is probably a contributing factor behind the Anglo-American apparent indifference to the original work of several French linguists, such as Guillaume (1964), Benviniste (1966 and 1974), Culioli (1990-1999) and Adamczewski (1976, 1982, 1991).

ii. The long-time hegemony of Chomskyan linguistics in tertiary education: the profound impact of Chomskyan linguistics (1965) has affected academic consortiums and curricula worldwide. The dynamism of his theory, detectable in its different stages, and its applications to different languages have overshadowed other approaches to language and relegated them to a peripheral status. Academic linguistic departments have largely remained within the sphere of influence of Generativism and structuralism for decades.

iii. A cautious, if not cold, welcome of Adamczewski's linguistic model in the French academic sphere: two possible reasons explain the reluctance of some French academicians to recognize the contribution of Adamczewski to theortical and contrastive linguistics: first, at the intersection of Guillaume, Benveniste, and Culioli, the Metaoperational model has developed a hesitant epistemological identity almost devoid of clear theoretical demarcation. Second, Adamcewski's "incursion" into French grammar, which breaks with predominant traditional explanations, is an additional reason behind skepticism and reserve.

iv. Absence of a pedagogical version of Adamczewski's *Grammaire linguistique de l'Anglais* (1982): the notion of *linguistic* grammar itself is conveyor of theoretical connotations. It presupposes a pre-linguistic stage in which description, not explanation, is the ultimate scope of grammar manuals. Therefore, it announces a break with the predominant, as mentioned above. When GLA was first introduced as the grammar reference for English language students at the Sorbonne Nouvelle University in the 1980's, it was not endorsed by any workbook , analytical glossary or other pedagogical materials which would have simplified the didactic process. Pedagogically, the opacity of the metalanguage, as we will see below, neither facilitates the task of the instructor nor does it enhance student confidence and commitment. It amounts to a classroom injustice.

In this respect, GLA was also the main reference in the 1980's for candidates for the Capes and the Agrégation school teachers national exams.

v. With the adoption of the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (Council of Europe, 2001) which encourages the pragmatic and sociocultural dimension of grammar, editors understood the recommendation as a return to communicative grammar. This has had a great impact on the dissemination of "la grammaire raisonnée" (rational grammar) and the approaches which promote grammartical reflection (Lapaire, 2010).

Textual Exigencies

Intrinsic factors include a few textual visibility retarders and translatability limiters which minimize interaction between reader/translator and text. They include:

- text difficulty,
- a high degree of formalism and abstraction, often inconsiderate of readers' background knowledge,
- unfamiliarity with new meanings assigned to old metalanguage (Ex. *Rhematic / thematic, metalinguisticity, natural metalanguage, operator, vectorial organization, invariance*, *saturation*, etc.). and
- density of the metalanguage.

The last factor is of prime importance as it poses the problematic of learner/translator reception of theorizing linguistic discourse. In his DEA lectures at the Institut du Monde Anglophone (1987-88), Adamczewski reiterated that research is made up of continuities and ruptures with the stable mainstream, but it is only with epistemic breaks that serious progress is achieved. He made clear that he belonged to the category of rupture initiators. For Adamczewski and many of his disciples, linguistic grammar announces not just a shift, but a new episteme.

Didactically, when a linguistic grammar breaks with mainstream approaches to language, it is in fact breaking with a constitutive element of student linguistic background, steadily constructed during the formative years of primary and secondary education. For first-year university students, an abrupt switch from communicative grammar to GLA questions and destabilizes their extensively accumulated grammatical knowledge. In a study seeking to assess the metalinguistic knowledge of a group of students enrolled in the first year of the English B.A. course at a French university, Lapaire (2016, pp.8-21) shows that mainstream grammatical

explanations of *aspect*, *modality* and *tense*, based on direct assignment of meaning to formal categories, are often reiterated by respondents. "[T]he average answers which formulate in ordinary (but conventional) words what *should* and *must* "express*", such as "advice", "duty" and "obligation"* are numerous." (transl. mine)

One possible explanation is that theoreticians often show more concern for their discourse content and coherence than for metalinguistic description and reception. Their theorizing endeavor is formulated in technical language and concepts. Vygotsky (1934/1986, pp.148-149) points to the weak aspect of these concepts, what he calls "verbalism", i.e. "excessive abstractness and detachment from reality." The fact these concepts are neither rooted in student linguistic experience nor defined in pedagogical glossaries is susceptible to maximize memorization and minimize mastery and effective use to solve subject-related problems.

What is paradoxical about theorizing grammatical discourse is while it announces itself a reader-oriented description or explanation of a language, the theory production act, to use Jauss's term (1982), is of such complexity that it transforms discourse into a writer-responsible process that impedes interaction and generates reader frustration. Unlike the student-reader, the translator-reader is not necessarily implied during the theory production phase. This renders interlingual transfer a very demanding activity especially when the translator is not knowledgeable enough about the theoretical framework to negotiate viable equivalents in the target language (TT).

Theorizing Grammatical Discourse: The Provisional Challenge of Translation

As a potential ST awaiting transfer from French into other languages, the work of Adamczewski requires a specific translator profile and detailed competencies in relation to the content, approach and metalanguage used in metaoperational linguistics.

Over the last three decades, translation has undergone profound transformations associated with the all-embracing technological achievements of the current digital era, as well as the profound changes in theoretical and applied linguistic research with the advent of performance-related disciplines, such as discourse analysis, text linguistics, pragmatics and corpus-linguistics. These changes have greatly alleviated the translation of most types of texts. They are detectable in a set of shifts, summarized in Table 2, which redefine the basic assumptions underlying translation itself and affect the translator profile.

Table 2. *Conventional vs. Contemporary Translation Approaches*

Conventional Approaches to Translation	**Current Approaches to Translation**
Equivalence is approached as sameness and identity.	Equivalence is approached as similarity, incorporating difference and relativity.
A ST has an ideal end-product.	A ST has more than one viable translation.
Translation effectiveness is approached as a binary conception (right/wrong).	Translation effectiveness is understood as a continuum.

Translation is a solo equivalence-based task.	Translation is interpretative and collaborative process.
Translation competence is skills- and language-based.	Translation competence has been radically altered in the age of electronic tools.
Translation quality enablers include human memory, dictionaries. grammar manuals and paper-based resources.	Translation quality are extended to include massive online collaboration, parallel and comparable corpora, web search engines, translation memories, etc.
Translation is a static linear activity.	Translation has become a dynamic, multi-medial and multi-modal activity.
Translation is approached as an isolated occurrence.	Translation is approached as a part of a continuum of texts (consensus translation).

A non-conventional translation of Adamczewski's linguistic discourse should therefore be relative, collaborative, interpretative and consensual that approaches a ST as a continuum of texts. It is also expected to build not only on the Metaoperational model, but also on enunciative linguistics in general.

The conceptual apparatus at work in this discourse falls into three categories:

- original metalanguage coined at different stages of the theoretical model by tenants of metaoperational linguistics and members of the CRELINGUA, such as Adamczewski, Delmas (1983, 1987 and 19993), Delechelle (1989) Girard (1993), Lancri, (1993) and few others. (Ex. *natural metalanguage*, *opérateurs-protées*…)

- metalanguage borrowed from other linguists: *metalinguistic* (Jakobsan, 1960) , *rheme, theme* (Halliday, 1967), *paradigmatic choice* (Saussure, 1916) or disciplines and charged with new meanings, such as *cyphering, encoding, decoding* (communication theory), *operation, operator, axis, invariant, vector, symmetry, Ø* (mathematics), *homeostasis* (biology), *phase, cyclicity principle* (sociology), *saturation* (chemistry/physics), *double keyboard* (music), *Protean operators* / opérateurs protées (Greek mythology)

- metalanguage owed to linguists from different persuasions and other disciplines and recharged with new meanings, such as *metalinguistic, rheme, theme, vector, symmetry,* etc.

A translationally helpful structuralist property of the metalanguage used is that it often works in binary oppositions and sometimes in triads as shown in these examples:

- Dichotomies: *rhematic / thematic status, linguistic subject / grammatical subject, binary / ternary predication or structure, utterance right / left orientation, open and closed paradigm, posé/presupposé, language and metalanguage, referential / metalinguistic value, visible operators (traces) / invisible operations, langue/ discours, énonciateur / co-énonciateur,*

intralingual / interlingual analysis, system / microsystem, V1 TO V2 vs V1V2-ING microstructures, invariant value / discourse effects, phase 1 / phase 2 markers.

- Triads: *extralinguistic / linguistic / metalinguistic, marker, operator, metaoperator, tense / phase /aspect, phonological / morphological / syntactic cyphering*, *status / scope / orientation, Ø-to-ing microsystem, etc.*

Decoding these oppositions is a pre-requisite to successful interlingual transfer. It entails close collaboration with members of the epistemic community, unless the translator is fairly knowledgeable with the theoretical model.

Adamczewski's discourse offers further comprehension and translation facilitators related to his writing strategy and persuasion techniques. It has demonstrated a manifest pedagogical concern marked essentially by systematic exemplification, careful corpus selection, comparisons with other languages, diversification of explicative and persuasive techniques and metadiscursivity, such as anticipating questions and providing explanations of why a given book chapter follows and precedes other ones. The writing strategy is linear and reader-responsible. It aims at empowering readers with the tools of analysis, not with lists of grammatical rules to memorize. The linear development by explanation-comparison-exemplification sporadically interferes with an almost mystical narrative tone revealing a deep admiration for grammatical systematicity as "a chef d'oeuvre de l'intelligence humaine" (DEA lectures, 1987). This form of unexpected expressivity is also detectable in the extensive use of metaphorical allusions: *la structure intime de la grammaire" / opérations souterraines / soudure prédicationnelle/ secret architecture of grammar/ (à/de as 'clignotons du discours' (indicators of a strategy shift) / diabolical pair/ les faits de langue/ l'épopée langagière, genèse de l'énoncé etc.*

The reader will find in *"La Philosophy Spontanée d'un Savan*t" (Toupin, 2015), additional constitutive features of Adamczewski's theorizing discourse. Such expressivity, although incompatible with conventional academic discourse is readable as a form of appeal to retain the reader in the text, and also as a sign of demarcation from dominant descriptions of languages.

In the pre-translation phase, reading a ST with an eye on its context of production, type of textual development, persuasion techniques, rhetorical specificities and affinities with other theoretical models is a very informative move that amounts to a translation quality enabler.

Conclusion: **Enunciative Linguistics, Invisibility or Survival?**

If the contribution of Adamczewski, and even Culioli, to the general linguistic theory has not been defined or assessed so far, there is no doubt that its emergence and development reflects the productivity and dynamism of the enunciation school. After more than three decades of intensive activity and application of the findings on different languages, the Adamczewskian model has not progressed since 2005. What is paradoxical is that the theory which developed in and by contrastivity has not received much confirmation from other natural languages, not because of a deficiency in the model but simply because there has been no systematic application to other languages. The problem now is no more of poor visibility, but rather of the survival of a linguistic model, if not of a whole school. Invisibility undermines motivation, but unproductivity accelerates extinction.

On another hand, a collective funded strategy to promote collaborative translation and dissemination of research in human and social sciences is more than a requirement. Rather, it is a form of resistance and empowerment. It is commonly accepted that scientific thought is universal, not a private property as it is indebted to and developed out of inter-tradition transfers (Greeks, Arabs, Europeans…); yet, the supposed universality ceases to be a noble principle and breaks with its historicity when the password for visibility and scientific credibility becomes the monopoly of a dominant language. One of the side effects of such linguistic monolithism is the reduction of the translation flow from and into languages other than the dominant one.

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Corpus-Assisted Critical Discourse Analysis of Saudi Vision 2030

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Abstract:
Saudi Vision 2030 is a plan to steer the country towards prosperity through diversified economy, better government services and conducive environment for all to thrive. The study of wordlists, keyword lists, collocation analyses, identification of core issues on the basis of lexical fields and their reflection in 2018 English newspapers in Saudi Arabia qualifies the corpus-assisted present study for Critical Discourse Analysis. The corpora of 4.3 million words and 2.0 million words from the English Newspapers in Saudi Arabia published in 2013 and 2018 respectively have been compiled for the study. Saudi Vision 2030 has been treated as a specialized corpus to get frequency lists and collocations. The analyses identified the extraordinary use of second person plural pronoun 'we' 'our', modal auxiliary 'will' etc.; such explorations paved the way for entry into more qualitative investigations. On the basis keyword lists, key issues have been identified in all three corpora. Some key issues including the largest lexical field in newspaper corpora viz. 'Security' has been found missing in the said vision. The present study aims to bring forth a fresh insight into Saudi Vision 2030 and to advocate the corpus-assisted methodology for critical discourse analysis.

Keywords: lexical fields, key issues, keyword lists, Saudi Vision 2030, wordlists
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1. Introduction:

The future plans or the vision for a country is generally is a document that presents the transformational plan to enable the country to meet the current and future needs of the country in a better way. Saudi vision 2030 (SV2030, when referred to corpus) promises thorough transformations and the uplift of various indicators internationally presented by Crown Prince Mohammad Bin Salman. It is one of the most important documents for Saudi Arabia in recent history. Its far-reaching impact nationally and internationally invited the attention of the present researchers. The corpus-assisted research, on the basis of numerous instances, has the advantage of sifting through the huge data objectively. On the other hand, critical discourse analysis paves the way for looking into the issues that remain obscured otherwise. The combination of corpus-assisted research and critical discourse analysis usually produce optimal results as is the case with the present research. The present research is a kind of "bottom-up" Biber, Connor & Upton (2007) research as it started with the study of wordlists and keyword lists. This study has three sections: Wordlists and Keyword Lists Analysis, Identification of Key Issues, and Pronouns and Modal Verbs analysis.

2. Data Collection and Methodology:

Two corpora namely Saudi Newspaper Corpus (SNC 2013) and Saudi Newspaper Corpus (SNC 2018) from the years 2013 and 2018 (first quarter of the years) respectively, have been compiled. The size of SNC 2013 is 4.3 million words and that of SNC 2018 is 2.0 million words. The texts have been collected for both the corpora from Arab News, Saudi Gazette, Asharq Al-Awast, and Saudi Press Agency. The complete texts from the newspapers have been added to the corpus. The SV2030 (12000 words) has been converted to plain text to be used as a Specialized corpus. To get the keywords from SV2030, SNC 2018 and SNC 2013 have been used as Reference Corpora. However, to obtain the keywords from SNC 2018 and SNC 2013 corpora, we needed a larger corpus. Brown Family corpora and PWE (Pakistani Written English, compiled by one of the authors of this paper) were available. These available corpora were combined to make a large corpus of 6 million words to be used as a reference corpus. The wordlists and keyword lists have been prepared by using WordSmith 7, Antconc 3.5.7, CasualConc 2, and Sketch Engine has been used to study the lexis and concordance lines in details. The key issues have been identified from keyword lists manually on the basis of lexical fields. The concordance lines have been studied from WordSmith 7 to ensure the context of occurrences and to avoid Widdowsonian criticism "the text travels but the context does not travel with it" (Widdowson, 2002).

3. Literature Review:

A corpus is a "naturally occurring" (Sinclair, 1991, p. 171) representative sample of a given language (Francis & Kucera, 1982, p. 7) that is "machine-readable" (Engwall, 1992, p. 167) and has "a finite-sized body" (McEnery & Wilson, 1996, p. 32) and "a specific set of criteria" (Bowker & Pearson, 2004, p. 9). The general-purpose corpora have been around for more than half a century. The size of corpora varies from a few thousand to giga-words corpora. The specialized corpora are usually smaller and "more qualitative-based analyses tend to be carried out on specialized corpora as their size and composition make them more manageable for qualitative studies" McCarthy and Carter (2001) cited in Flowerdew (2004). Multi-million words specialized corpora are not uncommon e.g. 5-million-word Cambridge and Nottingham Corpus of Discourse in English (CANCODE). The size of the specialized corpora depends on the needs and purpose of

the study Flowerdew (2004). Finally, Baker's (2010) stance in favor of small-scale corpus-assisted analyses paved the way for the present research. The present research benefited from the insight generated by "how opinions are formed and expressed through language" (Baker, 2006); "argument structures" (Koteyko et al., 2013); "framing analysis" Touri and Koteyko (2014); "CDA of News Reports" Chan (2013); "CDA and Synergy" Gabrielatos & Duguid (2014); "Keyness Analysis" Gabrielatos (2018) etc. on corpus linguistics and Critical Discourse Analysis.

Discourse analysis enables linguists and social scientists to explore endless aspects of human interaction and how the message is mediated between the speaker and the interlocutors. The discourse study can be further augmented by the corpus to explore the underlying patterns that help create a slant. Schiffrin, Tannen, and Hamilton (2001) presented three dimensions of discourse analysis: the study of language use, the study of linguistic structure "beyond the sentence", and the study of social practices and ideological assumptions. Biber, Connor and Upton (2007) developed a seven-step approach to discourse analysis and proposed to use it as "top-down" or "bottom-up" (p.25). The present research is aligned with the first dimension "study of language use" and "bottom up" approach. Upton and Cohen (2009) explores "why languages have structural variants with nearly equivalent meanings e.g. particle movement, as in "pick up the book" versus "pick the book up" (p.2). Moreover, the present research reflects Hoey's (1997) call for examining whether words are associated with a particular positioning in the overall textual organization, and on the other hand, it explores the "system of statements which constructs an object" (Parker 1992, p.5).

Pronouns function a key role in political discourses and empower the users to control the power relations through varying referents of the pronouns they use. Pennycook (1994) observed that pronouns are a useful tool in the hands of the politicians to manipulate the discourse. Makutis (2016) found exclusive 'we' as 'I + government' in her data of UN speeches. Politicians reap full benefits of the 'inclusive' and exclusive' use of 'we-pronoun'. 'we' can refer to the speaker and the audience, speaker and the government, speaker and ministry (or a particular group representing government or opposition), speaker and the panelists, and/or speaker and likeminded people etc. Wilson (1990) gauges the referents of 'we' ranging from we as 'self and one other' to we as 'self and humanity'. The "institutional identity" can be created by 'we' pronoun (Sacks, 1992, p.334). Clusivity – a rather recent term in discourse studies – offers a great insight in the study of discourse through personal pronouns. The "Clusivity" refers to the inclusiveness and exclusiveness of the addressee in a discourse (Wieczorek, 2013). Clusivity has been studied morphologically by (Cysouw, 2005a), syntactically by (Dobrushina & Goussev, 2005) semantically by (Lichtenberk 2005) and pragmatically by Wieczorek, 2010). First person pronouns are important in "Legitimizing" (Wieczorek, 2013) as it enhances the acceptability and justification of the idea or decision to convince people. Kneuer maintains 'this "we-identity" is basic insofar as it justifies the obligation of solidarity that underlies community' (2011, p.3 cited in Wieczorek, 2013). Likewise, Cameron (2001) considers using 'we' instead of "American people and I" creates more sense of unity and belongingness. The insight gathered from the above-mentioned scholars paved the way to study the extensive use of 'we' and 'our' in the Saudi Vision 2030 in the present study.

Modality is seen as the relation of utterance with reality or non-reality from the point of view of the speaker. Due to the inherent philosophic nature of modality, various categories of

Modality have been presented e.g. von Wright's 'alethic, epistemic, deontic, and existential' (1951 p.1-2); Nuyts "epistemic, deontic, and dynamic" (2005, p.2); Gabrielatos "Likelihood, Desirability (directed), Desirability (non-directed), and Propensity" (2010) etc. The role of modal verbs cannot be overemphasized in a discourse as they show the speaker's intentions, obligations, possibilities and desires in time. Bell (1991) classifies addressee as audience and auditors; and maintained that auditors are not present at the time of delivery yet they influence the choice of language used by the speaker. The role of auditors becomes even more potent in "Commissive Modality". Nartey and Yankson (2014) observed that "modal auxiliary verbs are used extensively in the manifesto to give the message a sense of intention, promise, obligation and necessity in a conscious and strategic attempt to persuade the electorate" (p.21). Modal verbs express intentions and obligations with various degrees of pragmatic forces should/must, time frames can/could, certainty will/shall etc. However, a single modal verb can perform various functions e.g. 'I will see you in the evening' may be seen as a 'promise', 'threat', 'possibility' and 'willingness' etc., as shown by Abdul-Fattah (2011) also "volitional will, epistemic will and deontic shall fit in: a. John will meet Mary. (volition - will is accented) b. That will be John at the door. (Epistemic - strong possibility) c. You shall abide by the traffic law(Deontic)" (p.42)

4. Analyses and Discussions:

4.1 Wordlists and Keyword lists

The starting point of the present research is sifting through the wordlists to get the 'feel' of the corpus. The wordlist of SV2030 has been created to identify the most frequent items (content and grammatical words) in the corpus. Saudi Vision 2030 has been downloaded from the official website in pdf and then has been converted to .txt format.

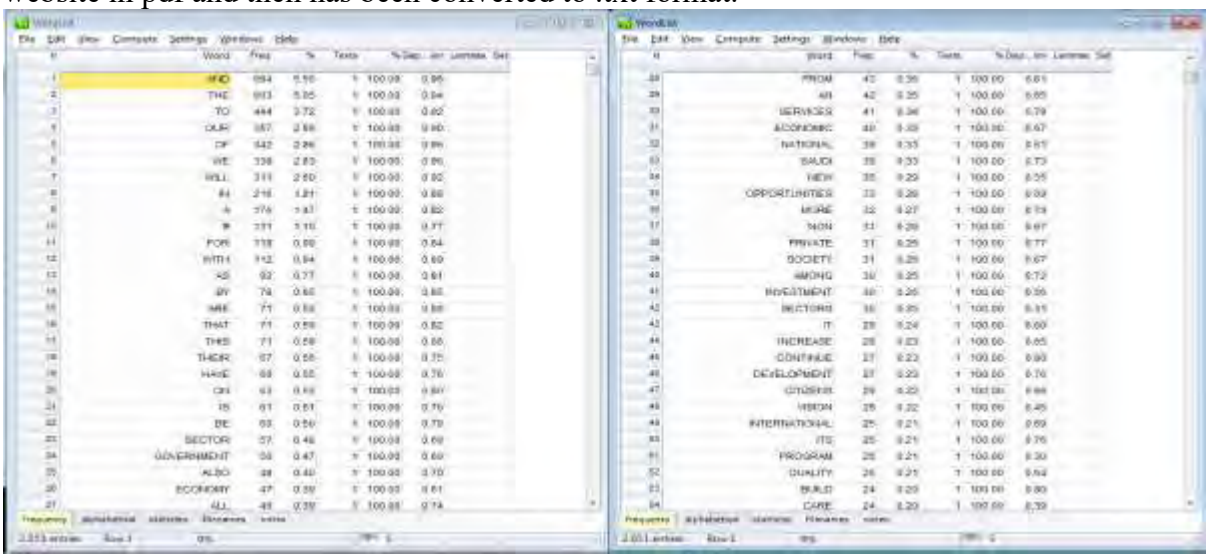

Figure.1 Wordlist of SV2030 from WordSmith 7

We can see the high frequency of pronouns e.g. 'our', 'we', 'will', 'their', from the fig.1. On the other hand, we can see 'sector', 'government', 'economy', services' etc. among most frequent nouns; and ''economic', 'national', 'Saudi', 'new' and 'private' etc among most frequent adjectives. Saudi Vision 2030 has been presented and addressed to the nation by the Crown Prince,

so ‘our’ and ‘we’ may be interpreted as the current regime of Saudi Arabia. On the basis of the wordlist, we find ‘economic’ concerns are at the heart of the document.

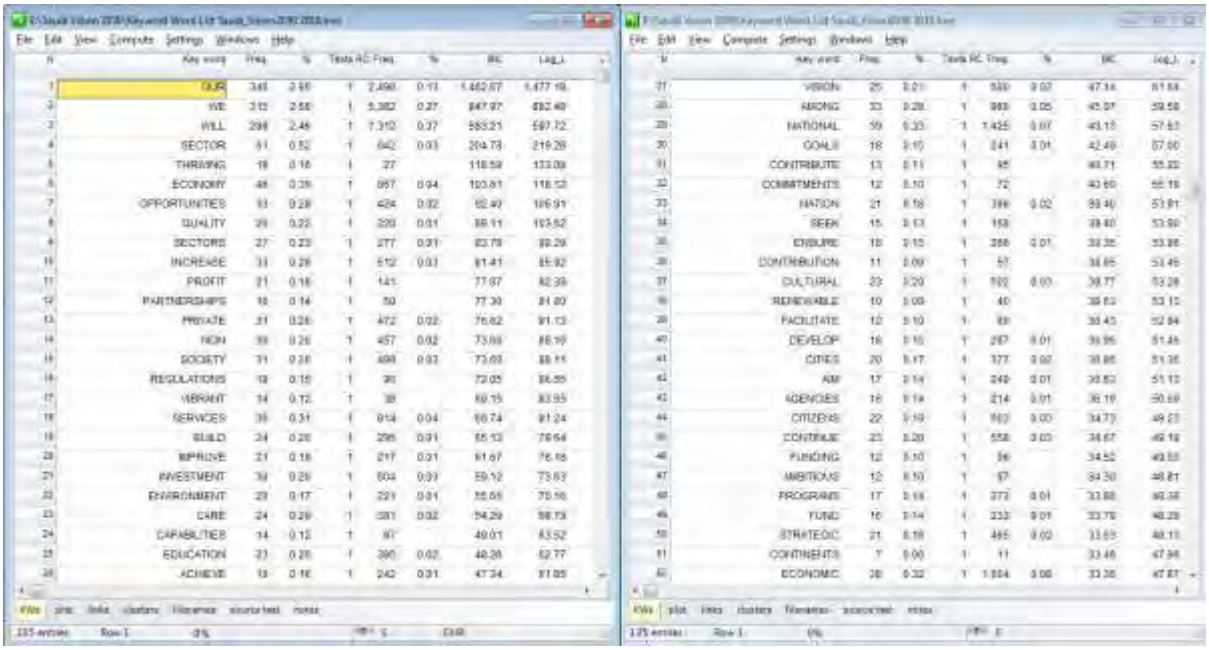

Figure. 2 Keywords list in SV2030 compiled against SNC 2018 from WordSmith 7

The keyword list of SV2030 has been calculated from WordsSmith 7 and SNC 2018 has been used as Reference Corpus. The keyword list has been sorted according to Log likelihood to explore the keyness. The pronouns ‘our’ and ‘we’ showed the highest value of keyness along with ‘will’ in the keyword list. These are the only grammatical words that appear among the first 100 keywords. Only these three words comprise above 8% of the whole document. The next 4 keywords in the list: ‘sector’, ‘thriving’, ‘economy’, and ‘opportunities’ are all about economic activities. ‘Sector’ mainly collocates with ‘private’ and ‘energy’; ‘thriving’ is only used with ‘economy’- the second most frequent noun keyword – has L1 collocates ‘thriving’ and ‘our’; ‘opportunities’ collocates with ‘job’ 9 times and the rest of occurrences are in the context of economy. Some words that may occur in the contexts other than ‘economy’ easily, but in SV2030 have been noted in the context of economy e.g. ‘Increase’ and ‘cities’ has context in figure 3:

Concordance

its coverage and capacity within and **around cities** and improving its quality . Our specific goal is
ENVIRONMENT, RESTRUCTURE OUR **ECONOMIC CITIES,** CREATE SPECIAL ZONES AND DEREGULATE THE
Economic City. We will strive to salvage other **economic cities,** especially those with comparative advantages. To
ECONOMIC CITIES We are aware that the **economic cities** of the last decade did not realize their potential.
of our national economy. REHABILITATING **ECONOMIC CITIES** We are aware that the economic cities of the last
LIVING ENVIRONMENT DEVELOPING OUR CITIES **Our cities** already enjoy high levels of security and
accidents and minimize their tragic consequences. **Our cities** have grown significantly in recent decades; a
, our country and citizens are safe and secure. **Our cities** are among the safest in the world with annual crime
ATTRACTIVE LIVING ENVIRONMENT DEVELOPING **OUR CITIES** Our cities already enjoy high levels of security and
90 percent housing coverage in densely **populated cities** and 66 percent in other urban zones. We will also
did not realize their potential. Work has halted in **several cities,** and others face challenges that threaten their
to work with the government. Our aim is for **these cities** to contribute in the development of the economy and
this, we will work with the companies owning **those cities** to revamp them and transfer vital facilities. This
of real estate. We will allocate prime areas **within cities** for educational institutions, retail and entertainment

Figure.3 Concordance lines of ‘cities’ in SV2030

Concordance

of goods and develop necessary sectoral regulations . We will **also increase financing** of small retail enterprises to stimulate their
enhance the capability, efficiency and productivity of care and treatment **and increase the** options available to our citizens. To achieve this goal, we will
revenue stream. Non-oil revenues will increase as logistical and trade **flows increase, and** as we grow a more diversified and balanced Saudi economy.
points by 2020. This would be a substantial achievement given the **high increase in** the number of new entrants to the housing market. We will meet
of the real estate project in one single phase, which caused a **significant increase in** construction costs and several delays in delivery. This resulted in
. Even though 47 percent of Saudi families already own their homes, we aim **to increase this** rate by five percentage points by 2020. This would be a
26 to 10 in the Social Capital index AMONG OUR GOALS BY 2030 • • • IP **To increase the** average life expectancy from 74 years to 80 years AMONG
and improve our competitiveness. We will develop the necessary capabilities **to increase the** quality and reliability of our services. We will coordinate with
top 15 To increase the localization of oil and gas sectors from 40% to 75% **To increase the** Public Investment Fund's assets, from SAR 600 billion to over 7
we have fewer than 1,000 non-profit foundations and associations. In order **to increase the** resilience and impact of this sector, we will continue to develop
foreign direct investment from 3.8% to the international level of 5.7% of GDP **To increase the** private sector's contribution from 40% to 65% of GDP AMONG
, and international brands across all regions of the country. We also aim **to increase the** contribution of modern trade and e-commerce to 80 percent of
our current position as the 19th largest economy in the world into the top 15 **To increase the** localization of oil and gas sectors from 40% to 75% To increase
of and designed a new fundamental strategy for the district in order **to increase the** chances of profitability and success. We will seek to transform
GOALS BY 2030 To lower the rate of unemployment from 11.6% to 7% **To increase SME** contribution to GDP from 20% to 35% AN EDUCATION THAT
of government spending. Shared services in our government will also aim **to increase quality,** cut costs, unify our efforts, and provide a suitable work
them and we will build the capability to monitor this transition. We will seek **to increase private** sector contribution by encouraging investments, both local
VIBRANT SOCIETY.. WITH STRONG ROOTS AMONG OUR GOALS BY 2030 **To increase our** capacity to welcome Umrah visitors from 8 million to 30 million
their performance AN AMBITIOUS NATION.. EFFECTIVELY GOVERNED **To increase non-oil** government revenue from SAR 163 billion to SAR 1 Trillion To
of the private sector, it currently contributes less than 40 percent of GDP. **To increase its** long-term contribution to our economy, we will open up new
NATION.. RESPONSIBLY ENABLED AMONG OUR GOALS BY 2030 • **To increase household** savings from 6% to 10% of total household income To
position of 25 to the top 10 countries on the Global Competitiveness Index **To increase foreign** direct investment from 3.8% to the international level of 5.7%
enhanced logistics services ECONOMY AND HELP SAUDI COMPANIES **TO INCREASE EXPORTS** OF THEIR PRODUCTS. WE WILL LEVERAGE THE CLOSE

Figure.4 Concordance lines of 'increase' in SV2030

The concordance lines of all the key issues in SV2030 have been studied to verify their context e.g. concordance line no. 1, 7 and 8 of the word 'cities'; and concordance line no. 2, 8 and 17 do not have the context of economy. The predominant use of these words is in the economic context made the researchers place them under the key issue of 'economy'. Hence, the predominant use of each keyword has been kept in mind while placing them the key issues.

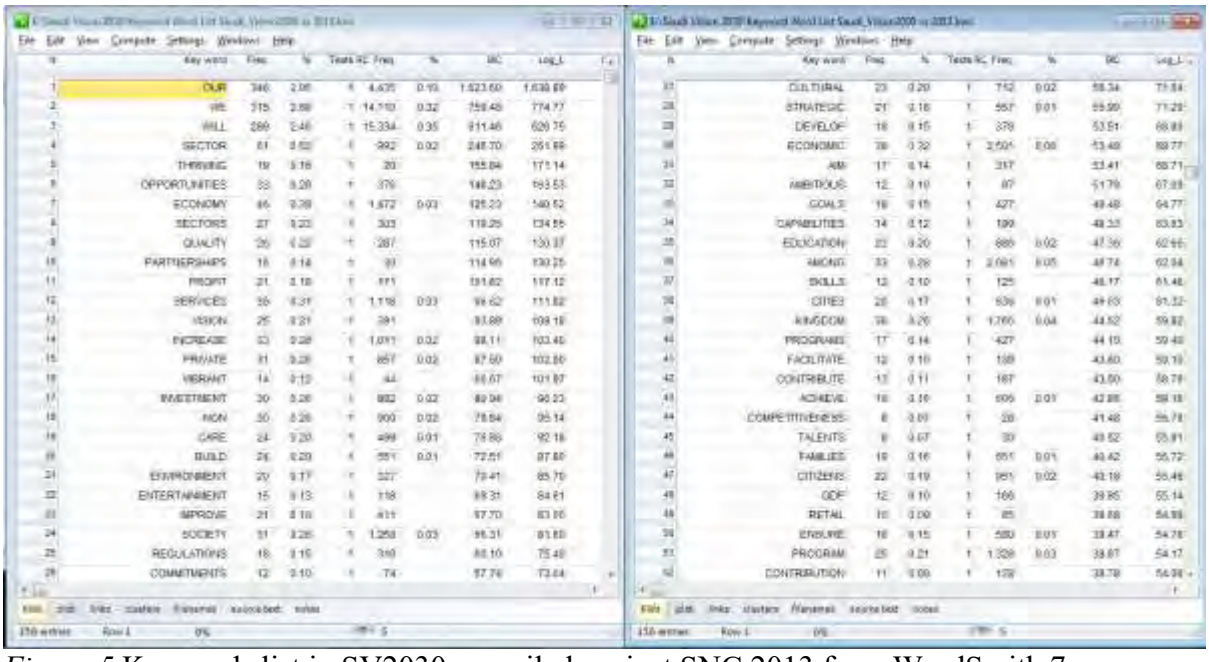

Figure.5 Keywords list in SV2030 compiled against SNC 2013 from WordSmith 7

Some interesting findings have been noted in the comparison of Keyword lists of SV2030 against SNC 2018 and SNC 2013 corpora. Both the keyword lists have striking similarities: keywords at the first 10 ranks are either similar or they are from the nearby ranks; keywords at the first 30 ranks from SNC 2108 are available in SNC 2013 with one exception 'national' that is ranked 84 in the later; all the keywords at the first 50 ranks in SNC 2018 are available in SNC 2013 within first 100 ranks with only one exception 'agencies' that is ranked 105 in the later. Such close similarities (the words with high keyness of SV2030 in the reference corpora) in both the keyword lists show that the issues in Saudi Vision 2030 are underrepresented in the newspapers. On the other hand, it was expected that there will be more representation of Saudi Vision 2030 in SNC 2018 than its presence in SNC 2103. We can note the focused and consistent presence of these high-frequency words in SV2030 that reflects the priorities of the regime.

The study of concordance lines of these top-ranked words in the keyword lists also reveals the major concerns of Saudi Vision 2030. It mainly is about 'we' the regime's efforts to improve economy using the 'Commissive Modality' of 'will'. It reflects the Commissive Illocutionary act by the speaker. Keeping in view, the high status of the speaker – the Crown Prince – these Commissive acts have high perlocutionary value; hence, more convincing for the general public.

4.2 Key Issues from Keywords:

The key issues have been compiled on the basis of Lexical Fields. The keywords that belong to the same lexical field have been placed together to be called an issue. Such an investigation provides the opportunity to study the discourse from a broader perspective.

Table.1 *Key Issues in SV2030 vs SNC 2018*

Key Issues Saudi in vision 2030 vs SNC 2018 Total frequency= 1338					
Economy (433)	**Economy (433)**	**Education (73)**	**Health (45)**	**Society (145)**	**Culture (41)**
economy	fund	education	health	society	cultural
thriving	economic	learning	care	vibrant	entertainment
sector	GDP	skills	**Private (103)**	services	**Development (195)**
profit	retail	talents	sector	cities	establish
increase	job	training	private	citizens	development
partnership	Assets	knowledge	privatization	families	opportunities
private	investments	**Government (167)**	corporatization	**National (60)**	quality
sector	capabilities	partnership	corporations	national	build
investment	regulations	regulations	**Environment (30)**	kingdom	improve
contribute	cities	services	environment	**Geography (12)**	progress
funding	strategic	agencies	renewable	continents	resources
	competitiveness	priorities	**Islam (34)**	regionally	create
		performance	Islamic		restructuring
			umrah		developing

It is clear from table.1 that the key issue 'economy' is the largest issue in terms of member keywords and frequency. 'development', 'government' and 'society' as key issues occupy the 2nd, 3rd and 4th positions (as per members and frequency) in the table respectively. The frequency of these key issues reflects the emphasis of these issues in the Saudi Vision 2030 and the priorities of the regime. The five least stressed key issues (as per members keywords and frequency) include 'health', 'Islam', 'national', 'geography' and 'culture'. The collective frequency of these 5 key issues is much less than the frequency of the largest key issue 'economy'. Once again, the economic uplift of the country has been the major concern in this section of the study.

Table. 2 *Key Issues in SNC 2018 vs Brown Family Corpora + PWE*

Key Issues SNC 2018 vs Brown family and PWE					
Economy	**Government**	**Islam**	**Security**	**Security**	**Society**
corporation	minister	pilgrims	Militia	violence	camels
Aramco	security	Makkah	Daesh	bullets	citizens
companies	protests	Ramadan	defense	tensions	family
economy	officials	Haj	forces	fighters	camels
strategic	ministry		guards	killed	
investment	authority	**Geography**	attacks	terror	**National**
oil	statement	region	threats	stability	kingdom
	registration	global	ISIS	**Culture**	regime
Development	vision	province	terrorist	sports	Arabian
grow	military	regional	attack	heritage	Saudis
Private	forces	Arab	border	tourism	**Environment**
	officials	Arabian	Taliban	visitors	
Education	defense		activists	football	
	leader		**Health**	entertainment	
	intelligence			festival	

Table 2 shows key issues that have been identified from the keywords obtained from SNC 2018 against Brown Family corpora (Brown + Frown + Lob + Flob) and PWE (Pakistani Written English). Brown Family corpora and PWE are general purpose corpora. Brown Family corpora have 15 distinct text genres and the total words of brown family corpora are around 4 million words. PWE - Pakistani Written English, a 2.1 million words resource – has been compiled from 27 text genres. The keywords of SNC 2018 and SNC 2013 have been calculated against such general-purpose corpora because: (i) the major part of these corpora has been collected from newspapers, (ii) general purpose and balanced corpora may allow the extraction of newspaper specific features as keywords, (iii) and the research had these corpora available. All the key issues in SV2030 have been searched in the keywords of SNC 2018 and SNC 2013. Some of the key issues, identified in SV2030, were missing in the keyword lists of SNC 2018 and SNC 2013. However, the key issue 'Security' has been added to the table as it emerged the largest key issue (in terms of member keywords and frequency) in both the corpora.

Table.3 *Key Issues in SNC 2013 vs Brown Family Corpora + PWE*

Key Issues SNC 2013 vs Brown family and PWE					
Economy	**Private**	**Security**	**Security**	**Education**	**Environment**
oil		brotherhood	clashes		
corporation	**Geography**	islamists	islamist	**Government**	**Islam**
economy	region	rebels	groups	ministry	haj
	border	protests	rebel	forces	islamic
Development	interior	protesters	fighting	police	sheikh
humanitarian	regional	attack	conflict	weapons	pilgrims
		attacks	militants	official	mosques
Society	**Health**	violence	terrorist	army	mahram
civilians		revolution	uprising	defense	mosque
	Culture	fighters	militias	troops	Salafists
National	scored	supports	killing		
region	team	sectarian	activists		
kingdom	tourism				

The comparison of Key issues in SV2030 with SNC 2018 and SNC 2013 reveals that most of the key issues present in SV2030 are also available in other keyword lists. It can also be noted that more key issues of SV2030 are present in SNC 2018 than in SNC 2013. This finding may be attributed to the echo of Saudi Vision 2030 in newspapers of 2018. However, some key issues of SV2030 are absent in the key issues of SNC 2018 e.g. 'health', 'education, and 'environment' and in SNC 2013 e.g. 'private', 'health', 'education', and 'environment'. It can be easily noticed that 'economy' – the most frequent key issue- in SV2030 present in the Key issues of SNC 2018 and SNC 2013 but not emphasized in the newspapers. The most prominent feature of this section of the present study is the key issue 'security'. This key issue is the largest lexical field in both the newspaper corpora. It did not emerge as a key issue in SV2030. However, it does not mean that it is completely absent in SV2030 but the member words in this key issue are less frequent as it is evident in fig 6.

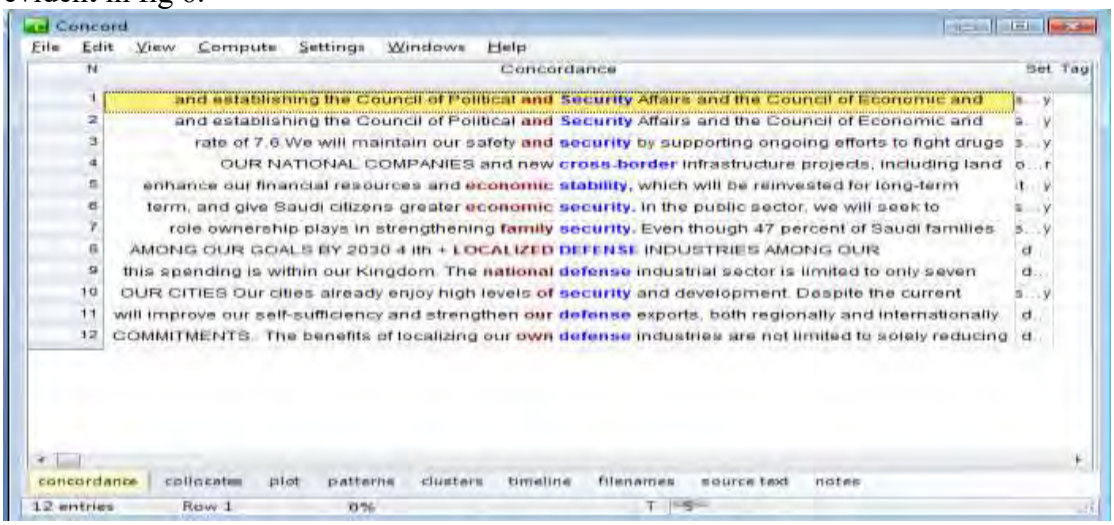

Figure.6 Frequency of words in the key issue 'security'

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The figure. 6 shows the frequency of all items in the key issue 'security' as 12 in SV2030. The concordance lines show there are at least two instances (line 5 and 6) where 'security' is in the context of 'economy'. The low frequency of the items in key issue 'security' may be attributed to the mention of 'establishing the Council of Political and Security Affairs'; and the said council will be responsible for all issues related to security.

4.3 Personal Pronouns: 'we' 'our' and 'They' and Modal verb 'will'

4.3.1 Personal Pronouns 'We' and 'Our'

The use of personal pronouns plays an important role in any discourse situation. The referent of the personal pronouns is key to that leads to economical expressions and help create a discourse with the dynamics of 'US' vs 'Them etc. Group identities, role and social positions of the participants, inclusion and exclusion strategies are useful in creating a discourse. Our focus in this research is on 'we' and 'our' because of their high frequencies 338 and 357 respectively in a rather small document (Saudi Vision 2030) of 12000 words. 'we' has both 'inclusive' and 'exclusive' uses in English. when it is used inclusively, it includes the addresser and addressee; and its exclusive usage excludes addressee from the discourse. However, things are not so simple. 'we' can include the addressee directly or it can include the other members of the group (excluding the addressee), in even in their absence. It can also refer to the person(s) mentioned earlier including the speaker. We have the use of 'we' as royal 'we' referring to 'I' actually. 'we' can function in the discourse to create group solidarity, unity and belongingness.

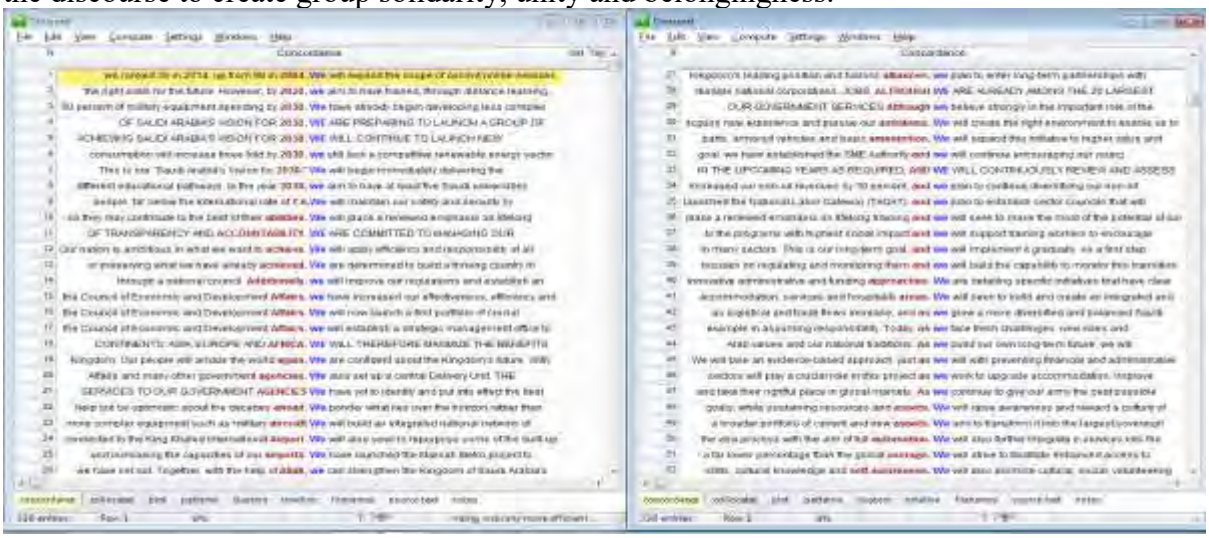

Figure.7 Concordance lines of 'we' in SV2030

As Saudi Vision 2030 is a written document, it's addressees are country-men. The majority of the usage of 'we' in SV2030 refers to the regime as shown in fig. 8. The concordance lines 1-5 show the use of 'we' as 'government'; however, in line 6 'we' refer to the country, not the government. In line 19, 'we' can refer to the regime and the country-men both. In line 26, 'we' again refers to country-men and the regime more explicitly by mentioning a clue 'together' in the sentence. This kind of usage of 'we' distinguishes the referents and shows a distance; but the common aim binds the two referents together to create solidarity. In line 28, 'we' refers to Saudi Arabia only, and comfortably it can be replaced with 'Saudi Arabia'. Choosing 'we' at such instances clearly shows the preference to create solidarity with masses so that they may be more convinced and to involve them for the implementation stage.

4.3.2 Modal Verb 'will'

The modal verb 'will' has been used 311 times in SV2030. The second most frequent modal verb is 'can' (freq. 19). The collective frequency of all other modal verbs is less than a dozen. The strongest collocate of 'will' is 'we' at L1 position with 201 occurrences. The main collocates of 'will' at R1 are 'be' (freq. 35), 'also' (freq. 38), 'continue' (freq. 21), 'seek' (freq. 13). Out of the 9 occurrences of 'shall', 6 times it came with 'we'; the use of 'shall' is only Commissive i.e. as promises. 4 occurrences of 'will' collocating with 'it at L1 position, are the only examples where 'will' has a meaning other than 'promise'. The 'it will' occurrences are predictions by nature. The passive structure of 'will be' lends an air of automaticity in the presence of Commissive 'will' as the natural outcome of those promises. The fact that 'may' (freq. 5) has 4 occurrences with 'Allah' as prayers; and no occurrence of 'might' in SV2030 shows the nature of document on possibility clan of 'will-can-may-might'. The document expresses the issues of national importance with high confidence and avoids or minimize the use of the modal verbs at the right-most side of the band.

5. Conclusion:

The present research explored the linguistic features of Saudi Vision 2030 and brought forth the findings through corpus-assisted analyses that would remain obscure from the eye of the reader otherwise. The high frequency of 'we, our, will' that was noted in the first section of the present research (in the wordlist of SV2030) remained a very useful observation throughout the study; as it turned out to be the first three keywords with the highest keyness in the second section of the study (Keyword lists); and in the last section of the study (pronouns and modal verbs), the same set of words generated the insight for analysis. The underlying semantic structures of the Saudi Vision 2030 express the promises through Commissive Modality of 'will' by the regime (occasionally, the regime and the country-men) 'we' and 'our'. The use of personal pronouns in the said Vision has been related to creating the in-group dynamics to win the confidence of the addressees. The present research identified the priorities of the regime through the comparison of key issues in SV2030 with SNC 2018 and SNC 2013. The less presence of the key issues of SV2030 in SNC 2013 and their presence in SNC 2018 has been attributed to reflection of Saudi Vision 2030 in the 2018 newspapers. The largest key issue 'security' in both the newspaper corpora but its absence in SV2030 as a key issue reveals the differences between newspaper coverage and the Saudi Vision 2030. The present research benefited from a total of just above 8 million words corpora; however, it cannot claim a very high degree of reliability as the reference corpora SNC 2018 and SNC 2013 could include limited coverage of the newspapers only. The present research added to existing knowledge and paved the way further towards the use of corpora in discourse analyses.

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The Wider Social Context of School and Thai EFL University Learners

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Abstract
The objectives of this study are to investigate a group of 14 Thai English as a Foreign Language (EFL) students' views on their learning context outside the classroom and the extent to which it has an influence on their English learning in their tertiary education. From the language classroom comes further the wider social context of university in which EFL students learn outside the formal learning environment in relation to the opportunities to use and to be exposed to the target language. Two data collection methods are employed: questionnaires and interviews. It is revealed that the students perceive that the wider social context indeed influences their learning experiences outside as well as in the language classroom in two major aspects: self-development in English use and drawing on English as a common means of communication or a lingua franca (ELF) whereby there is an implicit search for similarities through English. Many further report that the specific university culture and its environment play a great role in their English learning, motivating or demotivating them to use English for communication. Implications from the study can be made to Thai EFL universities to focus on the stance on English and their efforts to make the school environment more conducive to English use and learning.

Keywords: English as a foreign language (EFL) English as a lingua franca (ELF), school Culture, social context, university learners

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Introduction

The wider school context is a social context in which informal opportunities could be available to learners for language use and learning. With these informal opportunities, the researcher believes that learners can engage in genuine and meaningful interaction with different people, teachers and peers alike, in their daily activities in a school or university setting. In the process, they can be exposed, for example, to a wide variety of language systems in use such as vocabulary and language structures. These informal opportunities, nonetheless, depend on the school's organisation and setting. These relate to the institution's rationale, priorities and goals which can create opportunities where foreign language learners are able to develop their language within the school environment (Spolsky, 1989). In this instance, the wider social context outside the classroom may also constitute a power incentive or/and disincentive for further learning (Candlin & Mercer, 2001). In the case of Thailand, this is an important issue because schools and universities are on the whole encouraged to promote the use of English outside the formal classroom as a means of supporting classroom learning.

To begin with, some background information on a university environment where this research was conducted is needed. The university represents an international community of students and teachers where English is used as a medium of instruction across all subjects. For the researcher, this context is thus considered unique and worth studying. Understanding how the wider school context could impact the way English is learned and perceived means that it would help to see how the learners could engage in their learning context outside the classroom to improve their English language use.

The issue of school culture and English learning in Thailand needs addressing. In fact, studies have shown that the social climate of a school can influence the variety of student outcomes from social-emotional functioning and behaviour to grades and educational performance (Cook et al. 2000). A caring and positive school climate has been shown to foster attachment to school or university, which in sequence promotes learning, To understand the learners' wider school experiences, it is important that these areas or issues be discussed. Generally, universities in Thailand have different orientations towards English learning. These could relate to university culture and, in particular, university leadership, such as whether the university administrators are in favour of promoting English use within the wider social context of university. This is because university culture includes the professional culture of educators, standards of local organisation and administrative practice (Husén & Postlethwaite, 1994). Thus, the way universities at large perceive English learning could also account for the way English can be used by learners within such environments. If English learning is well-taken for examination purposes, universities may concentrate on classroom learning where the focus is on learners' passing the examinations. In this case, contexts outside the classroom would seem insignificant to developing learners' proficiency in English. This relates to the notion presented by Spolsky (1989) that school or university rationale, priorities and goals for the target language are vital as they seem to determine whether learners can use English outside the language classroom either to practise or to continue learning the target language.

Two main research questions in the study are:

1. What are the perceptions of Thai EFL university learners of their learning context outside the classroom at university?
2. How does the wider university context help the learners improve their English?

Literature Review

Universities both public and private are set up for the purpose of providing a controlled and supportive learning environment with educational facilities for learners to excel academically and in co-curricular activities. In other words, university students are to be provided with different learning experiences so that they can enhance their potentiality to develop academically and socially. For English learning, an environment where learners are afforded a range of English learning experiences where they can use and be exposed to the language in the classroom as well as outside the classroom is therefore necessary (Malmkjær & Williams, 1998).

By and large universities have different orientations towards the learning of English. Some universities' rationale for English learning seems to be confined to examinations (Ewell, 2004). It would appear that if a university focused on English learning in terms of examinations, learners would have a different conception of learning English since they would prioritize studying English to pass examinations rather than learning English outside the classroom for true communicative purposes. On the contrary, if a university intended to be an English speaking community and had a policy to ensure that English is a dominant subject in university, English would be viewed as a language that would benefit learners in many different ways at present and in the future. English, this way, is perceived as an integral and necessary part of the administration, curriculum and social practices of the school (Corson, 1990).

Support for English learning at university

It can be said that all universities in Thailand provide support for learning English outside of the classroom. These university support programmes normally range from formal to relatively informal activities involving learners from different forms (Bakhurst, 2009). Such programmes seem to involve all university students despite their English language proficiency. Some promote highly proficient English language learners as peer role models for low proficient learners through different activities where efforts are made to establish a community of practice where less able English learners could learn from the more able ones. There have been universities providing facilities such as a radio station where learners can be exposed to English through radio broadcasts and some provide access to television and movie shows in English for learners which could be through an on-site viewing facility or movie rental service.

In addition to facilities, these seems to be other forms of informal support for English learning at school such as an English club run by students, a toastmaster or debate club to enhance public speaking skills and so on. On top of that, activities and programs supporting and encouraging easy-going English learning are arranged relatively by universities (Coffield, 2000).

It would be rational to argue that differences in students' attitudes would arise if some universities have specific policy or strategies to improve students' English proficiency while some do not. Clearly, universities with specific policy where different programmes are drawn to focus

on different aspects of learners' language development would focus on learners' affective dimension as well so that students could be reassured about using English confidently within the university environment without feeling awkward or reluctant.

Learners and English: Opportunities to use and to be exposed to the language

To understand learners' social experiences with English within the wider social context of school, learners' perceptions of their friends, teachers and administrators in light of the university culture and English learning as a basis for understanding their experiences in context are to be investigated (Van Marsenille, 2015). In certain university culture, students may find speaking English difficult for fear of incorrectness. Thus, learners' views about the university community's use of English could account for the difficulty or simplicity they find in speaking English.

What appears to be most influential when it comes to the wider university context is the way university administrators manage learning in university and set an example by using the language evidently which could influence how the whole school approaches the issue of learning the English language (Parr, 2014). These insights seem to indicate that strong leadership and models are important in universities in Thailand.

Further insights into the learners' experiences with English can be offered through informal school practice which refers to the learners' perceptions of and responses to various school initiatives and efforts to extend their use and learning of English outside the classroom (Van Marsenille, 2015). This implies where there are opportunities for students to use and to learn English through informal support activities provided or supported by universities. Opportunities to use English are up to learners as well because if they do not feel that they need to improve or emerge themselves in English, these activities would not be of their interest which relates to how learners feel about themselves in terms of seeing themselves as active users of English and also probably in using the language accurately. Another issue related to learners' using English might be linked to the purpose of speaking the language itself if there is a valid purpose to use it.

Teachers' willingness or reluctance to use English outside of the classroom will be discussed next. It can be said that students do not use English perhaps because teachers do not want to use it. Using English involves power relations (Norton, 2000). Unless teachers realise that they hold power to influence learners to speak or use English, learners would not have a fine opportunity to practically use English. As long as EFL teachers are supportive of their learners using English in the wider context of university, it more or less reflects the university' attitude towards English. This applies both to formal and informal contexts of learning. From another perspective, teachers' lack of enthusiasm to use English outside of the classroom appears to highlight the indecisive role of English in an EFL context. While English is considered a very important foreign language today, not all the teachers particularly non-native non-English subject teachers believe in the importance of using English socially outside of class (Eskildsen & Theodórsdóttir, 2017).

Equally important is an issue related to peer culture, accounting for the learners' perceptions of the extent to which their social interactions with different peers outside the formal learning environment influence their use and learning of English. On one level, there could be an

issue of identity amongst second language (L2) learners where speaking English could be seen as a sign of diverging from their native-language peer group. In which case, there appears to be peer pressure that can reduce learners' desire to speak English. Peer social interactions in fact have been found to impact student performance in many ways (Smith & Brain, 2000). One possible reason is that speaking English involves strong emotional commitment on the part of learners. Unless learners have a positive image of themselves, it would be difficult for them to make an effort to communicate orally in English. On another level, learners may have a different value for English learning dependent upon the extent to which universities put an emphasis on examinations or speaking English or both.

When English is perceived as a part of the general culture at university, there would be a need to try to use the language. In this case, interaction with other peers who use the language conduces to learning English. According to van Lier's (1996), second language learners can also develop their language through collaborating and interacting with second language speakers of different proficiency levels. Here the notion of learning a language as a social and collaborative activity seems evident. Through their interaction with more capable peers, they can see how they can become better English language learners who can develop their own capabilities in English. From one perspective, this seems to be manifested through a university effort to promote good English language learners as peer role models for other learners at university.

As previously reviewed, learners' experiences within the wider social context of university in relation to the opportunities to use and to be exposed to English are related to whether learners can use English with their teachers, the extent they can use the language in university activities arranged specifically for English and also, whether within their small peer culture, there is a chance for them to use the language.

Methodology

Using a case study, this research looks into a social inquiry on the meanings and values of acting persons, in this case, EFL students, and therefore on their subjective, complex action (Crotty, 2000). Thus, to consider an interpretation of a sequence of events to be adequate and meaningful on the basis of past experience, there is a need to isolate individual phenomena, the wider context of learning at university, to trace learners' unique development in the area of investigation.

Sampling

The students who took part in this study represent a group of 14 Thai undergraduates studying in the School of Arts in a private university in Thailand. They were in their third and fourth years of study in a four-year degree program. Five participants were male and the nine others were female. Purposively selected, they were asked to participate in the study based on the fact that they had been studying in this university for at least three years and would have sufficiently been exposed to the university ambience, facilities and services, as well as administration regarding English use policy and directives. They had all passed English IV, the last and most difficult of the four compulsory English courses at the university. Their GPA fell in a range between 2.53 to 3.32 out of a four point sale, which is considered largely satisfactory in terms of academic performance. None of them had studied abroad.

Data collection

In collecting data from the sample group, two instruments were employed. A questionnaire survey was initially developed. It is a method to collect the data and it can help form the questions and receive the responses without having to talk with the participants (Walliman, 2018). A questionnaire is used very often in gathering information about people's beliefs, attitudes, and values (Sommer & Sommer, 2002). Therefore, the questionnaire is one effective way to investigate Thai EFL learners' views of their university learning context which serves as the main theoretical framework of this study. A 5-point Likert-scale questionnaire with ten questions was used to guide and evaluate the level of the participants' views. The reasons why the questionnaire was used in collecting data are that a questionnaire is an effective way expected to yield the learners' views towards the subject of the current study (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Second, the survey instrument helps provide the main grounds to construct the semi-structured interview questions. Third, with a survey questionnaire, the data collection process takes a short period of time. In this study, the Thai version of the questionnaire, translated from English, was employed to avoid problems with the participants' misunderstanding the language when completing the questionnaire.

Afterwards, semi-structured interviews with six participants were employed to obtain additional insights into the participants' views towards their Thai university context and how they perceived their context to be conducive to their English learning development. These six interviewees were purposively selected according to their varying points from the questionnaire responses, grouped into three levels: high, medium and low. The questions used in the interviews were meant to crosscheck the results from the questionnaire and to probe further to seek the participants' views about their context in-depth. An interview is considered an outstanding means to discover complicated beliefs, thoughts, feelings and attitude (Baxter, & Babbie, 2004). Additionally, an interview is often seen as the most regular and special methods to discover individual's life experience.

The interviews were conducted in Thai and lasted about 20 minutes each session. All the interview sessions were audio-recorded with permission from the participants. Each interview was then transcribed into English for data analysis. To verify the accuracy and reliability of the scripts, the researcher had the help of a student assistant as inter-rater in double-checking all the transcriptions at random.

Data analysis

Initially, the quantitative data analysis was completed and then the follow-up interview questions were derived based on the questionnaire results. Both quantitative and qualitative data were analyzed. First, the quantitative data analysis was conducted using PASW statistics 18. The main descriptive statistics of frequency, percentage, mean and standard deviation (SD) were computed using the rating scores of the participants' views.

The semi-structured interview was conducted to investigate learners' views on the importance of their university context and the extent to which it helps them with their English learning. The interviews were recorded and he audio-recording transcribed. The qualitative data analysis used is thematic strategies and coding categories according to the pre-determined themes

and emerging themes from the data. These emerging themes were later included according to the prominent categories.

As this is a mixed method study, the data analysis consists of the combination of both statistical and thematic data analytic techniques (Teddlie, & Tashakkori, 2009). In this case, the data was analyzed back and forth for both statistical and thematic analysis. Moreover, according to Sommer and Sommer (2002), it is deemed rational to use more than one method to analyze data or probe for additional data if detailed responses are needed for research.

Findings and Discussion

To answer the first research question, two important findings can be pointed out: university culture and the university physical environments in which English learning occurs.

In relation to university culture, all participants reported that their university context is unique and unlike other contexts as English is used in their context as a medium of instruction and as an international language for learning in class and outside. They also strongly indicated that they have to use English at all time to communicate with non-Thai lecturers and classmates outside of the classroom though they can use Thai with Thai lecturers. Many of the participants found that their university context supports their English skill development especially for their speaking and listening to the degree that they can use English for communication with confidence and without being seen as showing off their English skills. In addition, the participants greatly concurred that not they do not feel embarrassed in engaging in English conversations with peers and instructors outside the classroom (M= 4.70).

Most of the participants also had a very positive overall impression on the university physical milieu (M=4.52), justifying that the university has emphasized using only English in signposts around campus and announcements made both in spoken and written forms, including in social media presence such as Facebook and the university's website. Many interviewees (N=5) added that they hardly see any sign in Thai, making the university ideal for learning English as students would be exposed to English as much as possible.

The participants perceived that they can efficiently improve their English proficiency in the university context (M=4.48), leading to their self-development in English, the process by which their English abilities are gradually developed. Five of the participants have also stressed the value of their university courses, their engagement with peers and lecturers for self-improvement.

In response to the second research question, the extent to which the wider university context can help the learners improve their English, it was found that the said university context is seen as an ELF context (M= 4.58) where English is used as a lingua franca, or a common means of communication or contact language for speakers of different native languages, in this case for the students whose native language is Thai. From the participants' general perceptions, English is seen as a necessity to be learned and used as a way to create commonality and similarities among the university students and lecturers from different countries and backgrounds even though native-like competency of speakers from Inner Circle countries such as the UK, the USA and Australia is satisfactory if possible. All of the interviewees (N=6) reported that this context is totally different

from their real life environment. According to them, they hardly use English at all outside the context when they are back home or hang out with their Thai friends even though having foreign friends or classmates is an exception. Two added that using English outside of the university makes them feel uncomfortable and alienated and that is why they would avoid using English if possible.

In addition, the university's continuous effort in promoting the use of English in the wider context of the university is perceived favorably by the participants as well (M=4.32). It was found that it is a university rule that Thai is not to be used in student academic advising where the students have to meet with their advisor every semester to discuss their academic progress and personal problems. During the academic advising session held in their advisors' offices, the students have to use English to make themselves understood.

The students identified this context as helping them to improve their English for their lifelong learning (M=4.35). Five of the participants being interviewed explained that learning English is a slow process and it takes time to master. This context thus "teaches me to like learning English little by little as it something I have to use and get used to" said one interviewee. It was also revealed by two participants that the wider university context helps build their character and attribute as proficient and assertive users of English.

From the findings, the university context under investigation has a unique culture and environment where English is strongly emphasized. The salient use of signposts and signals in English is related to the notion of linguistic landscape which is the visibility and notice of languages on public and commercial signs in a given area or region (Landry & Bourhis 1997). The languages used in public signs indicate what languages are locally relevant (Kasanga, 2012). Linguistic landscape signs actually describe the identity of a certain context and almost represent the language of its inhabitants at a moment in time. In case of the current study, this shows the collective identity of the context as English is a more dominant language than the students' own native language, Thai. Corresponding to this, it can be said that the move to using English in higher education globally as the most significant current trend in internationalization is prevalent in this context. The use of English as a medium of instruction in all its undergraduate programs has played an important role in internationalization of the education itself. According to Huang (2006), internationalization is becoming one of the most important and increasingly complex factors of higher education. In fact, higher education institutions in all regions of the world are addressing the international dimension of higher education in a way that reflects their values, priorities, opportunities and available resources. Nonetheless, one salient benefit and recent trend of internationalizing programs where English is used is to attract international students from all around the world.

The issue of self-development in English proficiency arises among a number of participants in this study. The effects of English language proficiency on adjustment to university life are reported in Andrade (2009)'s study. Her study examined how English language proficiency affected academic and social adjustment, identified types of support, and considered the effects of English proficiency on intercultural learning. It was found that students were generally satisfied with their English proficiency, appreciated learning English in the EMI (English as a medium of instruction) context, and felt their English was improved through course work and social

interaction in and outside the classroom. It was also revealed that intercultural interaction aided English development and intercultural growth. The findings by Andrade (2009) resemble what this study has found in terms of how students' self-perceived English proficiency is positive and encouraging in the context of learning with heavy exposure to English through social interaction or engagement with others.

As the majority of the students perceived that the university context in question is an ELF context, it seems that nothing is wrong in keeping features of the students' first language (L1) including their accent. To the students in this study, English as a lingua franca would be a contact language among its users of the language, regardless of where they are from or whether or not they are native English speakers or even in the event of their sharing the same native Thai language. According to Jenkins (2007), ELF is oriented to the norms of mutual negotiation involving efforts and adjustments from all concerned parties. As a result, English is not a single variety but actually differs from one territory to another. Therefore, Asian English or even Thai English is not an issue, which relates to what most of the participants regarded. What matters more is to consider the needs of the students who are learning English to mainly communicate with other non-native speakers. In this situation, English is used as a common and shared language between the people who use it. Thus, the students' needs in this context would be quite different from students who want to study in the UK or USA to integrate within that culture and may want to sound as much like a native English speaker. The significance for students using ELF, on the other hand, is to be as intelligible as possible to the people they intend to communicate with. By creating intelligibility using English, the EFL students could find and retain unity and resemblances both among themselves and their teachers, most of whom are non-native speakers of English.

Conclusion

Employing a mixed method approach in exploring the Thai EFL university learners' views on the ways in which they perceive their wider university context and how the university context helps to advance their English, this study, shed light on the significance of the milieu outside of the classroom particularly in a distinct English laden university context in an EFL country where English is generally not a local medium of communication. Findings from this study show that the university context under study impinges on the students' English learning experiences in terms of supporting their self-development in English and identifying English as a regular means of communication to create cohesion. The specific university culture and its ambience also come into play given the use of English for communication in this context. The findings would be useful for other Thai EFL universities to recognize the role that university contexts play in encouraging English learning and exposing EFL learners to English extensively. Research in the future with different groups of EFL students in various conditions are worthy of investigation. These can provide EFL and ESL educators with valued insights into how much learners' association with English within the wider social context is dictated by university practices and culture. Also, further research involving learners' views on issues of teaching and learning of English in relation to the opportunities to use and to be exposed to English through activities arranged by university should be considered.

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Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques: An Investigation of the EFL Teachers' Beliefs and Practices at Taif University

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Abstract
Recent research has shown that little attention has been paid to teachers' views regarding giving oral corrective feedback (Sepehrinia & Mehdizadeh, 2016). To fill this gap, this empirical study investigates the beliefs of Taif University's teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) about their feedback practices and their perception of the impact that these practices have on students' performance. An opinionnaire of 18 items was designed with closed-ended questions. A five-point Likert's scale was employed to measure three subscales: teachers' beliefs and practices about their corrective feedback; types of oral corrective feedback used by EFL teachers; and their perception of students' uptake. The survey was administered to fifty-seven English as foreign language (EFL) teachers at the English Language Centre (ELC), Taif University who were asked to fill in an online survey regarding their oral corrective feedback practices in the classroom. Their responses were analysed quantitatively. The findings of the study were that the participants allocated highest preferences to the techniques of elicitation, repetition and recast, and that they frequently use them in their classrooms.
Keywords: beliefs, ESL/EFL teachers, oral corrective feedback techniques, practices

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1. Introduction

Corrective Feedback has been investigated primarily in the literature as an important part of classroom instructions in English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) settings (Lyster, Saito & Sato, 2013). Instructions in second and foreign language learning are divided by many researchers and pedagogues into two categories: meaning-focused and form-focused instructions. Corrective feedback is the main concern of form-focused instructions as it emphasises accuracy in pronunciation, grammar, tone of voice and other aspects of language learning (Spada & Lightbown, 1993), while meaning-focused instruction focuses on vocabulary-learning and the communication of meaning, as well as allowing more mistakes to occur without correction (Williams, 1995). In the EFL context, Ahangari & Amirzadeh (2011) argue that teachers' awareness and understanding are important in deciding when and where meaning-focused and form-focused instructions should be applied and in what circumstances either of them would be more productive in the EFL setting. Farrokhi (2003) argues that in EFL classrooms, the best approach is to integrate both meaning-focused and form-focused methods of instructions to achieve maximum learning outcomes. He states the importance of responding to the learners' speech production and for this reason he argues that corrective feedback in foreign language learning is a significant strategy in dealing with learners' oral errors.

Mendelson (1990) describes different sub-areas of corrective feedback in the field of linguistics. He states that pronunciation, grammar, non-verbal cues and tone of voice should be given most attention by teachers when providing feedback to learners. On the one hand, Chaudron (1977) maintains that teachers' corrective feedback practices are effective in developing accurate performance and thus enhance learners' communicative competence. On the other hand, Brown (2000) notes that students sometimes use avoidance strategies in order to avoid errors, and that this causes them to regularly produce problematic structures. However, corrective feedback enhances learners' ability to understand lexical and grammatical structures in a sentence. For more than five decades, researchers and pedagogues have been advocating a learner-centred approach, as the effectiveness of corrective feedback practices depends on learners being at the heart of the teaching and learning process (Ellis, 2007; Firwana, 2011).

Researching teachers' beliefs is useful in understanding teachers' classroom decision-making (Ernest, 1989). Fang (1996), argues that beliefs tend to affect behavior. Since teachers' beliefs are complex and can be affected by many variables, such as length of teaching experiences (Richardson, 1996), the aim of this paper is to explore teachers' beliefs about oral corrective feedback, specifically (a) how EFL teachers generally perceive the use of corrective feedback practices in their teaching; (b) their beliefs and practices in the use of different types of oral corrective feedback techniques in an EFL context and (c) their perception of students' performance when oral corrective feedback practices are implemented.

2. Literature Review

The crucial importance of corrective feedback techniques led researchers to examine the relationship between feedback and language learning in the context of EFL/ESL teachers' teaching practices. Several studies have identified a number of feedback types and also examined what kind of effect they have on students' uptake and language learning. Scholars such as Loewen (2004)

and Lyster & Ranta (1997), state that the significant role of oral corrective feedback in the context of the EFL classroom cannot be ignored.

2.1 What is Oral Corrective Feedback?

Corrective feedback has been defined as teacher's correction of mistakes in learners' utterances. In one of the earliest works, Chaudron (1977, p. 31) describes corrective feedback as "any reaction of the teacher which clearly transforms, disapprovingly refers to, or demands improvement of the learner utterance". Ellis, Loewen & Erlam (2006) define corrective feedback as follows:

> Corrective feedback takes the form of responses to learner utterances that contain error. The responses can consist of (a) an indication that an error has been committed, (b) provision of the correct target language form, or (c) meta-linguistic information about the nature of the error, or any combination of these. (p. 340)

Furthermore, the most common definition of corrective feedback is provided by Lightbown & Spada (1999) (as cited in El Tatawy 2002:1) as the act of "indicating to the learners that their use of the target language is incorrect" (p. 171). In the process of providing feedback, teachers use different techniques to draw learners' attention to their errors and/or provide different clues to develop their capacity for self-repair or uptake. Some SLA theorists, however, such as Krashen, argue that it is harmful for the acquisition and language learning process (Rezaei, Mozzaffari & Hatef, 2011), though Long (2006) explains that corrective feedback is highly beneficial for second language (L2) and foreign language learners. Many studies in second language acquisition (SLA) have shown that consistent use of oral corrective feedback can improve the noticing, acquisition and retention of language forms (Iwashita, 2003; Leeman, 2003; Macky, 1999; Mackey & Philip, 1998; Oliver & Mackey, 2003; Philip, 2003). The significant components of the above-discussed definitions are the teachers, the learners, and how providing feedback practices might result in improvements in students' spoken proficiency.

2.2 Teachers' and Learners' perception of Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques

Several studies have shown that many teachers have a positive perception of oral corrective feedback, while a few studies perceive feedback practices as having negative impact on the feelings and emotions of the learners (see in particular Méndez & Cruz, 2012). In this context, a study was undertaken by Lee (2013) at a Public University in USA to investigate teachers' and learners' preferences concerning corrective feedback. Lee conducted his study on 60 ESL graduate students with a high level of proficiency in English and four English native-speaker teachers. Data were gathered using qualitative and quantitative research tools. The results indicate great differences between teachers' and learners' preferences about the types and frequency of corrective feedback. Students expressed serious concerns about being corrected for all their errors, while the teachers were not persuaded of the value of providing corrective feedback for every error. Regarding the types of error, learners preferred explicit correction whereas teachers were more inclined to provide implicit corrective feedback (Lee, 2013, p. 8).

Brown (2009) conducted a study comparing the perceptions of 49 language teachers with 1,600 students studying in their classes. The work was specifically designed to make a direct

comparison between teachers' and learners' beliefs on oral corrective feedback. The findings of his study revealed great differences between how teachers and learners regarded the manner of grammar feedback. The teachers in Brown's study discouraged explicit grammar instructions because they perceived that such instructions undermine the communicative approach to SLA. However, students strongly favoured a focus on form. Brown (2009) suggests in his study that teachers should adapt their methods to the learners' perception if they are to enhance their spoken proficiency.

Jean & Simard performed an inquiry-based study of teachers' and students' perspectives on different aspects of grammar instruction. They investigated the beliefs of 45 teachers and 2,321 high school French as a Second Language (FSL) and ESL students in Canada. One of the findings of their study was that teachers correct only those mistakes which they feel disrupt communication and not those which negatively affect students' confidence and interrupt their speech. By contrast, learners welcomed the use of oral corrective feedback techniques by the teacher (Jean & Simard, 2011). The findings suggest that corrective feedback does not have a detrimental effect on students' motivation and that students firmly believe in the importance of error correction. Other studies have reinforced the view that learners greatly appreciate corrective feedback on their spoken errors (Katayama, 2007; Timson, Grow & Matsuoka, 1999). However, determining the differences between teachers' and learners' perspectives is tricky in the teaching and learning process. Brown (2009) and MacIntyre & Gardner (1994) believe that consensus between the teachers' and the learners' perspectives may produce effective learning outcomes, as it enables the teachers to provide corrective feedback to learners in a more informed and effective manner.

2.3 Types of Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques

Oral corrective feedback (OCF) can be defined as support given by a teacher to the learners regarding their spoken errors. Lyster & Ranta (1997) divided OCF types into 6 major categories, ranging from implicit to explicit according to the division of Sheen & Ellis (2011). These categories are: recast; elicitation; clarification request; metalinguistic feedback; explicit correction; and repetition. They incorporated OCF and its different types and investigated four communicative French immersion classes of Grades 4 and 5 students. Their study analysed OCF in 27 lessons, specifically how language errors in forms were negotiated by the teacher and L2 learners (i.e. how errors were treated by teachers and what happened after an error was pointed out). OCF types were represented in the following proportions: recasts (55%), elicitation (14%), clarification requests (11%), metalinguistic feedback (8%), explicit correction (7%) and repetition of errors (5%). To elaborate on the six types of OCF used in the classroom, Lee (2013) made a sample by implementing Lyster & Ranta's six types of OCF in L2 or foreign language classrooms. If, for example, a student says that 'he has dog', then teachers might recast it (i.e. reformulate the error by providing the correct language choice) by replying: 'a dog'; or they can explicitly correct it by pointing out the error involved in the omission of 'a', and providing instruction on the correct form by replying: "No, you should say 'a dog'"; or they can make a clarification request by replying: 'Sorry?', or 'Pardon?', or 'Say that again'; or they can give metalinguistic feedback by replying: 'You need an indefinite article'; or they can make an explicit correction, eliciting the correct form by saying: 'He has …?'; or teachers can repeat the wrong sentence by replying 'He has dog?' Other researchers have added two more categories: translation and multiple feedback to Lyster & Ranta's list of OCF types.

Yao (2000) and Sheen (2011) categorize these strategies into seven types: recasts; explicit correction; explicit correction with meta-linguistic explanation; repetition; elicitation; meta-linguistic cue; and clarification requests. Yao (2000) adds body language as an additional type. Sheen (2011) adds focused and unfocused categories to provide OCF in the classroom setting. The former signifies the "intensive corrective feedback that repeatedly targets one or a very limited number of linguistic features", and the latter refers to "extensive corrective feedback that targets a range of grammatical structures" (Sheen, 2011, p. 8). In other words, unfocused OCF checks any feature of language, including grammar, semantics, pragmatic, pronunciation, phonemes and sentence-structure, whereas focused OCF is the other way around. In addition to this, scholars divided OCF strategies into explicit and implicit strategies. Explicit OCF refers to an overt linguistic signal for the correction of errors, whilst implicit OCF indicates providing the prompts or eliciting the information without any overt linguistic signals (Méndez & Cruz, 2012). Another study explores EFL teachers' preferences for oral corrective feedback techniques at Rustaveli University and the findings suggest that they use eight strategies for identifying and correcting the errors in oral production. These strategies comprise echoing; repetition up to the error; hinting/prompting; making a note of common errors; the use of nonverbal methods; asking other students to correct errors; reformulating; and recording on a tape Gumbaridze (2013).

Ahangari & Amirzadeh (2011) offer an observational study that analyses 360 oral corrective feedback moves in an Iranian EFL classroom in a university setting and divide their observations according to three proficiency levels: elementary, intermediate and advanced. Their findings revealed that teachers use a variety of OCF techniques in the different proficiency levels, but they vary in the distribution of their uses of those techniques and in different orders of frequency. For example, at the elementary level, teachers use the following OCF techniques in descending order of frequency: recast; clarification; metalinguistic cues; repetition; explicit correction; and translation, whereas at the intermediate level, teachers used OCF techniques favouring recast over all the others, and in this hierarchy the least favoured is explicit correction. At the advanced level, teachers used the following OCF techniques in descending order of frequency; recast; clarification; metalinguistic cues; elicitation; repetition; explicit correction; translation; and multiple feedbacks. The results revealed that recast is the favourite technique with EFL teachers at all three levels of proficiency.

2.4 Learners' Uptake or Self-repair

In SLA literature, the term uptake has been defined in two different ways. What Allright (1984) meant by uptake was learners' absorption of the new content of a lesson, as reported by the students themselves. Now, however, it stands for learners' response to the teacher's correction of their errors. Suzuki (2004, p. 1) defines learners' uptake as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some ways to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspects of a student's initial utterance". In other words, it can be said that it is the student's immediate response to the correction of their errors by the teacher. By the same token, Lyster and Llinares (2014) explain that "uptake [is] defined as a discourse move and not as an instance of acquisition, although some researchers have suggested that uptake may be related to learners' perceptions about feedback at the time of feedback" (Llinares & Lyster, 2014, p. 182). Furthermore, Salimani (1992) (as cited in Zhao, 2009, p. 49) explains uptake as "what learners claim to have learned from a particular lesson" (p. 197). These diverse perspectives

may suggest that students' uptake clearly means their verbal reaction to a given feedback. This verbal response usually appears immediately after the teacher's corrective feedback, assuming that there is an opportunity for the students to respond to it. Slimani (1992:197) has defined uptake as "what learners claim to have learned from a particular lesson" (see also Allwright, 1984).

The significance of different types of feedback can be understood from the evidence of learners' uptake and particularly when this move results in a successful repair (Tatawy, 2002). In this situation, learners' uptake would be taken as a proof of learners' observing their language errors (Choi & Li, 2012; Egi, 2010) as well as the "pushed output" concept given by Choi & Li, (2012). Furthermore, the researchers made it clear that learners' uptake provides evidence that they understood the teacher's strategy and that it helped them understand the gap between the form of target language and an interlanguage (Mackey & Oliver 2002; Sheen, 2004). Therefore, uptake has been taken by the researchers to be one of the key aspects of the effectiveness of corrective feedback (Lyster & Ranta 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2004).

The findings of these studies suggest that the teacher should be aware of different types of OCF and their implementation in the classroom, namely elicitation, metalinguistic clues, clarification requests, and repetition of error. These four types, according to Lyster and Ranta, are characterized as negotiations of form and engage the learners more actively by helping them to draw on what they already know, rather than simply providing learners with correct forms.

3. Research Questions

The following questions were envisaged for the present study:

1. What are the beliefs of Taif University's EFL teachers about the use of oral corrective feedback techniques in response to learners' spoken errors?
2. What are the practices of Taif University's EFL teachers in the use of oral corrective feedback techniques in response to learners' spoken errors?
3. What types of oral corrective feedback techniques do Taif University's EFL teachers utilize in the classroom?
4. What are the perceptions of Taif University's EFL teachers about the effectiveness of the use of oral corrective techniques in the classroom?

4. Method

4.1 Research Design

An opinionnaire has been designed with closed-ended questions to probe into the complex phenomena of teachers' beliefs and practices regarding the use of oral corrective feedback techniques in the classroom. We have designed a survey that provides an opportunity for EFL teachers to reflect on their everyday classroom practices (Luft & Roehrig, 2007).

4.2 Population and Sample

The population of this study is all teachers at Taif University teaching the English courses that are a general programme requirement. A convenient sample of the study consisted of 57 female instructors teaching IEAP and ESP courses to Taif University's EFL learners. The sample contains 37 instructors who were MA holders and 20 who were BA holders with teaching qualifications. The 57 instructors have a diverse linguistic background, 43 have Arabic as their

first language, 10 instructors speak Urdu or Hindi, three teachers had English as their first language and one instructor speaks Tagalog.

4.3 Study Instrument

The study instrument for the present research was based on previous studies that used different methods: (a) observational studies that focused on analysing corrective feedback techniques (Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) and (b) survey studies that focused on teachers' beliefs and practices that analysed results quantitatively (Méndez & Cruz, 2012; Lee, 2013; Brown, 2009; Jean & Simard, 2011; Katayama, 2007; Timson, Grow & Matsuoka, 1999; MacIntyre & Gardner (1994). The quantitative research tool formulated for the study employed Likert's five-point scale and was designed on a structured pattern in order to obtain precise and useful information from Taif University's female EFL teachers.

4.4 Instrument validity and reliability

Face validity assessment was ensured by asking 3 experts (two of them native speakers of English) for language clarity, and changes were incorporated as a result. In terms of the reliability of this scale and the subscales used in the study, Cronbach's *alpha* was used to indicate its internal consistency. The score for the scale was .78.

5. Results and Discussion

This section details the results and discussion related to the data generated from the participants' responses to the four sections of the survey.

Table1. *Taif University's EFL teachers' beliefs about the use of Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques in their classrooms*

No	Statements	N	Mean	SD
1.	I think a teacher should correct "learners' spoken errors" or get them corrected by their peers.	57	4.18	.90
2.	I feel it is important to use particular techniques to correct "learners' spoken errors".	57	4.07	1.13
3.	I think that correcting EFL learners' "errors" can negatively affect their self-esteem and consequently discourage them from speaking.	57	3.04	1.24
4.	I feel students commit excessive "errors" in extempore speaking tasks (speaking without preparation).	57	3.66	1.07

The first section of the survey was meant to elicit EFL teachers' beliefs regarding the use of oral corrective feedback techniques in their classrooms. In line with previous research findings (Akiah & Zawiah, 2015; Iriarte & Alastuey, 2017), the participants of this survey assigned the highest mean value to the first item, i.e. that EFL teachers should correct "learners' spoken errors" or get them

corrected by their peers. Similarly, the second highest mean value of 4.07 was recorded for the second item, i.e. the teacher believes it important to use particular techniques to correct learners' spoken errors. Item four scored a mean value of 3.66 in relation to the excessive commission of errors by the learners in extempore tasks. Item three earned the lowest mean value, 3.04, stating that correcting learners' "errors" negatively affect their confidence and eventually their spoken proficiency. These findings are in line with previous research by Zublin (2015), who contends that teachers should not only keep in mind the type of error at the time of correcting the learners, but also know how to provide them gentle feedback to avoid discouraging them in their attempt to use the target language. The standard deviation (SD) for the least preferred items has been calculated higher than the SD for the most preferred items, which indicates that the respondents showed greater variation in their perceptions about these least preferred items.

Table 2. *Taif University's EFL teachers' general practices about the use of Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques in their classrooms*

No	Statements	N	Mean	SD
5.	I repeat the same spoken task more than once to enhance learners' comprehension and spoken proficiency.	57	4.12	1.01
6.	I give feedback to the learners about their "errors" after they complete their spoken task.	57	4.04	.87
7.	I use spoken "error correction" techniques with my EFL learners.	57	3.88	1.03
8.	I correct my EFL learners' language "errors" on the spot.	57	3.84	1.14
9.	I indicate to the learners that the message has not been understood and sometimes tell them that their utterances include some kinds of mistake.	57	3.54	1.16

The statements included in Table 2 seek to elicit the participants' general practices in their use of OCF techniques. The participants have ranked the first two items of this category with the highest mean value of 4.12 and 4.04 respectively, showing the significant role of the use of OCF techniques in EFL teachers' general practices. In the same context, the findings of the present study are similar to the results obtained by Fungula (2013) who investigated the impact of the frequent use of different types of OCF. He interviewed four university-level teachers of different ages and professional experience. One of the interviewees in his study stressed that sometimes errors should be ignored in order not to break students' flow of thoughts.

The participants of the present survey agreed that they repeat the same task to enhance learners' spoken proficiency, and prefer to give feedback after the completion of the spoken task. In this category, there are three items with a mean value of lower than 4.00. The participants allocated the third highest preference, with a mean value of 3.88, to the item which states that the EFL teachers frequently use OCF techniques with their learners. Their strong affirmation indicates that this is their usual practice. The fourth highest preference, with the mean value of 3.84, reflects the practice of teachers who correct learners' errors on the spot. The lowest scoring item is related to the English language teachers' way of letting EFL learners understand that something is erroneous in their

utterance. All the items discussed in this section indicate that participants are well equipped with different techniques to boost learners' confidence and develop their spoken proficiency.

Table 3. *Taif University's EFL Teachers' use of particular Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques in their classrooms*

No	Statements	N	Mean	SD
10.	I explicitly indicate to the learners that their utterance is incorrect by providing them with the correct form.	57	3.52	1.16
11.	I implicitly reformulate "learners' oral errors" and sometimes provide the correction without directly pointing out that their utterance was incorrect.	57	4.00	.90
12.	I pose questions to my EFL learners. For example, "do we say it like that?", and sometimes provide comments or information related to the formation of the learners' utterance without providing them with the correct form.	57	3.39	1.23
13.	I use the technique of eliciting as a prompt with my EFL learners to get them correct their "errors". **Student**: *He has dog. **Teacher**: He has ..... **Student**: a dog.	57	4.36	.75
14.	I repeat "learners' oral errors" by changing intonation to draw students' attention to the errors and sometimes echo their errors in a question. **Teacher**: bark↘? **Learner:** Oh sorry, I meant park.	57	4.32	.92

The third section of the survey sought responses about the use of particular OCF techniques in their classrooms. The participants assigned a higher mean value from above 4.00 to three items and less than 4.00 to two items. The practices of EFL teachers indicate quite an encouraging trend towards developing learners' spoken proficiency. The highest preference was given to item 13, with a mean value of 4.36, which strongly supports the idea that the technique of elicitation gives learners practice in correcting their own errors. These findings are in line with the results of Lyster & Ranta (1997), who argue that using elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, clarification request, and repetition encourage learners more effectively to draw on what they already know. Likewise, the

second highest mean value of 4.32 was recorded for item 14, i.e. that participants repeat learners' oral errors to draw their attention towards them. The third highest preference, 4.00, was allocated to item 11, i.e. that teachers implicitly reformulate learners' oral errors and sometimes provide correction without directly mentioning that their utterance was incorrect. This confirms the studies of Lyster (1998) and Panova & Lyster (2002), both of which agree that recast is an implicit type of OCF technique which may not be noticed by weak learners. Lyster (1998) and Panova & Lyster (2002) seem to suggest that the use of implicit oral error correction technique does not help learners to improve their spoken proficiency.

In this section, there are two items with a mean value of lower than 4.00. The respondents assigned the fourth highest preference to item 11, i.e. that participants explicitly indicate the learners' errors by providing them the correct forms, with a mean value of 3.52. Item 12, indicating that participants pose questions to learners on their oral errors without providing them with the correct form, scored the lowest mean value of 3.39. The results presented in this section show that participants are well equipped with effective OCF techniques that enable learners to understand their errors and draw on their own linguistic resources for self-repair.

Table 4. *Taif University's EFL Teachers' Perceptions about the Effectiveness of the use of Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques in their classrooms*

No	Statements	N	Mean	SD
15.	I have seen change(s) in my EFL learners' spoken ability after implementing oral error corrective techniques in my teaching practice.	57	4.04	.86
16.	I have observed development in my students speaking skill; namely some of my students can self-repair "their oral errors".	57	4.13	.79
17.	I have found that self-repair, if done under the supervision of the teacher, can help improve learners' spoken ability.	57	4.31	.92

The statements included in Table 4 above seek to elicit the participants' responses about the effectiveness of the use of OCF techniques. All the items of this category have been allocated a mean value of higher than 4.00 which indicates that participants give high significance to the use of OCF and recognise its effectiveness. Item 17, which concerned the effectiveness of self-repair if it is done under the supervision of the teacher, was assigned the highest mean value of 4.31. This is similar to the findings of studies by McDonough (2005) and Loewen (2005), who conclude that learners' uptake plays a significant role in the development of their second language. The results are also in line with the findings of Schunk & Zimmerman (1997) who claim that language learning and self-efficacy are easily achievable if learners' errors are corrected by the teacher. Lasagabaster & Sierra (2005, p. 124), on the other hand, believe that "simply providing the correction of the error may not be enough to make the student repair the error".

The second highest preference mean value, 4.13, was allocated to item 16, showing that the frequent use of OCF techniques certainly develops learners' ability to self-repair "their oral errors". Sheen (2007) reports that learners who receive explicit linguistic explanations along with error correction benefit more from the feedback than those learners who only receive corrective

feedback. Item 15 was assigned the third highest mean value in this category and builds on teachers' personal experiences; they confidently stated that the use of OCF techniques has a strong influence on the spoken proficiency of their learners. In line with the findings of the present study, Nassaji & Swain (2000) argue that the effectiveness of the OCF depends entirely on when learners are explicitly made aware of their errors.

Table 5. *Summary of previous studies on Teachers' Beliefs and Practices of the use of Oral Corrective Feedback Techniques*

Study	Target Language	Learners' L1	Instructional Settings	Assessment Method	Spoken Proficiency
Algarawi (2010)	English EFL	Arabic	EAP	Types of OCF	Achieved/Yes
Méndez & Cruz (2012)	ESL	Spanish	EFL	Ditto	Positive impacts
Ammar & Spada (2006)	English	French	ESL	Ditto	Positive impacts
Jimenez, J. (2006).	English	Italian	ESL	Ditto	Positive impacts
Lyster and Ranta (1997)	French	English	ESL	Ditto	Positive impacts

Table 5 indicates differences and similarities among the variables in several studies measuring teachers' beliefs and practices, and the impact of OCF techniques in the language classroom. Most studies examined the effects of OCF on the learners in classroom scenarios and have shown a positive impact of OCF on the spoken proficiency of the EFL learners (Algarawi, 2010; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Jimenez, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Méndez & Cruz 2012). Methodological differences can, however, be observed in the different variables observed in these studies, for instance learners' L1; instructional settings; learners' competence and level; the number of the participants; the context in which survey was conducted; and variation in the use of OCF. Algarawi's 2010 study was conducted in an entirely different context, namely the French immersion context, and involved adult EFL students in form-oriented courses on English for Academic Purposes (EAP) at a university in Saudi Arabia. Similarly, Suzuki (2004) examined ESL classes with intermediate level adult learners and three teachers. Furthermore, Yoshida (2010) applied OCF techniques to language students in their Second Year at a Japanese university. His results coincide with the present study and show the highest results in the use of recast with the learners. The results of the present study and the previous studies cannot, however, be compared with each other to develop a strong conclusion because of their methodological differences.

6. Conclusion

Effective OCF on learners' spoken errors requires the use of appropriate techniques that best address particular types of error and are suitable for the type of learning activities as well as the types of learner. One type of OCF can never address the needs of all the learners equally well, because "one size doesn't fit all" (Ammar & Spada 2006, p. 566). Some scholars argue that focusing on one effective type of corrective feedback in different classroom scenarios is not feasible, as

classes include learners from a variety of cultural and educational backgrounds as well as diverse instructional settings (Lyster & Mori 2006: Seedhouse 2004). We are therefore inclined to believe that the average scores of the teachers with different variables secured similar results. In addition to this, based on the results of this study, it can be concluded that the technique of elicitation, repetition/echoing learners' errors in question, and recast attracted the highest preference among the participants. The findings of several other studies discussed in the previous sections have also shown that these are the most common and applicable types of OCF techniques frequently used by the pedagogues to help develop learners' spoken proficiency.

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The "Communicative Circle" Method in Teaching English at a University

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Abstract
The article analyses the problems arising in teaching English at a technical university, offers and describes a new integrated method of teaching listening, reading and speaking called the Communicative Circle method. The development of the pragmatic, integrated method of Communicative Circle builds upon the linguo-didactic, integrated, and activity approaches, and the theory of three levels of awareness of learning. These perspectives are reflected in the integration of listening, reading and speaking skills, three stages of teaching, regarding the psychological phases of awareness of the studied material, and the choice of tasks according to the students' abilities, basic skills and the tempo of learning. In the course of study students are gradually offered more complicated tasks for training speaking and texts for reading and listening, and the whole teaching process builds upon broadening some professional and scientific knowledge of students at a technical university. The efficiency of the developed Communicative Circle method is verified in the course of a two-year experiment. The results of teaching by the traditional program (developed on the basis of the Federal State Standards) and by the method of the Communicative Circle are compared and evaluated. The article concludes a greater efficiency of the developed method which reveals itself in higher English proficiency, confidence, and wider professional purview of the students who were taught by the Communicative Circle method.

Key words: activity approach, the Communicative Circle method, integration of speech activities, listening, reading and speaking skills development, three levels of awareness

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Introduction

Nowadays, the problem of the communication skills development has received much attention in a vast variety of scientific fields starting from preparing students whose communication skills would be in demand on the labor market (Suarta, Suwintana, Sudhana, & et.al., 2017) and finishing with the communication skills necessary to master a foreign language (Tavil, 2010). The paper focuses on the last-mentioned problem. Unfortunately, nowadays, Russian technical universities often come across the necessity to teach students having only basic skills of English. This problem is not unique, as the same problem is mentioned by the teachers from other countries (Muslem, Gani, Usman & et.al., 2018; Hubackova, 2012). As our teaching practice shows, the main problem is connected with the basic speech skills involved both in students' comprehending English language texts and dwelling upon them.

While reading and listening are considered to be the two receptive skills in language learning and use, writing and speaking are the two productive skills necessary to be integrated in the development of effective communication (Giang & Tuan, 2018). Without excluding writing from the training process, the main emphasis is made on three main types of verbal skills: listening, reading and speaking, as, firstly, their use implies a quicker reaction from a listener/ reader/ speaker (writing is usually prolonged in time) and as, a consequence, causes greater difficulty when training, and, secondly, they are more often applicable to professional communication.

Our 25-year experience of teaching students at Nosov State Technical university shows that the reasons underlying the students' poor command of various speech skills can be:

- the inability of students to listen and comprehend original texts without textual support (a fast speech, an accent, and, sometimes, a speech impediment has an influence on the correctness of the comprehension of an unaccustomed listener);
- the inability of students to retell or dwell upon original foreign texts right after reading\ listening them or to speak upon a new topic right after its introduction for further discussion (the lack of grammar knowledge and small basic vocabulary prevent students from fluent and confident speaking);
- the inability of students to comprehend original technical, scientific and educational English texts (as for the first and second year students, the problem seems to be especially urgent, as their lack of professional knowledge only adds to the problem);
- the lack of knowledge about the peculiarities of the scientific and technical stylistics of the original texts;
- the lack of knowledge of the grammar peculiarities used in original technical, educational and scientific texts (it is obvious, that grammar as well as stylistics can be specific regarding these types of texts) [Potrikeeva, Ahmetzyanova & Suvorova, 2018].

The scale of the abovementioned problems is different and, thus, needs different solutions. Thus, the last three reasons can be integrated into one, caused by the lack of knowledge in the professional field that results into difficulties in understanding aggravated by the complexities connected with the special technical grammar and style. Overcoming these difficulties is possible if students are involved into educational activities forming their professional view on the future specialty and what it involves. These activities can include educational video films and clips, that

prove to be efficient in teaching English (Masruddin, 2018; Safranj, 2015), and interesting scientific, educational and later professional texts broadening students' professional purview.

The first two reasons concern the lack of experience in listening, reading and speaking English. This problem is solved in close link with the methods used to eliminate students' professional incompetence. The involvement of students in various types of activities close to real life allows them to form not only competence, creativity but also confidence in public English speaking. According to the recent research, confidence, creativity, and speaking competence are the key aspects of communication improvement (Boonkit, 2010). Confidence and competence usually lead to strengths of English speaking skills. Building up the learner's confidence to eliminate fear of making errors is a priority that the teacher should consider in order to make the learner feel comfortable with their language use. Confidence and competence in speaking can be developed by appropriate methods of teaching, a variety of teaching materials (video and audio files, properly selected texts, and tasks, based on real life situations).

In response to the abovementioned reasons, the Communicative Circle method has been developed. Its main idea is to organize training of listening, reading and speaking skills according to three stages, on which students gradually improve their comprehension of English audio/ video and written texts and train to make their own utterances.

Literature Review

The search for the optimal ways of teaching technical university students to comprehend and later make their own utterances on the basis of the read\ listened texts has resulted in the choice of the linguo-didactic approach, forming the framework of the pragmatic, integrative Communicative Circle method.

The idea of the Communicative Circle method development bases upon the research, which suggests an idea of hermeneutic circle in the domain of communicative language education of younger school children [Mishanova, 2011]. The practice of the use of the hermeneutic circle method seems rather simple. The analysis of the content of any text includes exhaustive replies to the questions: Who created the text? What is the text about? What is the reason of the text creation? What linguistic means translate the theme and the idea of the text? Regarding the method, students, at first, search for answers to the given questions under a teacher's supervision, and, then, following the set algorithm and, relying upon the answers, form a "skeleton" of the text analysis, determining the content of the text comprehension activities. The developed method of comprehending texts, as the teaching practice of Mishanova (2011) shows, significantly influences the development of the qualitative skills of the text reproduction, as the younger students make their own utterances, demonstrating clear understanding of the aim and the idea of the utterance, as well as the conscious choice of language elements from different strata of the language system.

Unfortunately, it is impossible to use the hermeneutic circle method in teaching students a foreign language at a technical university as they possess only basic language skills and are unable to work with complex texts without various types of support (starting from preliminary work with the vocabulary of the text and finishing by the translation of the text and a teacher's supervision).

Nevertheless, the idea of the hermeneutic circle as an algorithm of work with questions and answers to a text is applied to the development of the method of the Communicative circle.

Communicative competence grows only in the integration of listening, reading and speaking skills (Tavil, 2010). That is why, teaching English implies the development of the main verbal skills to form the experience of producing oral and written utterances without a teacher's supervision. The term "integrated skills" is frequently used as if it were almost synonymous with reinforcement. Viewed in this way, the process of integrating verbal skills involves linking them together in such a way that "what has been learnt and practiced through the exercise of one skill is reinforced and perhaps extended through further language tasks which bring different skills into use» (Tavil, 2010, p. 765).

When selecting a leading type among language activities, the rest activities should also be included in the teaching process, providing a qualitative support for the development of the leading skills. Thus, listening activity should necessarily be accompanied by reading and translation of the original texts, as well as making up dialogues and utterances on the studied topics. In this regard, we cannot distinguish between these types of activities as between active and passive ones. For example, listening comprehension is anything but a passive activity. It is a complex, active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger sociocultural context of the utterance. In other words, listeners need to be active processors of information (Kök, 2014).

It's obvious, that in order to teach students to retell or speak on texts they should keep on practicing speaking and reading skills, learning various grammar constructions, mastering the necessary vocabulary and language means, and learning about the composition of texts of various language nature, etc. The essence of the Communicative Circle method lies in the use of the basic skills that serve as the foundation for the further complex development of all the verbal skills regarding the leading language activity. The major point in teaching students English has become the elaboration of the algorithm of work with the text to be comprehended and reproduced. The algorithm involves defining the key vocabulary of the topic, the key vocabulary of the main idea, the central grammar constructions, framing the topic and the idea of the text, and the language means connecting the parts of the text.

The Communicative Circle is called a pragmatically-oriented, integrative method due to several reasons:

Firstly, the main means in the course of teaching is a technical text related to the future profession of the students (in our university practice, the texts are related to metallurgical, coke-chemical production, building, architecture, power engineering, etc. specialties). Reading technical scientific English texts, students get familiar with the specificities of the chosen profession and the practice of the production processes at foreign and domestic enterprises, gain experience communicating on general professional topics. Thus, the Communicative Circular method gains pragmatic features.

Secondly, in the course of study students demonstrate different levels of skills in various types of foreign language activities, and, regarding the motivation, get to different stages of professional foreign language mastership. As a consequence, motivation and the proper atmosphere become vitally important. Motivation serves as a main stimulus for self-determined activity aimed at achieving new stages in mastering comprehension and speaking skills, while atmosphere plays a major role in the development of the key aspects of the improvement of speaking skills: confidence, creativity, and speaking competence (Boonkita, 2010). It is vital for the teachers to create the right classroom climate for learning: raising students' expectations; developing a rapport with students; challenging students to participate and take risks (Gross & Sonnemann, 2017)

Thirdly, the factor of the individual progress in mastering a foreign language should also be taken into consideration (the skip in foreign language proficiency can be different regarding the level of basic skills at the beginning and the level of advanced skills at the end of the educational process). It means that the estimation of the progress in the achievement of pragmatic educational purposes is individual in every case, and the educational process itself acquires an individual differential approach. Differential training focuses on the improvement of the teaching outcome by arranging the pedagogical work (setting of educational goals; selecting educational content, forms and methods of teaching) according to the individual peculiarities of students (their interests, creativity, proficiency, trainability, performance, etc.). Well thought-out implementation of differentiation in the educational process allows solving the following tasks: to prevent gaps in knowledge and skills of students; to align the level of training of the whole class; to develop the abilities and interests of students; to improve the quality of knowledge; to use learning time of each student more efficiently; to engage all students in active, intense mental activity; to bridge the gap between the teaching methods and individual character of knowledge. For the differentiation of the training implementation it is necessary: to clarify and specify what criteria, abilities, knowledge, and skills will be used in the course of the differentiated training; to develop or use ready-made tasks, assignments, tests, allowing differentiation of students by the chosen criteria; to use differentiated tasks, assignments, exercises, taking into account the results of the preliminary diagnosis of students; in case, the certain students obviously cannot cope with a differentiated task or it is too simple for them, it is necessary to transfer the student to a stronger or ,conversely, to a weaker group; to create, organize and continuously improve the "differentiated tasks bank" according to the selected criteria, ability, skills, using tasks-cards, slides, computer programs. Application of the differential approach during English lessons allows diversifying the forms and methods of work with children, increasing the motivation of students, creating a situation of success for weak students, and, most importantly, improving the quality of foreign language teaching.

In the fourth place, regarding the theory of interrelated reasoning and speech (Leontyev, 2005; Zimnnyaya, 2001; Gnevek, 2013), the educational process, involving teaching listening and speaking on the basis of a read\ listened text, looks like a conscientious intellectual foreign language analysis of an utterance structure in compliance with the psycholinguistic law: the first part of an utterance is a theme (content of the speech), the second part is a rheme (the purpose of the utterance). The conscientious analysis of the theme and rheme allows identifying the key

vocabulary, the auxiliary components, and the linking words. Besides, the detailed analysis focuses students' attention on the peculiarities of the used grammar constructions.

In the fifth place, the Communicative Circle method rests upon the activity approach, it provides with the idea of the development of listening, comprehension and speaking skills in the real life activity. The organization of cognitive work at the identification of the highly generalized structure of any speech seems to be essential and fundamental for the described method of the Communicative Circle. According to Leontyev (2005), the structure of the speech activity looks like a structure of a reproduction mechanism. It can be filled with some specific content, and comprise the ability to define the idea of the text and the used set of the linguistic means to translate the idea. In the frame of the activity approach to the development of various types of speech activities, the interrelation of language, speech and reasoning defined by Zimnyaya (2001) seems to be the most relevant. According Zimnyaya's studies, speech is a way, while language is a means of articulating a thought in communication.

And the sixth, the discussed method of the Communicative Circle involves three levels of cognition that reflect three main functions of the speech production mechanism. The process of transforming the functions of the speech mechanism into concrete verbal skills becomes clear with revealing of the content of the mechanism action.

The primary function of mastering some arbitrary ways of studying is called synergy. At the intellectual level the synergy development looks like assessing operations of empirical generalization, empirical abstraction, empirical participation, prototypes of the operations of analysis and synthesis, i.e. operations of empirical differentiation and analogy. At the speech level the development of synergy reveals itself in the primary speech experience, i.e. the ability to from words - sentences, basic grammar models of collocations and sentences, as well as words-predicates, reflecting the linguistic world image. Then, the situation with the arbitrary ways of learning to speak undergoes a quality change in the course of gaining experience. It is the stage of hierarchization of the learned means of speaking, and the creation conceptual links between the used linguistic means. The conscientious control over the course of learning implies setting intermediate purposes of study and their correction in response to the academic results.

The second function to be discussed is conceptualization, in other words, the conscientious hierarchization of the separate learning process components into the whole structure. In the course of conceptualization primary operations of generalization, abstraction, and participation do not only develop, but also become the means of conducting analysis and synthesis, which belong to the highly intellectual operations. In the process of the development of the inner speech mechanism the operation of synthesis develops quicker than the operation of analysis.

Regarding the content of the learning process, the corrective function of learning can be called "categorization". The development of this function results into reorganization of the hierarchy of the leading functions, thus, the prediction analysis starts dominating over the prediction synthesis, resulting in mastering both the skills. Thus, categorization becomes simultaneous mastering of skills going from the general to the special, and vice versa.

The theory of three levels of cognition allows considering any process of verbal skills development from the perspective of:

- gradual accumulation of language means and verbal clichés on a given topic;
- subsequent awareness of the conceptualization, systematization and further use of the formed language skills in practice,
- application of the gained experience in various types of foreign language activities.

In spite of the fact that the reliance on the theory of three levels of cognition looks like an activity-oriented gradual education, it has some distinctions. According to the theory of three levels of cognition, students achieve the third level of study under supervision of a teacher. On the contrary, the Communicative Circular method suggests that students master the generalized verbal skills and separate verbal skills (such as reading, listening, and speaking skills) independently. Such an approach allows considering the Communicative Circular method to be also a diagnostic method of the language proficiency according to the abovementioned levels of cognition.

The Communicative Circle Method

The novelty of the Communicative Circle method lies in the integration of the abovementioned theories. In practice, the Communicative Circle method works in the following way. The organization of teaching listening/reading and speaking is conducted in three interrelated stages. In the first stage, a teacher uses scientific, professional and educational films and texts to teach listening and reading. Before watching or reading the films, students learn some key words and train basic grammar that is later used in the texts. Thus, a teacher, firstly, eliminates some difficulties of understanding a text in a foreign language, simplifying its comprehension. And, secondly, a teacher trains and reviews the studied material, allowing students to remember the material better.

The films/ texts may demonstrate various production processes (relevant to the students' future profession), describe scientific discoveries, tell about various interesting scientific facts and so on. All the films have subtitles, while texts for reading may have only few references to words or grammar constructions. A teacher may comment on the difficult grammar constructions and the language means of connecting the parts of the text. Students have to translate the subtitles into their native language, define the topic and the idea of the text, and the lexical and grammatical means of the topic and idea description. As for the texts to be read, students may read them aloud or to themselves. Then, students make tasks, based on understanding of the texts. In this stage, the following tasks can be used: select the key words relevant to the production process, put the stages of the production process in the right order, answer some questions to the text, etc. Afterwards, they make a dialogue in English, disclosing the content of the film. Finally, students make a retelling of the listened/read material or prepare their own utterance on the basis of the content of the film. They also receive a home assignment to find and share with the classmates the news or any other interesting information that concerns the work of the enterprises that use the discussed production processes in their shops, or any other relevant information that can cause their classmates' interest. Besides, as a supplementary technique, the method of projects is of great use. Students voice short films and video clips on the topic of the production technologies or prepare videos supplied with their comments in English. Except for the films, the listening course is complemented by some English educational texts or articles on the studied topic.

According to the theory of interrelated reasoning and speech, in this stage students master the operations of empirical generalization, abstraction, participation, they learn to analyse and synthesise the material, i.e. to master the operations of empirical differentiation and analogy. They demonstrate the ability to make simple utterances, using basic grammar models and collocations. In this phase of education, students cannot inference any implicit sense (Suvorova & Polyakova, 2018; Emets, Baryshnikova, Trutnev, & et. al, 2018) and, as a consequence, texts should not include any implicit information and do not require any direct answers to the questions put to the texts.

Getting to the next level of study depends on upgrading of the basic students' listening skills, andit is not simultaneous for all the students in a group. That is why, students, having low proficiency in English, work according to the strategies used in the first stage of training, their work is supervised by a teacher, while the students, having a better command of listening, work independently: translating the texts they listen to; putting questions to texts and answering them; preparing utterances on the topic of the texts. Working with students who have different levels of knowledge and skills, a teacher has to differentiate the work within the group. In this case, language lab is the most efficient technical means that can help a teacher in his work with the students. The beginning of the second stage of teaching listening starts with the students' wish to refuse from the textual support when listening to an English text. At this moment, students are ready to comprehend texts relying upon their own knowledge. The tasks given in this stage of work are more creative and require better English competence. A teacher can demonstrate students a picture of a production process and ask them to guess what it is, he/ she can also give students some key words and ask them to describe a production process, using the given key words and, then, ask the rest of the students to guess about the described production process (the task can be presented in a form of a team work or a competition). Before listening/ reading a text, students may be asked to learn a selective range of words, and a teacher can explain and train some grammar constructions relative to the text. In this stage, students are expected to know the basic grammar constructions and to understand some more complicated ones (the constructions in the Passive Vice, the Gerundial, Infinitival and Participial constructions, and the Complex Subject and Complex Object grammar constructions). Thus, students are being prepared to listen to English texts basing upon their own vocabulary and using the known grammar constructions.

After listening, the students can be asked to describe a demonstrated production process, or make their comments on the efficiency of the production process / suggest their own ways of its improvement or upgrading. Thus, students pass over to the next stage of mastering English speaking skills. In this stage, the primary operations of generalization, abstraction, and participation do not only develop, but also become the means of conducting the basic analysis and synthesis operations, which reveals itself in the ability not only to understand the text but to dwell upon it, schematizing and analyzing the received knowledge. Now students are already able to comprehend implicit senses and inference them (Suvorova & Polyakova, 2018), but they are not yet ready to code the implicit information.

The situation with reading is a bit different, as this skill does not require so much effort as listening. In this stage, students are asked to comprehend more difficult texts than in the previous stage. The more complicated texts differ in the choice of words, grammar constructions and tasks

given to these texts. Thus, students can be asked to match some headings and passages of a text, but the headings can imply some implicit information. A task can be to fill in the gaps, without giving the list of the proper words to complete the task.

In the third stage of training, the students start working with the text right after listening to it, without preliminary work with the vocabulary of the text and the translation of the subtitles. They already possess the necessary vocabulary to comprehend texts without any other additional work with them. That is why, the work with the texts rests upon creative tasks, connected both with training listening and speaking skills and the appliance of the received knowledge in practice. The tasks given to students in this stage are: to simultaneously interpret the recorded texts, to prepare a presentation of a production process in English, to take part in a scientific conference with a report in English or prepare an article in English on a professional topic. In this stage, students are required to demonstrate not only their English language proficiency, but their skills to think in English and translate from their native language into English and vice versa without any difficulties. The teaching process goes from the general to the special, which requires the knowledge of the professional terminology (in particular, the synonymic and antonymic chains, the distinct terms of some special technological processes or products, etc.) as well as the transfer of the terminology from the passive vocabulary (when the terms are recognized but not used in own utterances) into an active one (when the terms are used in a fluent English speech).

As our practice shows, only 30-35% of students get to the third level of listening, 59-60% of the rest students manage to get to the second stage of the educational program, and only 3-11 % of students do not achieve any progress in listening.

Teaching speaking with the support of a text is carried out also in three stages. In the first stage, students are trained to retell the text that they have just read or listened only after learning the necessary vocabulary and with the support of the key words and a plan of retelling. The beginning of the second stage is teaching students to review and analyses the read articles or lectures integrated into one topic. It means, that students do not use any plan of speaking or retelling. They get experience of fluent speaking without any textual support, but the students can be informed about the topic of the discussed text, and are given time for the preparation. On the third stage, students present a report on a chosen topic without any time for preparation. They demonstrate the skills to speak on any professional topic, share their opinion, when taking part in a discussion, and ague with their opponents on any urgent problem. Teachers do not supervise their work. In this stage, students get an experience of public speaking in a foreign language, and they master communicative skills not only on the level of foreign language proficiency, but also master the skills of public speaking. Only 28-34% of students get to the third stage of the educational program, the rest 84-90 % of students master verbal skills and the content of the program according to the second stage. And only 10-16% remain in the first stage of the discussed program until they graduate from the university.

To sum up, integration of listening, reading and speaking skills can solve the problem of steady and continuous mastering of English. The differential approach to teaching students allows building simultaneous work with a group of students having different basic skills, so that all the students choose their own pace of work. In this case, they do not feel uncomfortable and can

eliminate own gaps in knowledge. In general, the step-by-step training listening/ reading and speaking makes students use all the types of language activities in the course of the foreign language study.

Method

The main aim of the experiment was to compare the traditional methodology developed according to the Federal State Standards and the method of the Communicative Circle, to evaluate the efficiency of the Communicative Circle method and find the ways of its implementation into the teaching process at Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University.

Subjects

To verify the efficiency of the Communicative Circle method three target groups of students have been chosen. Each group consisted of 10 students aged 16-17 years old. When the experiment started, all of them were the first year students of Nosov Magnitogorsk State Technical University. The experiment lasted two years. For these two years two target groups have been taught in accordance with the developed Communicative Circle method, and one target group of students has been taught according to the traditional methodology developed on the Federal Educational Standards. At the beginning of the experiment all the students were asked to write a diagnostic text, which revealed the level of their English proficiency.

Materials and procedure

The diagnostic test looked like a range of tasks for listening, reading and grammar. Students had to listen to a text (which sounded three times) and complete a small extract from the audio text using the words they were expected to hear, then they had to read a small text (1500 symbols) and do some tasks checking their understanding of the text. The range of tasks focused on English grammar knowledge had to reveal the students' understanding of the Present / Past / Future Simple, the Present Continuous, and the Present Perfect, as these tenses cause fewer difficulties in learning. Afterwards, students made small dialogues on the topic of the text (Eating out) to test their speaking skills. We deliberately excluded writing tasks from the test, as the main focus of the study was on the listening/reading and speaking skills, and we did not want to increase the time f the test. We also deliberately did not give the students a technical or scientific text, as comprehension of such texts was the final goal of the experiment. Besides, at the moment they were not closely familiar with their future profession or technology.

In the course of the two year experiment students' skills in listening, reading and speaking were monitored and checked four times: at the beginning of the experiment, in the first and the second stages, and at the end of the experiment. The logic of all the tests, which the students had to do, was the same, but the content of the tasks and the tasks themselves were gradually complicated. In particular, each time the vocabulary of the texts for listening and reading included fewer common words, the tempo of the audio speech became quicker, and the number of English tenses to be checked grew with each test.

The tasks were chosen according to the first, second and the final stages of the teaching organisation (it is described above). In the first stage, when listening to an audio text (this time the text was scientific), students could see a textual support (a range of words used in the audio text),

and the task was to describe what they had heard in the audio text, using the given range of words. After reading a text they had to retell it using some key words. In the second stage, neither the audio text, nor the text to be read had any textual support. The task was to retell what the students heard without any key words and to dwell upon the advantages and disadvantages of the technological process they read about. In the final stage, students had to do a simultaneous interpretation of a small text (4-5 sentences in length) and comment on a suggested process without reading about it. In this stage, we excluded reading as a written text could simplify the given task. The students' results were rated on a five-point scale, where "1" meant "poor", and "5" meant "excellent". The first three tests had 10 tasks, involving Listening, Reading, Grammar skills and Speaking, the tasks were rated on a five-point scale. All three target groups of students were given the same texts. In the final stage, students' answers were rated on the three-point scale: poor – satisfactory – excellent. There were two answers to be evaluated: the skills to do a simultaneous interpretation and the ability to comment on a suggested scientific or technological process.

Results and discussion

Regarding to the received results, two target groups of students who were taught with the application of the Communicative Circle method showed more significant academic results than the group of students taught traditionally. The scores of the target groups in the stage of diagnostics were approximately the same. The grade point average varied in the range from 30 to 42. But with each stage the score in the target groups became higher. In the first stage, in the groups taught in accordance with the Communicative Circle, the grade point average varied in the range from 25 to 40, while in the group taught traditionally it was not higher than 30. In the second stage, the gap between the group taught traditionally (the range was from 27-32) and the groups taught according to the developed method (the range was from 30 to 37) became deeper. In the final stage, we observed two kinds of results. Firstly, the group taught traditionally did not cope with the given task, there were too many mistakes, the students could neither do any simultaneous interpretation nor comment on the suggested technological process. They were unaware of the specifics of their future profession, had poorer professional knowledge and, that is why, they could not navigate in the technical know-how and common processes, that were presented to them. On the contrary, 35 % of students who were taught by the developed method, knew all the mentioned technologies, understood the technological processes and could explain their advantages and disadvantages. Unfortunately, not all the students of these two groups showed equal skills in doing simultaneous interpretations, their level of knowledge of their future profession specifics was not the same either. The grade point average varied in the range from poor to excellent. Only 35 % of students could do a simultaneous translation and comment on technological processes and got scores from satisfactory to excellent. The rest of the students could not cope with the tasks. Reviewing the results of the experiment and assessing the strong and weak sides of the Communicative Circular method we have concluded that the failure with the simultaneous translation is connected with the small number of hours allocated to teaching listening and speaking. The more practice students could have, the higher would be their academic results and the higher would be their motivation. As for the recommendations, in the third stage of teaching by the Communicative Circle method, some subjects can be taught in English.

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Policies and Issues in Teaching English to Arab EFL Learners: A Saudi Arabian Perspective

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Abstract

This paper examines the history, policies, and discussions relevant to the teaching of English as a foreign language (EFL) in Saudi Arabia. It investigates the value of EFL within the Saudi education system and surveys the extent to which English has been adapted to suit the needs and customs of Saudi citizens. While focusing on major policy issues related to planning and implementing EFL instruction, the paper examines how stakeholders have worked to preserve Saudi culture, Arabic, and the structure of Saudi society. It seeks to determine whether EFL courses in Saudi schools meet the needs of students, the results of which are compared with Saudi policies on language teaching. The study then presents observations on the compatibility of teaching practices and policies, as well as the issues involved. Saudi Arabia faces several challenges that have greatly hindered the planning and implementation of language-teaching policies. This study proposes strategies for strengthening these policies to fully achieve the desired objectives. It also shows that English is gradually being naturalized in Saudi Arabia, absorbing cultural, religious, and social values and beliefs.

Keywords: Arab EFL learners, language planning, language policy, Saudi education system, teaching practices

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Introduction

Although Arabic is the official language in Saudi Arabia, English is increasingly used as a lingua franca in the private sector between Saudi citizens and the large population of foreign workers. In public policy statements, the Saudi government has commented on the fundamental role played by English worldwide, acknowledging that it has become the language of science and technology and a key factor in modernization (Al-Asmari & Khan, 2014; Alrashidi & Phan, 2015; Al-Seghayer, 2005; Elyas & Picard, 2010). Furthermore, because English is the language of business and politics, it has gained a lingua franca status globally. Saudi policies aim to prepare high-school learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) to become global citizens who will advance and support the Saudi community academically and economically.

After the discovery of massive oil reserves in the 1930s, Saudi Arabia became a key strategic interest to the West, especially the United States, which developed close and long-lasting ties with Saudi Arabia. The Saudi government realized the need to train its citizens to communicate with the outside world, leading to the introduction of EFL in schools (Zuhur, 2011). The importance of the language was linked with the social and economic development of the country (Faruk, 2013). The petroleum industry provided a powerful motivation for learning EFL in the kingdom, so much so that its dissemination and teaching have sometimes been referred to as "petro-linguistics" (Karmani, 2005). One of the main reasons for introducing EFL instruction was to prepare Saudi students to communicate with the expatriate community (Al-Braik, 2007).

Saudi EFL teaching policies and strategies have evolved considerably over the years. The first policy to guide EFL instruction in school was created in 1943 when English was introduced for intermediate public-school students all over the kingdom (Al-Ghamdi & Al-Saddat, 2002). Students were required to study English until Grade 12. In private schools, however, EFL instruction began in first grade (Faruk, 2013). Today, English is taught throughout all grade levels in private schools and at every university (Al-Seghayer, 2003).

The 2003 Saudi language policy made English compulsory from the fifth grade onward (Elyas & Picard, 2010). In 2012, a new policy recommended English be taught starting in fourth grade but only for four hours per week. King Saud University is believed to have established the first English Department as early as 1957 (Al-Abed Al-Haq & Smadi, 1996). The medium of instruction in schools is officially Arabic, although in practice, the engineering, medical, science, and technical departments at Saudi universities often use English for this purpose (Al-Seghayer, 2005).

During the 1990s, the nation's Sixth Development Plan (1995–2000) enacted educational policies that reflected the World Trade Organization (WTO) requirements and the demand for English in global interactions. It became imperative for students to achieve linguistic competence in English to enable the country to modernize as a global economy. Since then, English has played an important role in shaping the Saudi nationalization ("Saudization") policy, which seeks to fill public and private industry positions with a Saudi workforce (Looney, 2004).

The importance of English teaching has expanded since 2005, as government policies have reduced the country's dependence on oil and made sustained, painstaking efforts to develop a

knowledge-based economy in line with developed countries (Alrashidi & Phan, 2015). Universities, including King Saud University, King Saud University of Science and Technology, and King Fahad University of Petroleum and Minerals, have invited scholars from all over the world to inspire and educate young Saudi students and entrepreneurs. This phase marks a major shift in the focus on English teaching. More and more new universities have been established with expanding language centers, where English is taught to all students for at least one semester (Faruk, 2013).

The Ministry of Education's core objective for introducing EFL instruction in high school is to enable citizens to use English-language texts and write and speak competently in the language (Elyas & Badawood, 2016). According to Rahman and Alhaisoni (2013), English is now the primary medium of instruction in technical majors, such as medicine. It is no longer seen as needed solely to pass tests but has come to be viewed as essential for higher education and commerce, carrying practical importance and high status. Furthermore, English plays a prominent role in Saudi private and government sectors at all levels (Al-Seghayer, 2014).

Despite this, English proficiency in public high schools is still very low and failing to meet government targets (Alnasser, 2013; Huwari & Al-Khasawneh, 2013). The present study has analyzed high-school language policies and planning in order to answer the following research questions:

1. What factors affect language policies in Saudi Arabia?
2. What challenges hinder the fulfillment of government language policy goals?
3. What strategies could be used to make language policies more practical and effective, enabling them to achieve the desired objectives?

Literature Review

According to Mahboob and Elyas (2014), English has entered public and private schools in such a major way that Saudi Arabia has developed its own version of the language: "Saudi English." This Saudi form of English is being incorporated into social life and manifesting in culture, religion, and society. However, the present study reveals that teaching and comprehension are not always strong and that some policies have not been fully or effectively implemented. It is true, however, that EFL teaching is coming of age and that efforts are being made to further improve instruction.

To be successful, language curriculum must be created with clear goals in mind. Because of this, the Saudi Higher Committee of Education is seeking to implement EFL policy reforms (Al-Shumaimeri, 2003). Various groups have emphasized the need to design suitable English curricula with clear goals (Rahman & Alhaisoni, 2013).

Arab EFL learners generally encounter various problems, particularly in speaking (Rababah, 2005) and writing (Benhania, 2016), as clearly demonstrated by many researchers. For instance, Al-Khairy (2013) confirmed that several studies conducted in the Arab world have demonstrated that Arab college students struggled in their English learning in general and writing in particular. Similarly, Huwari and Al-Khasawneh (2013) found that Arab learners of English,

including Saudi learners, faced major problems in learning writing skills, and this dilemma has been shown by a number of researchers (e.g., Al-Khairy, 2013; Al-Hazmi & Schofield, 2007). Regarding speaking skills, Al Shumaimeri (2003) motioned that according to instructors, high-school students often graduate without being able to conduct even brief conversations. This demonstrates that English teaching approaches applied in Saudi public schools are ineffective and involve some problematic issues, especially in the area of planning and development

.

Khan (2011) conducted a study to explore the biggest obstacles EFL learners faced in Saudi Arabia. One of the crucial factors influencing the EFL teaching and learning process in the Arab world is the fact that students only learn English in schools, where English instruction is ineffective. As Alhamdan, Honan, and Obaidul Hamid (2007) stated, "Discourses of the universality of English and its role in individual mobility and social development abound in the literature" (p. 1), facilitating English becoming a global language and increasing the importance of English instruction. However, few studies have examined "how these discourses unfold in local contexts … are reproduced or appropriated, and … are translated into teaching and learning artifacts (e.g., policies and textbooks) and practices by teachers and students" (p. 1).

This paper has studied the value of EFL learning within the Saudi education system to contribute to the ongoing discussion of how EFL policies are implemented in Saudi schools. It has examined how the intersection between English, globalization, and neoliberalism has influenced English language planning and policies in the Saudi education system. Various stakeholders have embraced these key elements to push for their agendas, arguing that the government's current policy of internationalizing higher education "has created an unregulated market of English-medium institutes in the country" (LeHa & Barnawi, 2015, p. 547). Such issues have had negative effects on the Saudi government's endeavors to restructure and empower the country's post-secondary education system, although the Center of Excellence has had positive effects on technical and vocational training.

Despite the advantages of English and English-medium education, several barriers have emerged due to "the government's rather uncritical adoption of English and its over-reliance on international training providers" (LeHa & Barnawi, 2015, p. 561). The Saudi government has been rushing import services and products to the country to improve English education; nevertheless, this process lacks accurate planning, transparency, quality, or effective support for all stakeholders (LeHa & Barnawi, 2015).

Given current barriers, the English proficiency of Saudi learners is not expected to greatly improve in the future (Al-Seghayer, 2014). Therefore, challenges related to language policy and teaching practices should be thoroughly investigated. Teacher training programs are vital to develop effective teaching methods and a productive school environment. According to Al-Seghayer, current EFL curriculum and practices must be made to align with learning goals with sufficient support from administrators to motivate students. This will result in higher learner proficiency and more effective teachers.

Discussion

English has gained increasing prominence within the Saudi education system, and ordinary Saudis have come to see English proficiency as necessary to obtain knowledge from sources within and outside the country (Millward & Hayes, 2011). With globalization, English has been increasingly used to achieve economic, social, and humanitarian goals. Thus, modern realities have changed the national outlook, placing more emphasis on global interaction and participation in activities with common humanitarian themes and international ramifications. The challenge is to understand whether these goals are being achieved, the actual status of English teaching, and whether there is a gap between the goals and the reality. Assessing the current situation in relation to pedagogical input, needs-based syllabi, learner motivation, and learning barriers can help determine the source of poor proficiency among Saudi EFL learners.

The influence of and over-reliance on Arabic can make it difficult for Saudi students to acquire English intonation, accent, syntax, and semantics. However, many new technologies and teaching methodologies, as well as greater effort, are helping to overcome these obstacles. These reflections are based on observations of the fundamental transformation taking place in public schools. Private schools in the kingdom have always been more responsive to student needs because they are subject to competition. Even so, the difference is only marginal.

Core English skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) should be taught separately and afforded sufficient attention in the classroom. Weakness in any of these skills has a far-reaching impact on language acquisition, as no one skill can be learned or used in isolation. Basing instruction on this axiom will enable appropriate thinking, planning, and decision making.

The researcher discussed this consideration informally with 10 teachers and 20 high-school graduates selected for the study. The data were collected using direct interviews. None of the students were fully satisfied with the English instruction they received, and most of them had an aversion to learning English in Saudi schools. Creating a communication channel with teachers was challenging as students seemed afraid to express their true feelings. They reported that it was difficult to say anything in English in classes because of the distant relationship with their teachers. In line with numerous other studies (e.g., Alharbi, 2015; Al-Nasser, 2015), this paper argues that communication is a prerequisite for learning; the absence of open communication from Saudi EFL classrooms thus acts as a barrier to students realizing their full potential.

Students admitted to having problems with their teacher, saying it was difficult to ask him a question when he was teaching, they felt stressed in his class, and he did not explain the meaning of difficult words. He was also seen as autocratic, giving tests without telling students which chapters they would cover. Despite this situation, the students were aware English was and would continue to be an important language for work, and they feared they would never master it.

The interviews with high-school students were enlightening. They were well informed about the potential of information technology and thought more modern methods and electronic devices should be used to teach English. Such techniques would help them understand the language better, learn with minimal input from the teacher, and generate interest in English. In particular, they felt English should be taught using online games, movies, and social communication

programs. The majority opinion favored changing the approach, methodology, and materials used in teaching, and all students preferred a more open, student-centered, tech-savvy learning culture.

The main problem observed during this study were the poor learning outcomes in the form of language proficiency. Students could graduate from high school, having attended English classes four hours a week for six full academic years, but still be unable to produce a single error-free utterance.

Suggestions Based on the Findings

In response to the analysis and interviews, the researcher proposes the following solutions to help teachers and course planners develop strategies and methodologies for teaching English to students in Saudi schools.

Introduce English during first grade. English education in Saudi schools must begin early—not in the fourth grade, as is prevalent now. Various studies (e.g., Abdan, 1991; Alharbi, 2015; Al-Nasser, 2015) have shown that second language acquisition becomes easier when taught from the first school year onward. The best time to learn a language is earlier in childhood.

Stress quality over quantity in course materials. Course planners and educators must shape English curricula to match the needs and capacities of learners. Saudi curriculum designers often create lengthy course syllabi based on course designs used in the West without addressing the needs of Saudi learners. As a result, course materials are sometimes difficult to use, and teachers rush to complete the material before the end of the semester. Not only does this approach not help students learn, it can make them unlearn what they once knew. Curricula should be reviewed to ensure the material can be taught within the time allowed.

Use assessments, not exams. Progress in language learning is not as easy to quantify as some other subjects. Current examination systems do not test the language abilities of students accurately. It has been observed that students' actual language competencies are often drastically different from their exam results. To accurately assess learner proficiency, it is necessary to do so in naturalistic ways by talking with them and assessing their speech and understanding in various communicative situations—rather than only through conventional tests.

Avoid crowded classrooms. It is common to see Saudi English classes that are extremely overcrowded. Language instruction, however, requires time and concentration. In a class of 50 or more students, it becomes impossible for the teacher to evaluate the progress of every student. An ideal language classroom should not have more than 20–25 students for results-based, practical instruction.

Use audio-visual aids. Normal English communication involves listening and speaking, even when students are learning to read and write. Language is a social act in which people exchange ideas and information, and it cannot be taught from a merely theoretical standpoint like other subjects. Introducing audio-visual aids could thus help students learn English more effectively. Schools should take advantage of modern technologies to establish language labs and smartboard teaching systems to offer a more naturalistic learning environment.

Expand class time. Once out of school, students often must use resources such as language institutes to increase their proficiency. Four hours a week of language instruction divided into 40-minute classes is insufficient for teaching four language skills, assessing progress, and encouraging regular practice. Class time devoted to English should therefore be increased.

Conclusion

This paper assessed EFL policy and practice in Saudi schools. It found key problems impeding learners from meeting language acquisition goals. EFL curricula and instruction were observed to depend extensively on grammar-teaching methodologies, to the detriment of learners. Major issues were found in course planning and implementation. These issues can be addressed through better teacher training, curricula, methodologies, teaching tools, and technology. Saudi students and educators were keenly aware of the importance of acquiring English skills. While considerable progress was made by introducing English in the fourth grade, more steps are needed to meet students' language-learning goals.

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Lecturer's Language Style and Students' Academic Self Efficacy in Higher Education of Indonesia

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Abstract
This research is aimed at finding out the influence of lecturers' language style on students' academic self-efficacy in higher education in Indonesia. This research is conducted to describe the correlation between lecturers' language style and students' academic. As one of the aspects of forming academic self-efficacy, language style has an important role because someone who can get information verbally about his ability in mastering certain duty tends to do more efforts. In addition, it makes him more diligent in doing a duty. Also, language style positively increases the student's self-confidence and vice verse. This research involves seventy students who fill in the questionnaire about the lecturer language style and academic self-efficacy scale. Data were analyzed by using simple linear regression analysis. The result of the research shows that lecturer's language style has a coefficient of determination of 23.5% towards the students' academic self-efficacy. Finally, this research affirms that positive lecturer language style can improve the students' belief towards their ability while the negative language style can weaken the students' self-efficacy. This is supported by the statement of Pajares (2002) who state that the negative language style can easily weaken the students' self efficacy.

Keywords: Academic self-efficacy, Higher Education in Indonesia, language style, vicarious experience, enactive mastery

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1. Introduction

The construct of self-efficacy introduced by Albert Bandura for the first time in the journal "A Psychological Review" in 1977 has received continuous attention and research from scientists. Research on this construct has produced thousands of writings in various forms of publishing such as journals, books, and studies in the university environment. The results of self-efficacy research show that self-efficacy has an important influence on a person's behavior and performance. Research for more than 20 years has shown that self-efficacy is proven to significantly has influenced career choices (Betz, 2004), performance, and persistence (Lent, Brown & Larkin, 1984).

Someone forms self-efficacy by integrating four main sources of self-efficacy, namely mastery experiences, vicarious experiences, social persuasions and physiological states (Bandura 1977, 1986). But unfortunately, not many studies on self-efficacy have focused on sources of self-efficacy (Anderson and Betz, 2001; Muretta, 2004). Pajares (1997) states that research on self-efficacy as a dependent variable only gets a small portion in various studies on self-efficacy. Therefore, to develop theory and intervention especially in education, it is very important to explore how students develop their self-efficacy through the four sources of self-efficacy mentioned by Bandura (Lent, Lopez, & Bieschke, 1991).

The social persuasion or verbal persuasion is the third source of formation of self-efficacy. This social persuasion can involve verbal judgments made by others towards someone. Therefore, the third source of self-efficacy is often referred to as verbal persuasion. A person who gets verbal information about his or her ability to be able to master a particular job or task tends to make a greater effort and make him more diligent in completing a task. Positive persuasion can encourage and support someone and conversely negative persuasion can weaken self-efficacy. According to Pajares (2002), it is generally easier to decrease the self-efficacy through negative judgment than to strengthen it through positive encouragement.

Data collected from various research journals shows that research on self-efficacy has been conducted by many experts. These studies mostly examine the influence and relationship of self-efficacy to other variables. For example, the academic self-efficacy influence on performance and adjustment (Chemers, Hu & Garcia, 2001); Goal settings (Zimmerman, Bandura & Martinez-Pons, 1992), academic settings (Pajares, 1996), academic outcomes (Multon, Brown & Lent, 1991; Zajacova, Lynch & Espenshade, 2005), self regulation (Klassen, Krawchuk & Rajani, 2008), academic motivation (Schunk, 1991), academic functioning (Bandura, Barbaranelli, Caprara & Pastorelli, 1996), achievement goals (Coutinho & Neuman, 2008; Mahyuddin et al. 2006; Lent, Brown & Larkin, 1984), career counseling (Betz, 2004), and emotional intelligence (Moafian & Ghanizadeh, 2009). Research that addresses how self-efficacy is formed and how many sources of self-efficacy play a role in the formation of one's self-efficacy are not widely found, even research that specifically traces the sources of academic self-efficacy, particularly social persuasion such as lecturer language style. Some related studies only examine how language brokering relationships (Buriel et al. 1998) and language learning strategies (Wong, 2005; Yılmaz, 2010) on self-efficacy. Therefore, this study attempts to examine the effect of lecturer language style on students' self-efficacy in higher education in Indonesia.

2. Literature Review

Lecturers use a variety of language style to create an effective learning environment. Each of them has a typical style in presenting ideas and concepts, develop research, do devotion, and spread knowledge. In this case, the language style is delivered as a way for them to express themselves. In a communication event, the style of the language as a medium of communication has a huge influence. It should be easily accepted and understood that the purpose of the speech act is successfully done. The utterances produced can reflect the personal character of the speaker. The better a person's style, the better the people vote against him—conversely, the worse of a person's language style, the worse ratings given to him anyway. In a communication event, language styles contribute some significant effects on the audience. In this regards, Austin and Searle call this with the perlocutionary act. It is an utterance that contains or has the power of influence to those who listen. The power of these influences can intentionally or unintentionally be created by the speakers. It is clear that the lecturer's language intentionally or unintentionally gives a psychological impact on students as learners. The psychological impact can take the form of self-motivation, self-efficacy, and the creation of good interpersonal relationships in vice versa (Gunawan & Kadir, 2017). Increasingly, some experts agree that culture, language, and social factors are being recognized as having an impact on learning (Batmang, et al., 2018).

Self-efficacy is one of the psychological states influenced by the using of language style. Bandura & Schunk (1981) argue that self-efficacy is defined as students' judgment of their potency to organize and conduct courses of action needed to achieve designated types of performances. They are a form of self-evaluation that effects decisions individuals make, the efforts they exert, and their mastery of behavior (Eastin & LaRose, 2000). This theory proposes that students who believe they can totally perform an activity will differ from students who do not. The former is likely to exert more effort, need longer time, and master the needed skills earlier than the latter. In addition, Schunk and Pajares (2002) state that students with a high efficacy belief can employ more strategies of cognitive and metacognitive and they persisted longer than those who did not.

Bandura's (1984, 2006) research support him to state that students' self-efficacy beliefs are highly predictive of their ability to accomplish academic tasks. This is in line with several researchers who have found that among other motivational belief, self-efficacy is a stronger effect on academic performance than the others. (Lent, Brown & Larkin, 1987; Pintrich & De Groot, 1990) However, students' perceptions or experiences of previous performance contribute the most important role in student judgment of self-efficacy. For instance, students may form inaccurate estimations of their own efficacy in a particular task unless they have experience in that task, or in tasks they perceive as being similar. Successes and failures by themselves do not improve or decrease self-efficacy beliefs; rather, it is how the students translate those experiences that have an effect. Hence it is stated that self-efficacy is domain specific, and beliefs about efficaciousness in performing one task cannot be predicted to apply to a duty in a different domain. Similarly, no amount of confidence can result in success when the main needed skills and knowledge are absent (Pajares, 2002). The implication is that while self-efficacy is used to be predictive of student achievement, the basic experiment for students' perceptions is important to be carefully considered.

Bandura and Wessels (1997) state that self-efficacy beliefs are affected in four ways, and ranked them in order of most to least influential on behavior: enactive mastery experience, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion, and physiological and affective states. Enactive mastery is believed to be the most influential experience in forming efficacy beliefs. Past performances serve as an indication of the extent to which one can succeed in doing a duty. However, while perceived success can create a strong sense of efficacy beliefs, easy successes are also easily discouraged by failures. According to Bandura and Wessels (1997), vicarious experience also forms efficacy beliefs because students often compare their abilities to those of their mates or others who they consider are similar to themselves in some way. This does not support that students equate their efficaciousness to their friends; rather, their perception of their friends' capabilities in comparison with their own perceived ability prepares a means by which they can create judgments about their performance. Verbal persuasion refers to how self-efficacy beliefs can be affected through the motivation or other verbal communication of significant others, that is, people who are considered to have mastery of a given responsibility. However, Bandura and Wessels (1997) concluded that self-efficacy beliefs, especially those founded on enactive mastery and vicarious experience, are not as easily affected by verbal persuasion. The fourth significant factor on self-efficacy beliefs is the perception of physiological and affective states in regarding to performance of a task. In the words of Benigh and Bandura (2004) that people read their tension, anxiety, and depression as signs of personal deficiency. It is therefore important to consider students' physiological and affective states when designing and implementing learning activities. Verbal persuasion here includes the language style of the lecturers in higher education.

3. Method

A descriptive qualitative and quantitative study was conducted in this research. It was conducted by observing lecturer language style to students in teaching and examining the final project and students' academic self-efficacy at State Islamic Institute of Kendari, Southeast Sulawesi, Indonesia. There were fourteen lecturers observed as purposive sampling. The lecturers came from four different faculties, namely Tarbiyah and Teacher Training Faculties, Sharia Faculty, Ushuluddin, Adab and Da'wah Faculty, and Islamic Economics and Business Faculty. The sample consists of seven male lecturers and seven female lecturers. To obtain the various style of language lecturer presented to students in the classroom or other, the researchers conducted in-depth interviews with seventy students. The interviews were about what the students think about the language style of the lecturer. From here, it is clear that what speeches are used by lecturers when teaching or testing student theses. The theory used in this discussion is Keraf (2006) theory of the language style model and Austin (1962) theory of perlocution speech. Keraf theory is used to analyze the language style model used by lecturers while Austin theory is used to analyze the effect of language style on student academic self-efficacy.

After getting the language style data, the lecturer prepared a questionnaire about the language style of the lecturer. Furthermore, the self-efficacy questionnaire was distributed to seventy of the same students. Seventy of these students came from four faculties and ten different study programs, such as Islamic Education, Management of Education, English Education, Language Education, Islamic Guidance and Counseling, Islamic Guidance, Islamic Economics, and Business, as well as Family Law and Constitutional study programs. The students consist of

thirty men and forty women. They sit in one-five semesters or around 19-21 years old. The self-efficacy scale in question is academic self-efficacy that measures the level of self-confidence of students in their academic affairs on campus. The self-efficacy scale used is a scale modified from the academic self-efficacy scale compiled by Bandura(2006) and Pajares (2002). This scale is used to determine quantitatively the level of academic self-confidence of students at State Islamic Institute (IAIN) of Kendari. From here, we can find out how the influence of language style on student academic self-efficacy at IAIN Kendari.

4. Findings and Discussion

Each has a different style with other individuals especially in communication in essence. The difference would seem from the language style component containing locutions acts, illocutionary acts, and perlocution acts. As a perlocution act, lecturers' language style had an impact on self-efficacy of the students.

There are four styles of lecturers' language based on sentence structures, such as climax style, oxymoron style, sarcasm language style, stylistics simile. Climax style is a style which its quality, quantity, and intensity of the sentence are progressively increasing. Oxymoron is a style which has a contradiction between its parts. Sarcasm is a style of expressing upset and angry by using rude words. Simile language style is a style that comparing one thing with another thing and always uses comparison (Keraf, 2006; Batmang et al., 2018). Based on the interviewing with the students, this research finds that climax and oxymoron style include positive language style. Meanwhile, sarcasm and simile language style include negative language style. The psychological states of the students, particularly their self-efficacy can be influenced by both positive and negative language style.

The following explanation relates with quantitative data of some influences factors towards the language style of the lecturers to self-efficacy of the students on higher education of Indonesia. This would seem from data normality test, data linearity, linear regression analysis and coefficient of test determination.

4.1 Data Normality Testing

Table 1. *One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test*

		Language Style	*Academic Self Efficacy*
N		65	65
Normal Parameters[a,b]	Mean	30.4769	136.3692
	Std. Deviation	8.54054	22.08971
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.153	.068
	Positive	.153	.048
	Negative	-.110	-.068
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		1.236	.546
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		**.094**	**.927**
a. Test distribution is Normal.			
b. Calculated from data.			

Table 1 shows that the lecturers 'language style data and students' self-efficacy are obtained sig values. 0.094 and 0.927 are greater than the value of α = 0.05, means that both data are normally distributed.

4.2. Data Linearity Testing

Test results for the Test for Linearity lecturer language style data on student academic self-efficacy using SPSS version 20 shown in the table 2 as follows:

Table 2.
Test for Linearity Results Variables of Student Academic Language Style and Self Efficacy
ANOVA Table

			Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Academis Self Efficacy * Language Style	Between Groups	(Combined)	16803.558	25	672.142	1.817	.046
		Linearity	7329.572	1	7329.572	19.816	.000
		Deviation from Linearity	9473.986	24	394.749	1.067	**.419**
	Within Groups		14425.581	39	369.887		
	Total		31229.138	64			

Source: Output of SPSS 20 Testing Results

Based on the linearity test of this research data as presented in table 2, it is known that the significance value of deviation from linearity in the independent variable (lecturer language style) with the dependent variable (student academic efficacy) is 0.419. Thus, it can be stated that the significance value of the variable of this study is greater than α = 0.05, it can be explained that the regression line of the variable is linear so that it can be a parameter to predict the size of the student's academic self-efficacy variable. Hypothesis testing is used to calculate the magnitude of the influence of the lecturer language style on student academic self-efficacy at IAIN Kendari. The outputs used to test the hypothesis are briefly presented in the table below.

Table 3. *Results of Linear Regression Analysis*

Coefficients[a]						
Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	174.558	9.018		19.357	.000
	Gaya Bahasa	-1.253	.285	**-.484**	-4.396	.000

a. Dependent Variable: Academic Self Efficacy

Source: SPSS 21 Output

The results of the analysis in table 3, the path coefficient values obtained are -0.484 and sig values. 0,000 is smaller than the value of α = 0.05, then H0 is rejected, which means that the language style of the lecturer influences the student's academic self-efficacy. The referred influence is negative, means that the higher the negative language style developed by the lecturer, the student's academic self-efficacy will decrease further, and conversely, the lower the negative language style used by the lecturer, the student's academic self-efficacy can be better or increase. Furthermore, to get the coefficient of determination or the magnitude of the contribution of lecturer language style variables to student academic self-efficacy, it is shown in the table of determinant coefficients as follows:

Table 4. *Determination Coefficient Test Results*

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.484[a]	.235	.223	19.47712

Source: SPSS 21 Output

Based on table 4, the coefficient of determination shows that the magnitude of the contribution of lecturer language style variables to academic self-efficacy is 23.5% and the rest is influenced by other factors not related to this study. Based on the results of the test the mean difference between the value of self-efficacy in the class and the self-efficacy value of working on the assignment shows that there are significant differences between the two. The mean difference test results found that the self-efficacy p-value (Sig.) In the class was 0.00> 0.05. So, it can be stated that there are differences in the average of self-efficacy in the classroom with self-efficacy working on the task where self-efficacy in the class is lower (66.45) than self-efficacy working on the task (69.01).

This research confirms that the lecturer's language style influences the academic self-efficacy of students. The variable language style of lecturers contributes 23.5% to students' academic self-efficacy. This means that the language style of lecturers who tend to be positive can motivate and empower students' abilities, while negative language styles can weaken student's self-efficacy. This research is supported by the theory of Pajares (2002) which explains that negative language styles are generally easier to decrease self-efficacy than to strengthen it through encouragement through a positive language style. The results of this study support the results of previous studies about the positive relationship between academic climate and student /student/learner self-efficacy. Like Kinanti's (2014) study, the more positive the classroom climate, the higher the students' self-efficacy, the more negative the class climate, the lower the student's self-efficacy. Academic climate consists of elements relating to the teacher/lecturer, the subjects themselves (subjects), structuring the classroom environment and physical condition of the class along with the availability of facilities. Especially for the teacher elements, it is closely related to skills of teaching, the qualities of personal, students and teacher knowledge relationship (Abd-Elmotaleb & Saha, 2013). The relation between lecturers and students becomes an important source for the formation of academic self-efficacy. Through lectures, students can assess their abilities in attending their lectures and doing assignments properly. Verbal expressions are one of the useful things in the formation of student academic self-efficacy in this study. Positive sentences can increase students 'academic self-efficacy and vice versa sentences and negative word choices

(disparaging, negative labels) with certain emotional expressions (anger) can reduce students' academic self-efficacy.

Bandura and Wessels (1997) propose efficacy beliefs rather than a generalized expectancy. As the finding of the study of Tschannen-Moran & Hoy (2007) which show that the contextual factors available in the school environment such as verbal persuasion and the availability of sources of social support influence the self-efficacy of prospective teachers in the study. Thus, student self-efficacy can also be closely related to several special conditions that exist in the campus environment such as campus climate, campus/class leadership, and relationships between people on campus including relations between lecturers and students. Lecturer and student relations are closely linked to verbal communication that occurs during the lecture. This is evident in this study that the sentences delivered by lecturers in the class provide a significant role in the formation of student academic self-efficacy in attending lectures. There are variations in the academic self-efficacy level of students in each class they follow.

On the other hand, there have been some researchers prove and support the contribution of self-efficacy beliefs towards second language acquisition. For example, Magogwe and Oliver (2007) state that self-efficacy beliefs connecting to the learning of language mediate the impact of other influential factors, namely aptitude or previous achievement, on the next performance. In the context of teaching English as a second and foreign language course, it is found that if a student has a high self-efficacy beliefs, he or she is confident about their achievement, set himself or herself challenges and is committed to achieving them, work harder to avoid failure, is highly resilient, and connected failure with the less of effort or deficient knowledge and skills that he or she believes he or she is capable of achieving (Bensalem, 2018; Saleem, Ali & Ab Rashid, 2018). of particular relevance to the current research is a research by Lamboy (2003), who found that one of the things that can give a positive input students' self-efficacy beliefs is the design of an online learning environment to motivate different styles of learning (e.g., visual, kinesthetic, etc.) in learning a language. This implies that the technology use such as those described in Table 1 collaborated with effective instructional design, could be a good way to increase the student's self-efficacy beliefs.

5. Conclusion

This research shows that the language style of the lecturer plays an important role in the formation of the self-efficacy of his students. A good relationship between lecturers and students requires good verbal communication. For students, the role of assessment/belief in one's own abilities is as important as the ability itself. The success of students in college, not only based on the ability/intelligence they have. Self-efficacy is not related to a number of knowledge and abilities that a person has but is related to what someone believes or believes about what can be done with the knowledge and skills he or she has in a situation such as meeting academic demands if he is a student. Because of the beliefs that can be manipulated, the four self-efficacy sources, mastery experiences, vicarious learning, social persuasion should be managed well including providing good persuasion through the lecturers' language style in the form of conveying good verbal communication for their students. Further research can investigate the correlation between lecturers' language style and students' performance and motivation.

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Using Instructional Scaffolding Strategies to Support Oral Productive Language Skills among English Majors at Majmaah University

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Abstract:
This study aimed at investigating whether using some instructional scaffolding strategies would be effective in developing oral productive skills among female English majors in the college of education in Azulfi, Majmaah University. It also aimed to know the size of that effectiveness. The participants of the study were 62 and they were divided equally into two groups; the experimental one studied the course with the intervention of the instructional scaffolding strategies and the control group studied the same course without any intended focus on the instructional scaffolding. The study adopted the pre-post design; average scores of the participants were calculated using T-test. The ratio of effectiveness was calculated using the Modified Black's Gain Ratio. Results were very promising as they revealed significant improvement in the mean scores of the experimental group in the oral test as T-test value was (5.41). The evidence indicated that using instructional scaffolding strategies was effective as the ratio of effectiveness was (1.06). Results highlighted the real value of instructional scaffolding while teaching oral skills in English class. It is highly recommended to integrate instructional scaffolding strategies as an inspirable element of English courses and to further investigate the processes that the teachers focus on while scaffolding.

Keywords: Instructional Scaffolding, Language Learning, Oral Productive Skills, Teaching English

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Introduction:

All the time, there are hotly endless debates around the best instructional practices with adamant defense and justifications. Still, Constructivism is one of those important pedagogical philosophies that founded for many effective strategies and techniques in Education. Its fundamentals were derived from the main natural assumption of learning and knowledge acquisition; learners build their knowledge on their own when they are enabled to reformulate the knowledge they previously acquired while guided by the others (Fosnot, 2013). Instructional scaffolding is an important concept shaped by constructivism. It provides learners with the guidance they need to construct a clear understanding of their learning and enable them to regulate knowledge without that perpetual reliance on teachers or parents. At the same time, most education systems in the Middle East compete to use technology-supported learning approaches and sometimes the only scaffolding type that is offered to learners is a technical one. Teaching English as a foreign language is one of the contexts that require abundant scaffolding because the learners try to overcome many linguistic and cultural barriers during language acquisition in general and its oral production in particular. Here, the study hypothesized that instructional scaffolding would help English majors to improve their oral productive skills and demonstrate more independent proficiency in oral presentations of ideas and topics.

Instructional Scaffolding

Instructional scaffolding is based on essential points of Piaget and Vygotsky who are respectively the two major cognitive and social constructivist theorists. They posited that learning occurs when new mental structures are built upon previous knowledge and understandings and when bridging the gap between what the learners know and what they are able to learn. (Piaget, 1979). To theoretically originate to instructional scaffolding as a concept, it is found to be much correlated to Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) of Vygotsky that refers to the difference in learners' actual ability to learn and solve problems by their own and their ability when assisted by more experienced people. It was defined as "the distance between the actual developmental level as determined by independent problem solving and the level of potential development as determined through problem-solving under adult guidance or in collaboration with more capable peers". As explained by Vygotsky, ZPD refers to "what the child is able to do in collaboration today he will be able to do independently tomorrow" (Vygotsky, 1987, p.86).

In different educational contexts, scaffolding is much seen as the encouraging guidance effort given to learners to work within their ZPD. Being unmentioned by Vygotsky himself, the term of scaffolding can be traced right back to the inspiring paper published by Wood, Bruner and Ross (1976) which presented the concept of scaffolding given by parents to their pre-school kids in a tutorial process and they defined scaffolding as a process "that enables a child or novice to solve a task or achieve a goal that would be beyond his unassisted efforts" (p. 90). Examining the relation between the two concepts, Walqui (2006) explains that "scaffolding and ZPD are closely related that only within ZPD that scaffolding can occur" (p.162). It means that a deep understanding of the concept of ZPD is required before approaching scaffolding as an appreciated technique of supporting learners' development. From this viewpoint, it can be imagined that ZPD is like a circle that represents the area in which real learning occurs and it embraces the other elements required

for that leaning to be born. Scaffolding inseparably lies in the middle of the circle being oriented by the teacher with many other elements like peers and learning resources. At the same time, scaffolding relation to ZPD is a dynamic lifetime one that requires scaffolding to fade and withdraw in a certain phase to leave a space for other important functions to work like self-regulation.

As stated by Van de Pol, Volman and Beishuizen (2010), scaffolding –as an educational concept- "has received much attention in research and an abundance of research on scaffolding in different contexts resulted" in identifying and stressing its importance in education (p.271). Thus, in their overview of literature published between 1998 and 2009, Van de Pol, et al. (2010) found that scaffolding appeared to be most fully developed in the field of literacy and reading comprehension.

Instructional Scaffolding strategies help teachers identify the best practices of effective learning. This is due to the analysis and understanding of real challenges and difficult areas of knowledge and the scaffolding activities teachers design to handle these challenges. An initial procedure is to design learning activities in line with the scaffolders that would guide learners in their learning. These scaffolders are obligatory signs that help them recognize their way into knowledge acquisition. In their viewpoint, Applebee and Langer (1983) identified scaffolding as a powerful analytical tool because it helps novice learners to carry out new tasks when they learn strategies and patterns that will eventually enable them to carry out similar tasks without external support. Proceeding from this, instructional scaffolding should be found echoed in every classroom. It is an effective way teacher use to assist learners to develop their oral language skills and get suited to language acquisition. Derived from its relation to ZPD, scaffolding is very essential in language classes. In fact, research related to scaffolding supports the use of instructional scaffolding strategies in language classes depending on the impressive interactive nature of scaffolding process itself (Van de Pol et al., 2010).

Experimental evidence revealed that instructional scaffolding has remarkable efficacy in teaching and learning in many subject-matter areas (Azih & Nwosu, 2011; Alake & Ogunseemi,2013; Palincsar, 1986; Pandhu, 2018). Of particular promise is the small body of research on its usefulness in foreign language classes and supporting teaching language skills like reading (Chou, 2013; Fitzgerald & Graves, 2004; Reynolds & Goodwin, 2016; Salsbury, 2005), writing, (Ahn ,2012) and second language production (BavaHarji, Gheitanchian & Letchumanan, 2014). Therefore, further research must expand on the available experimental evidence base signifying the effectiveness of instructional scaffolding in teaching different ELF skills in general and oral one in particular.

Oral productive skills

Improving oral productive skills of learners is an issue that deserved much dispute and genuinely it depended on amalgamating both assumptions and expectations of teachers and learners. Although the oral production of language is a crucial part of language acquisition, many educational systems still focus of the written skills on the ground that most of the assessment

systems require the written format of language production. Teaching many conversational and speaking courses for years, I clearly identified that learners feel hesitant and shy to contribute to any oral discussion and they feel they don't have enough command of language or control of the subject matter. They are obsessed by the idea that the more they speak the more errors they have and that, of course, will affect their marks. On the other hand, as described by Walqui (2006, p.160), they may feel and act better if they perceived that their teachers- Scaffolders- "expect them soon to get more involved and full-fledged members of the active class". In that way, a gap is observed between the best practices and current ones of teaching and testing oral language production. This gap relates to the amount of language exposure students have and their prior academic knowledge. Students who haven't been exposed to enough and appropriate comprehensible input or haven't pushed to talk and improve their oral skills may need to receive different types of scaffolding to start producing correct short forms of language and move on to have full discussion and conversations. Of course, there are significantly big experimental shreds of evidence of many successful investigations of techniques and strategies to enhance students' oral fluency and accuracy. Speaking in front of the audience, participating in a group oral presentation, and mastering the pronunciation of progressively more challenging vocabulary are important skills that benefit foreign language learners. (Vardell, Hadaway & Young 2006). The study here attempted to examine how much it would be effective to synergize different instructional scaffolding and varied oral production tasks to improve students' oral productivity of participants.

The current study

In the last five years, the enrolment of the English language students in Azulfi College of education grew with an adequate rate of regular program completion and graduation (64%). Still, examining students' score records for the last two years in most of the oral tests revealed a gap between students' level of written performance and the oral one. Students who academically passed different courses that required written performance were failing in oral tests. (Table 1)

Table 1. *Comparison of the mean of students' scores in written tests and oral test*

2017	1st semester	44	40	33.8	23.1
	2nd semester	43	40	32.8	25.3
2018	1st semester	45	40	33.4	25.1
	2nd semester	39	40	34.1	23.9

To assure the problem, a diagnostic oral test was conducted among 44 female students in the English department. It consisted on three questions and required the students to a) apply for a new job, introduce themselves and give a brief presentation of their skills, b) tell about their favorite type of food and c) tell who is their best friend and why. The mean of students' scores was (11.2) with a low percentage of (37. 3%). Moreover, one of the genuine motivations for this study came from the feeling that I got about students' oral proficiency while teaching Speaking courses. Thus, the study here attempted to turn around this situation. It hypothesized that the students would

develop their oral skills of the English language if they received more strategic instructional scaffolding from their teachers. The study built its framework on the assumption that scaffolding is more than modeling and imitation; it is a process that enables students to potentially achieve more than an assisted completion of tasks. Thus, there was an urgent need to redesign the curriculum of the speaking course by integrating the instructional scaffolding strategies. An experiment was conducted to investigate the efficacy of this integration by offering different types of instructional scaffolding and to work as a remedial treatment to help students overcome the deficiency of poor oral production of the English language.

Methods:

Questions of the study

The study aimed at answering the three following questions:

1- Is using instructional scaffolding strategies effective in supporting English majors' oral productive skill?
2- Is there a statistically significant difference between students' scores of the experimental and the control group in terms of the total score of the oral test?
3- Is there a statistically significant difference between students' scores of the experimental and the control group in terms of the criteria of the oral test?

Participants

The study was conducted on 62 female English majors enrolled in English language program in 2018/2019 academic year, in Zulfi College of Education, Majmaah University. They represented two sections of the speaking course in level 1. They were assigned as an experimental group (no.31) who have studied the course based on the instructional scaffolding strategies while the control group (no.31) have studied the same course normally without any certain emphasis on scaffolding forms. Both sections met once on a weekly base for three hours over 12 weeks. Both groups used the same syllabus and textbook, which was *Skills for Success 1: Listening & Speaking by Scanlon J. (2011)*.

The instructional scaffolding model of the study:

The study got to benefit from the literature reviewed through framing the program, identifying appropriate needed scaffolding strategies, and determining when to embed scaffolding and when to pull it off. (Anghileri, 2006; Byrnes, 2007; Ebbers & Rowell, 2002; Hogan & Pressley, 1997; Larkin 2002; Lewis, 2019; Turnbull, Turnbull, Shank, & Smith , 2004; Webster, 2017). Instructional scaffolding is meant to help students to learn new content and acquire new skills that are too difficult for them to acquire alone without guidance or help. According to Turnbull et al. (2004), instructional scaffolding requires developing instructional plans to lead the students from guided learning to self-regulated learning to execute these plans, where the teacher provides support to the students at every step of the learning process. This shows off the real loads the teacher has throughout the whole process. "A teacher is challenged to find the learners' strengths and build on them to teach the important skills that will lead them either to academic or functional success"(Webster, 2017, Definition, para.1). According to Gibbons, 2002; Van Lier, 2006; Walqui, 2006, scaffolding is schematically framed as three related pedagogical scales; they are a)

planning the scaffolding structure of activities and tasks, b) the procedures of scaffolding, and c) the moment-to-moment collaborative interaction. It was characterized by six features which are central to any educational setting; they indicate that scaffolding has continuity, contextual support, inter-subjectivity, contingency, handover/takeover, and flow. This study integrated scaffolding strategies in a systematic frame that presents instructional scaffolding through three main scales and six main features. Generally, teaching tasks for each lesson included an oral activity with a subject related to the main theme of the unit. The instructional materials of the speaking tasks were integrated into listening texts. Some given similar tasks were assigned to students to be carried out as homework. Some Matters of shared interest were identified through discussion with students. These topics were integrated into the course as additional activities or home assignments. They were extended and merged to the suggested list of matters of interest. This was done as "in every program for English Language Learners, students' culture and language need to be appreciated and validated through class practices" (Walqui, 2006, p.106).

According to Byrnes (2007), Vygotsky identified four phases of instructional scaffolding; they are modeling by the teacher, imitation by the leaner, removing the scaffolding and finally performing the task individually by the student with an expert level of mastery. Based on this, this study adopted the following model to incorporate instructional scaffolding throughout the lesson:

1- The teacher presented the cognitive content, explained the new task and the learning goals to the student and told them how to use the visual scaffolders, answer questions, reflect on prompts or interact to any other scaffoldings.
2- The teacher started demonstrating the task to the students while integrating modeling to thinking aloud. Here, the teacher tried to explain what exactly the students have to do and provided a model of Think-Aloud Protocol (TAP).
3- The students, under the guidance of the teacher, completed the task following the model the teacher presented before. They were encouraged throughout the task to use TAP in order to show comprehension of the task and help the teacher to check their progress, offer guidance when needed and provide alternatives.
4- The class would be ready then for group or pair work to handle similar tasks with less guidance and help of the teacher. Here, the students were required to use the scaffoldings by their own and could create some by themselves; for example, they could state some questions or prompts for the oral task they have to complete.
5- As scaffolding should fade, individual students would work on some new similar tasks alone. They would receive corrective feedback from the teacher during their work or receive it later as the teacher sometimes preferred not to interrupt students' oral presentations.
6- The teacher shows appreciation and gives praising and supportive feedback to the students as they were in need to feel that they achieve progress and on the right track.
7- The program adopted some instructional scaffolding strategies. They included Reflection Prompts (words and hints), Cue cards, Verbal Scaffolding, Modeling, Summarizing, Questions, Modeling, Reading aloud, Sequenced Instructions, Organizational Segmentation, Visual Scaffolders (Graphic Organizers-Charts), Reading aloud (lyrics and short stories) and Thinking-Aloud Protocol.

Measuring tools and procedures

Oral production Test (pre & post-tests)

The researcher designed two equivalent forms of the oral test to control the learning effect and transfer. Every form consisted of three main questions that required oral verbal answers. It was taken into account to select themes that may lend themselves well to student's personal life as the aim was to test their oral performance features with little stress on content that may require prior knowledge. The tests were judged by a jury of English instructors who have taught the oral courses for many years to contribute their recommendations, check clarity and evaluate content reliability of the tests. A pilot study was conducted to calculate the suitable time of the test and it was found to be 10 minutes; it was conducted individually and students' answers were recorded for further procedures of scoring.

Scoring Rubric

Every test was footed by a brief rubric that illustrated the criteria and scoring system. This was done to help students know what they should focus on and how their oral production should be like. A detailed rubric was used by the examiner to give scores. It was used to analyze students' responses, count errors and judge the responses in light of performance indicators. The rubric was judged and evaluated in parallel to the tests.

Results

After teaching the course, the two groups were post-tested using the oral test form B. students' recorded answers were rated by two raters. As the experimental design of the study depended on comparing students' scores in pre and post testing, it was concluded that the resulting differences regarding the oral productive skills were due to the experimental treatment and accordingly to use the instructional scaffolding strategies. T- test formula was used to analyze the difference between the mean of scores of the participants in the Pre and the Post-measurements. First, pre-testing results revealed that students' mean of scores for both the experimental and control groups had no statistically significant differences in the total score of the test (Table 2).

Table 2. *Students' mean of scores in pre-testing of oral productive skills*

	Group	N	Mean	SD	Sig (2-tailed)	Significance level	T-value
Total score of the oral test	Experimental	31	23.68	7.467	0.096	0.05	1.69
	Control	31	27.35	9.538	0.096		

Table 3 reveals that there were no statistically significant differences among students' mean of scores in assessment criteria of pre-testing of for both groups.

Table 3. *Students' mean of scores in assessment criteria of pre-testing for both groups*

Criteria	Group	Mean	SD	Sig (2-tailed)	Significance	T-Value
Grammar (15)	experimental	4.61	1.76	0.170		1.387
	control	5.29	2.07	0.171		
Vocabulary (15)	experimental	5.06	2.39	0.171		1.386
	control	5.97	2.73	0.171	0.05	
Comprehensibility (15)	experimental	3.61	1.63	0.012		2.58.2
	control	4.26	1.59	0.120		
Pronunciation (15)	experimental	6.13	2.74	0.120		1.014
	control	6.84	2.76	0.315		
Ideas (15)	experimental	4.26	1.32	0.129		1.540
	control	5	2.34	0.130		

Second, post-testing results reveal that there are statistically significant differences among students' mean of scores for both the experimental and control groups favoring those of the experimental group. (Table 4)

Table 4. *Students' mean of scores in Post-testing of oral productive skill for both groups*

	Group	N	Mean	SD	Sig (2- tailed)	Significance	T-value
Oral test	Experimental	31	55.97	13.80	0.00	0.05	5.41
	Control	31	38.03	12.281	0.00		

Table 5 reveals that there are statistically significant differences among students' mean of scores in assessment criteria of post-testing of for both groups favoring those of the experimental group.

Table 5. *Students' mean of scores in assessment criteria of Post-testing of for both groups*

Criteria	Group	Mean	SD	Sig (2-tailed)	Significance	T-value
Grammar (15)	Experimental	11.42	2.49	0.00		4.53
	Control	8.10	3.24	0.00		
Vocabulary (15)	Experimental	11.03	2.75	0.00		4.09
	Control	8.06	2.95	0.00		
Comprehensibility (15)	Experimental	11.26	3.65	0.00	0.05	4.95
	Control	7	3.098	0.00		
Pronunciation (15)	Experimental	11.52	2.91	0.00		5.04
	Control	7.77	2.94	0.00		
Ideas (15)	Experimental	10.74	3.50	0.00		4.46
	Control	7.096	2.90	0.00		

According to the above-mentioned results, using instructional scaffolding was effective in improving English majors' oral productive skill. The ratio of effectiveness was calculated using the Modified Black's Gain Ratio (1.06). (Table 6)

Table 6. *Effectiveness Ratio using Modified Black's Gain Ratio*

Effective	1.06	75	23.68	**55.97**

Discussion

Results shew that instructional scaffolding strategies provided effective temporary support for the experimental group students and helped them reach high levels of understanding and mastery of the content that were unattainable in the same level to those of the control group. For the latter, some tasks were too challenging to complete even collaboratively. The students were encouraged to verbalize their thinking and articulate their thought aloud to be heard by the teacher and the class. It was difficult at the first two classes because of their fears of making mistakes or being out of ideas. When the students shared the same practice with mistakes being ignored, they started verbalizing their thoughts more confidently and resolutely. As an answer to the first question, Modified Black's Gain Ratio was calculated and identified as (1.06) which meant that using instructional scaffolding was effective in supporting oral productive skill among English majors. Students taught using instructional scaffolding performed far better than their counterparts who were not. As table 2 indicated, the mean scores of the students in the two groups were compared to assure that they are equal in terms of their academic level and their oral production performance is equivalent. As an answer to the second question, T-test was made to compare the differences between the average scores of the two groups.

The instructional visual scaffoldings used in the study helped to keep students' attention focused on the tasks and organizing their ideas effectively. Charts, tables, pictures, and graphic organizers were valuable in providing vocabulary and structures for the students during their oral presentation. Verbal scaffoldings like summarizing, questions, reading aloud and sequenced instructions helped students to minimize failure and relate their prior knowledge and form associations. They were helped to pronounce correctly, improve all phonological features of the target language like intonation and stress, and fill in the conceptual gaps to produce oral discussions and deliver speeches. The last two weeks of the study were really challenging as the students were required to complete the oral task independently and scaffolding was completely removed. What happened was exactly the same explained by Winnips (2001) when compared instructional scaffolding as a swimming tube. They had to use and apply every task without any guidance or help.

Here, the results of the study were much focused on many concepts related to instructional scaffolding like learners' ownership of their learning, sharing of responsibility and teachers' commitment to structure and appropriate learning tasks and environment. As supported by Applebee and Langer (1983), instructional scaffolding basically depends on changing the role of the teacher; s/he is the skilled language user who models the linguistic task verbally or written, who supports and encourages instead of evaluating learner's answers, and who reduces guidance gradually till the learner can generalize the acquired knowledge in similar circumstances.

Instructional scaffolding helped to accelerate and facilitating learning for students. At the same time, it requires a deep understanding of kinds and level of assistance and support provided by the teacher who is supposed to be very well-acquainted to his/her students' strengths and weaknesses as well. It also requires continuous planning for every task, designing step-by-step procedures of conducting tasks and proposing solutions for the challenges anticipated by the teacher. Students also have good attitudes towards any unconventional context that may offer them more guidance and practice whether it is technical or contextual one. (Abdelshaheed, 2017). Clearly, it can be concluded that success in using and benefiting instructional strategies depends on the amount of effort and skills that the teacher has rather than his pedagogical content knowledge.

Conclusions

Mounting empirical evidence confirms the gains EFL teachers can make when functioning instructional scaffolding strategies as inspirable elements of their teaching. Although most of the assessment systems require the written format of language production, instructors should work on enhancing students' oral productive skills, delivery skills, and organizational skills. Results of this study can be utilized to reconsider the real value of instructional scaffolding while teaching oral skills in English departments. They revealed the effect the instructional scaffolding had on students' skill and learning; therefore, it is highly recommended to further investigate the processes that the teachers focus on while scaffolding.

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Appendices

Diagnostic Speaking Test

Instructions of the test:

1- This test targets measuring your oral performance of English language for some scientific research purposes. It has no relation to your final course results or your academic record.
2- As the spoken language is transient, your responses will be recorded using a tape recorder to enable the examiner to check back your oral responses and assess them in leisure.
3- The total time of the test is ten minutes; you three minutes to answer each question.
4- You are allowed to write down any notes before giving the answer.

Question 1: You have a meeting to apply for a new job. Introduce yourself and give a brief presentation of your skills.

Question 2: What is your favorite type of food?

Question 3: Who is your best friend? Why?

	Grammar(4)	Vocabulary (4)	Comprehensibility (4)	Pronunciation (4)	Ideas (4)	Total (20)
Q 1						
Q 2						
Q 3						
Final Total (60)						

English Speaking Test (Form A- Pre Test)

Instructions of the test:

1- This test targets measuring your oral performance of English language for some scientific research purposes. It has no relation to your final course results or your academic record.

2- As the spoken language is transient, your responses will be recorded using a tape recorder to enable the examiner to check back your oral responses and assess them in leisure.
3- The total time of the test is 15 minutes; you five minutes to answer each question.
4- You are allowed to write down any notes before giving the answer.

Question 1: Tell a short story you have liked most when you were a kid.
Question 2: What is the country you want to visit? Why?
Question 3: Which is more important in life; money or academic certificate? Why?

	Grammar(4)	Vocabulary (4)	Comprehensibility (4)	Pronunciation (4)	Ideas (4)	Total (20)
Q 1						
Q 2						
Q 3						
Final Total (60)						

English Speaking Test (Form B- Post Test)

Instructions of the test:

1- This test targets measuring your oral performance of English language for some scientific research purposes. It has no relation to your final course results or your academic record.
2- As the spoken language is transient, your responses will be recorded using a tape recorder to enable the examiner to check back your oral responses and assess them in leisure.
3- The total time of the test is 15 minutes; you five minutes to answer each question.
4- You are allowed to write down any notes before giving the answer.

Question 1: Tell about your likes and dislikes on a vacation you spent abroad.
Question 2: What is the most difficult subject matter you have studied? Why?
Question 3: What are your views about allowing women to drive in KSA?

	Grammar(4)	Vocabulary (4)	Comprehensibility (4)	Pronunciation (4)	Ideas (4)	Total (20)
Q 1						
Q 2						
Q 3						
Final Total (60)						

English Speaking Test Rubric

Grammar	Answers are grammatically correct without errors	answers have some occasional few grammatical errors	there are some grammatical errors that interfere with communication	there are many grammatical errors that hinder comprehension	
Vocabulary	using appropriate vocabulary without errors	using vocabulary correctly with minor errors	using vocabulary with many errors	using vocabulary with many errors that hider comprehension	
Comprehensibility	answers are clear and completely fluent and comprehensible.	answers are quite comprehensible but with few pauses.	answers are incomprehensible at times with long pauses.	answers are incomprehensible with long pauses that hinder communication.	
Pronunciation	there are no errors and pronunciation mirrors excellent pronunciation	there are minor errors but don't hinder communication	there are many errors and mispronunciations	there are many major errors that hinder communication	
Ideas	expressing ideas properly and coherently	expressing ideas in an accepted way with little coherence.	ideas are quite limited and incoherent	ideas are limited, incoherent and not clear enough	

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Code Switching by Female Students of Islamic School in Daily Communication: Modern Islamic Boarding School

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Abstract:
The multi-ethnic and multi-lingual society of Islamic boarding school students (*santri*) involves the occurrence of code switching. This research aims to reveal the code switching patterns by female students in daily communication in Islamic school Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School in Indonesia, and the factors affecting the occurrence of code switching in daily basis communication in Islamic boarding school. The data are derived from the verbal interaction among the female students in Islamic school. Meanwhile, the data are populated by using the techniques of observation, recording, and interview. Further, they are analysed by the use of Hymes, (1996) ethnography method of communication. The result of this study shows that the code switching patterns includes *Intersentensial switching*, *Intrasentensial switching*, and *Tag switching*. However, the dominant pattern of code switching used by female students is *Intersentensial switching*. It is occupied in order to clarify the sender messages. In the domain of friendship, there are switches on the language of Indonesian, English, Arabic, Javanese, Sundanese, and Malay. The cause of the code switching relates to closeness between the speakers and the partners, prestige, popular terms. Also, it intends to convey the purposes and intentions of the speakers such as confirming information and maintaining cultures.

Keywords: code switching, communication, and Islamic boarding school

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1. Introduction

The existence of Modern Islamic Boarding School (*pesantren*) in Indonesia significantly affects the life of Moslems in Indonesia. In addition, students (*santri)* who live in Islamic boarding school neighbourhood for years become an important aspect of life. They are the young generations and successors with strong basis of faith, piety, intelligence, independence, creativity, and the ability in communication. Pesantren is a subculture possessing typical characteristics from language, culture, or communication points of views. Code switching is clearly clarified during the communication of Islamic boarding school society such as the daily conversation between female teachers (*ustazah*) and students male teachers (*ustaz*) and their students, among male and female students, student and staff. The Islamic boarding school community conduct communication in different situations for diverse purposes such as the interactions during teaching and learning process, dormitory activities, extracurricular activities, etc.

In Indonesia, there are a great number of Islamic boarding school. Based on the data of the Ministry of Religious Affairs, in 2016, the number of Islamic boarding school has reached 28.961with 4.028.660 students. Most of the community members come from multi-ethnical and multi-languages. Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School or Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School become a modern *pesantren* in Indonesia integrated with additional skills in media (journalistic, video-graphic, public speaking, and English). The main characteristic of Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School is the multi-ethnic community. Such phenomenon relates to student backgrounds mainly from Javanese and Sundanese ethnics, and least from minority ethnics such as Malay, Papua, Minang, Banjar, and Sulawesi. Remarkably, there are students that have been reside in Malaysia, Thailand, Oman, Qatar, so they possibly have communicated with the other female students in Islamic boarding school. In multi-ethnic and multi-lingual student community such as female students of Islamic school, there are varieties of code switching.

The sociolinguistic research on code switching has been conducted by many researchers (Søndergaard, 1991; Chung, 2006; Susanto, 2008; Jingxia, 2010; Saddhono, 2012; Yulyana, 2012; John & Dumanig, 2013; Gunawan, 2013; Koban, 2013; Modupeola, 2013; Halim & Maros, 2014; Dar, Akhtar & Khalid, 2014; Mokhtar, 2015; Sardar et al., 2015; Maros, Noorizan & Zakaria 2016; Dente et al., 2016; Keong et al., 2016; Mustikawati, 2016; Husnan, 2016; Wulandari, Marmanto & Sumarlam, 2016; Wahidah, Djatmika & Marmanto, 2017; Faiz, 2017; Fachriyah, 2017; Paramesvaran & Lim, 2018; Islamiah, Sumarlam & Marmanto, 2018; Eliya, 2018; Lestari, 2018; Mangku, Chong Shin & Collins, 2018; Song, 2019; Basabrin, 2019). They have discussed the phenomena of code switching, the reasons of code switching occurrences by using different objects and areas. Based on the review of those researches, this study strives to resolve the research gap on the use of code switching on six languages in Islamic boarding school that has not been observed. The languages include English, Arabic, Indonesian, Javanese, Sundanese, and Malay as the communication language among students. The research gap also discusses on social factors that affect the code switching among female students in Islamic school on their friendship domain at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School (PPIM) and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School (PPMI Assalaam). The purposes of conducting this study are (1) describing the patterns of code switching used by female students in daily communication in PPIM and PPMI Assalaam in

Indonesia, (2) Revealing the factors that affect the code switching among female students in daily communication Islamic school PPIM and PPMI Assalaam.

2. Literature Review

Islamic boarding school becomes a pot for exchanging languages. Different backgrounds of students affect language interaction among them. The language interaction between different speakers in bilingual and multilingual community results a reciprocal linguistic effect creating language occurrences (Padmadewi *et al*, 2014). One of them is code switching in the articulation of language users. Suwito (1983, p. 68) explains that code switching is the event of exchanging from one code to another. It is supported by Hudson (1996, p.51) *"*anyone who speaks more than one language chooses between them according to circumstances*"*. It means that code switching is a pattern of the use of more than one language by a bilingual speaker using a language code based on a current situation. Holmes (2013, p.35) "reveals that code switching takes place if there is a language change after a third person involves in the conversation of the first two persons. The switching is motivated by the identity interconnection between participants to show their solidarity".

Poplack (1980, p.583) explains that "code switching refer to the utterance-internal juxtaposition, in unintegrated form, of overt linguistic elements from two ormore languages, with no necessary change of interlocutor or topic" From those several definitions of code switching, it concludes that code switching is a term to refer an interchanging situation in using two or more languages with variations from a language to another one in bilingual or multilingual society. The theory used to classify the patterns of code switching in this research is Poplack (1980) as it is comprehensive to find the patterns of code switching in daily basis communication by female students in Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School.

Poplack (1980) states that code switching includes tag switching, intra-sential switching, and inter-sential switching. Taq switching is an insertion of language affirmation into a lingual sentence unit articulated as communication language. Further, Apple & Musyken, 2006 (as cited in in Thesa, 2017) assert that Intra-sentensial switching occurs within a sentence or a clause. Generally, such pattern is in the format of word and phrase of other languages into language sentence used as a basic language articulated by the speaker. Inter-sensential switching is a pattern of interchange articulation of the speaker into other language in the form of sentence or clause. In addition, Sardar *et al* (2015) classify that code switching into three types known as tag-switching or extra-sentential switching, inter-sentensial switching and intra-sentensial switching.Tag-switching, refers to the insertion of a tag phrase from a language into a statement from another language. Inter-sentensial code switching involves a change occuring at a clause or sentence level, where each clause or sentence is either in one language or the other. Inter-sentential switching requires high proficiency in both first language (L1) and second language (L2) compared to tag-switching CS as itinvolves in the clause or sentence change. The last, intra-sentential which is perceived as the most complicated type of code switching that occurs within the clause or sentence boundary. Although intra-sentential CS is the most frequent type of CS in conversations, however, most of the proficient bilingual or multilingual speakers avoid using intra-sentential CS as it contains the highest syntactic risk.

3. Methodology

The class of takhashushiyah is taken out for this research because the students (*santri*) are in the transition stage from public schools into *pesantren*;Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School. This stage can affect their code switching in communication as they remain intact with their local accents. The data of this research are the conversation among female students of Islamic school during daily basis communication in the area of Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School containing code switching their friendship domain. The code switching will examine from the language formulations used by students from Indonesian to Javanese, English, Arabic, Sundanese, and Malay or vice versa. The resources of data of this research are populated from the verbal interaction among female students as in the process of learning in the class, chatting on student activities in their room and in the dormitory, their discussion on fashion, food court, love and other topics during their spare time.

The data collection is conducted through observation by monitoring the communication occurrence related to the code switching at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School. Moreover, the researchers employ a hidden recorder to collect the data such as hand phone or other recording tools. Such activity deploys when the female students of Islamic school have a chat in Islamic boarding school. Further, deep interview applies to find out the factors affecting the code switching among female students of PPIM and PPMI Assalaam. Sudaryanto (2015, p.6) explicates that the data analysis technique is proceeded based on the purpose of the research. While the collected data can be analysed based on certain strategies. The framework as the basis of data analysis technique in this research is communication ethnography model developed by Hymes (1996) in the acronym of speaking.

4. Result and Discussion

In the aspect of friendship, the code switching used by female students of Islamic school in daily basis communication is varied in the pattern of code switching from Indonesian into English or in reverse, Indonesian into Arabic or in reverse, Indonesian to Javanese or in reverse, Indonesian into Sundanese or in reverse, Indonesian into Malay. From the result of the research reveal that the tag code switching includes 10 data, intra-sentensial code switching includes 13 data, and intersentensial code switching includes 22 data. For the details, the data are illustrated in Table 1 as in the following. From several codes switching used in daily basis communication by female students of Islamic school in Islamic boarding school, they dominantly use the code switching of intersentensial from Indonesian into English or in reverse.

Table 1
The patterns of code switching in pesantren

Inter-sentensial switching	Intra-sentensial switching	Taq-switching
48,8%	28,8%	22,2%

From those three patterns of code switching, the following data will explain the use of the each code switching from those patterns.

a. The type of code switching in daily basis communication

1. Tag Switching

Data 1

Santri 1 : *Ya, kamu dengar suara nu tadi teu?*
:Ya, did you hear the voice teu?
Santri 2 : *suara apaan euy...*
: what was the voice euy...
Santri 1 : *tadi teh aya abang-abang lagi lari siah..*
: the brothers were running..
Santri 2 : *weh...**manjiw**, kasep-kasep teu!*
: weh...manjiw, handsome-handsome teu!

The excerpt depict the use of tag code switching between *Santri* 1 from Malay ethnic and *santri* 2 from Sundanese ethnic in the dormitory of Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School. The conversation takes place at daylight in informal situation between *santri* 1 and *santri* 2 coming from different ethnical society. During the conversation, *santri* 1 says to *santri* 2 whether she hears voices from outside of *pesantren*. Then, *santri* 2 replies *suara apaan euy* (what was the voice euy). The purpose of this conversation is that *santri* 1 wants to inform that there are voices of seniors wandering around the *pesantren*. The code switching occurred in this conversation is tag switching. It is identified by the advent of a lingual unit in the form of phrase in Indonesia into Sundanese ***manjiw*** meaning praise and compliment to seniors in Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School. The expression that states the insertion of affirmation as in the above excerpt is the word ***manjiw*** in Sundanese language. The student uses code switching to exhibit closeness and maintain Sundanese language. In such code switching, the student occupies a declarative sentence containing an affirmation. The tone used in the code switching above related to the conversation occurrence is medium. Whereas, the norm used in code switching in such conversation relates to politeness.

2. Intrasentensial Code Switching

Intra-sential code switching refers to code interchanging in a sentence. Therefore, this kind of code switching is also called code mixing. Practically, this type of code switching appears in several levels of language units; word, phrase, and baster (a phrase formed by two or more language units from different languages). The use of Intrasentensial code switching can be described in the following conversation.

Data 2

Santri 1 : *uh...capek loh..panas lagi shofi aja yok...*
: uh...it is tired, hot, just pray alone...
Santri 2 : *yok lah...ana juga capek, gak ada yang tau juga kan*
: let's go, I am tired too, nobody knows..
Santri 3 : *Astaghfirullah*, *Allah maha tahu*
: *Astaghfirullah*, Allah all knowing

The above conversation excerpt is the on-going conversation occurrence between *santri* 1 and *santri* 2 taken place in their room of Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School. The time

of the occurrence is in the late afternoon with informal situation because the talk involves *santri* 1 with Malay Ethnic, *santri* 2 with Sundanese ethnic, and *santri* 3 with Javanese ethnic, and they have the same position and age. In such context, *santri* 1 invites *santri* 2 and *santri* 3 to offer prayer individually not communally in the mosque. It can be seen from the sentence utterance*uh...capek loh...panas lagi shofi aja yok*(uh...it is tired, hot, just pray alone), then *santri* 2 replies yok lah...ana juga capek, gak ada yang tau juga kan!(let's go, I am tired too, nobody knows)..However, *santri* 3 refute by saying *Astaghfirullah*, Allah all knowing. The intention of the conversation is that *santri* 1 asks *santri* 2 and *santri* 3 to offer prayer individually in their rooms. In the conversation, it contains Intrasentensial code switching identified by the language mixing of Indonesian and Arabic such as the word 'shofi' meaning offering individual prayer and the word *Astaghfirullah*, referring to begging for mercy to Allah the almighty. The purpose of such code switching is to emerge the more popular terms. Meanwhile, Arabic is compulsory to use in conversation in the *pesantren*. It depicts that Islamic boarding school neighbourhood tends to be religious by stipulating the use of Arabic in daily activities. In such code switching, the utterances involve an imperative sentence type containing a command to offer prayer individually. The tone itself is medium, and the norm in the code switching is politeness.

3. Intersentensial Code Switching

Data 3

Santri 1 : *tolong bantu aku untuk mencari name-tags!*
Please help me to find name-tags!
Santri 2 : *usually, where do you keep it?*
Santri 1 : *usually, I keep it in lower drawer of locker, but now I don't find it.*
Santri 2 : *by the way, please check, may be still pinned on the yesterday uniform.*

The above excerpt is a conversation between *santri* 1 and *santri* 2 taken place in a class at Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School. The time of the occurrence is in the morning with informal situation because they are close friend. Both come from the same ethnic of Sundanese, and they are at the same age around 15 years old. The intention of the conversation is asking for a help to find name-tags. In such occurrence, the students employ a lingual unit of intersentensial in the sentence of *usually, where do you keep it?* Such code switching belongs to intersentensial by the raise of lingual unit in the form of translation from Indonesian into English. The code switching is used to clarify the intention. The type of the sentence is interrogative because it is obviously stated that the interrogative sentence requires an answer. Speech tone is accordance with the purposes of the conversation, such as invitation and the politeness norm applies in the excerpt of conversation.

The Factors of Code Switching

The factors related to the occurrence of code switching in daily basis conversation at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School in this research are analysed by using contextual approach. It means that the research is regulated based on place, participant, conversation theme, and social context related to female students of Islamic school. The factors affecting the code switching are identified below.

(1) the closeness between speakers creates informal situation of conversation, so they can insert words from their local language such as Javanese that can be seen in the data (4).

Data 4
Santri 1 : *habis ini urutan mandi siapa?*
: What is the line-up of the bath?
Santri 2 : *di kamar mandi mburi masih kosong, tidak ada urutan mandi*
: in a bathroom of the backyard is still empty, no bathing sequence

The excerpt is a conversation between female students of Islamic school in an informal situation in the dormitory of Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School. The conversation discusses the line-up for bathing in *pesantren*. In this context, there is code switching from Indonesian into Javanese identified by the word *'urutan'* line-up and the word *'mburi'* backyard. It shows that both students are close each other, possess the same position and typical age, so they do not have to necessarily bring formality.
(2) For the purpose of pride, showing the impression of prestigious, in the conversation, there is expression containing the code switching between Indonesian and foreign language as in data (5)

Data 5
Santri 1 : *jam berapa kita kumpul di Assalaam Hall?*
: what time do we gather in Assalaam Hall?
Santri 2 : *kumpulnya after lunch aja ya...*
: we gather after lunch

The context of utterance is that *santri* 1 raises a question to *santri* 2 about *jam berapa kumpul di Assalaam Hall*? (what time do we gather in Assalaam Hall?), and then *santri* 2 answers *kumpulnya after lunch aja*(we gather after lunch) . From the conversation, the pattern of the code switching is in the use of *after lunch* phrase. The speaker firstly uses Indonesian, and then inserts English identified by the phrase of ***after lunch***. From the interview, the students states that the reason of code switching is for prestige.
(3) The use of more popular terms. The occurrence of code switching is caused by the tendency of female students in using the more popular vocabulary. During the conversation, they cannot find the synonym in their language such as in the data (6) of the word *food court,* derived from English.

Data 6
Santri 1 : *Mey, besok ada* ***food court****...*
: Mey, there is food court tomorrow
Santri 2 : *yah, berarti gak ada JP dong, berarti kita cuman di dalam pesantren*
: yah, there is not JP, it's mean we only in the Islamic boarding school.

In data (6), the code switching is in Indonesian and foreign languages uttered by female students. The word *food court* is a word from English, and the students argue that the code switching due to the lack of synonym in Indonesian for *food court.* In the conversation, there is an abbreviation JP for *Jum'at Putri*. The term of *Jum'at Putri* used by female students of Islamic school means the day for going outside of Islamic boarding school. This term of *Jum'at putri* in the sentences above refers to the first *Jum'at* (Friday) of the month. Normally, the students go out to refresh their mind with friends, visit book exhibition, watch movies, or shop in modern department stores.

(4) the intention of the speaker is the factor behind the phenomena of code switching in formal and informal situations. Female students of Islamic school in daily communication at Islamic school use language code for an intention. It relates to the individual speaker intention namely to confirm on something and maintain culture as discussed in this study. One of the reasons of code switching is to confirm on something. The following sample is a dialog to describe the previous explanation.

Data 7

Santri 1 : *Guys cucian siapa ini?*
: Guys whose laundry is this?
Santri 2 : *punyaku*
: mine
Santri 1 : *It's like has been two days*
Santri 2 : *you are right*
Santri 1 : *but, it's better not to place inside*
Santri 2 : *sorry, I haven't got a spare time, to wash it*
Santri 1 : *Please come here!*
Santri 2 : *Oh, smell bad, is it?*
Santri 1 : *Yeh, it is, please, don't put off*

The conversation above is in the informal situation of friendship in the dormitory of Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School. Both female students are talking about washing. In the conversation, there is code switching using English. At first, the students occupy Indonesian in the dormitory, but they swap into English to confirm the topic discussion. It can be seen in the utterance of *It's like has been two days*. Further, the intention of maintaining culture is one of the supportive factors to sustain the use of languages especially local language. This case is related to language function as a cultural binding tool and the media to exhibit ethnical identity. Its purpose is to maintain culture, so the use of local language is maintained in Islamic boarding school neighbourhood. This reason encourages female students to have code switching in daily basis communication as illustrated in data (8) and (9) below.

Data 8

Santri 1 : *Jah anti kenapa?*
: Jah, what is wrong with you?
Santri 2 : *pusing ana, novel ana disita semua*
: I'm dizzy, all of the novels were confiscated...
Santri 1 : *gelo... tekor lobu atuh*
: it was crazy, lost a lot of them
Santri 2 : *iyalah baru beli lagi asli semua*
: I just bought all the original
Santri 1 : *nu sabarwe, isukan melideui anu bajakan*
: it's patient, you can buy the immitation ones.

Based on the above excerpt data, there is code switching from Indonesian into Sundanese used by both female students of Islamic school in Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School. Initially, the students apply Indonesian in their communication in the dormitory and switch to Sundanese as their local language. The reason of their code switching using Sundanese is to exhibit closeness and maintain their local language. It is also supported by the interview from *santri* 1

with Sundanese ethnic. She provides information that the code switching aims to maintain Sundanese. In addition, she explains that *santri* 2 is her classmate and roommate.

Data 9

Santri 1 : *Ndri, yuk mufradat?*
: Ndri, let's mufradat?
Santri 2 : *ntar ana nyusul...*
: later, I follow you..
Santri 1 : *aih...males ijinin aja ana sakit*
: aih...it's lazy, let me get sick
Santri 2 : *aih, gadanta bener kau ini tak boleh lah macam tu*
: aih, it's not clear, you might not like this

The excerpt is the conversation on *mufradat* activity between female students in informal situation in Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School. *Santri* 1 occupies informal code of Indonesian *aih...males ijinin aja ana sakit (*aih...it's lazy, let me get sick), but the code switching occurs due to *santri* 2 utterance using Malay *aih*, *gadanta bener kau ini tak boleh lah macam tu* (aih, it's not clear, you might not like this*). Santri* 2 applies Malay because *santri* 1 possesses similar cultural background with Malay ethnic. Such pattern of switch code is a custom and informality from the speakers in communication interaction, so unintentionally they apply Malay in their utterance. Malay language code is used to create intensity of connection and solidarity among students (*santri*) in the scope of Islamic boarding school and to maintain Malay language in Islamic boarding school.

Discussion

Poplack (1980) asserts that there are three patterns of code switching namely tag switching, intra-switching, and inter-sentensial switching. This research finds the pattern of code switching used in female student communication in Islamic school at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School as *Taq Switching*, *Intrasentensial Switching*, and *Intersential-Switching*. The language formation includes Indonesian, Arabic, English, Javanese, Sundanese, and Malay. The result will explain the code switching in communication interaction by female students of Islamic school at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School; (a) Tag Switching, (b) Intrasentensial switching, and (c) Intersentential Switching. Tag Switching posits in the beginning of a sentence or amid a sentence. In this research, Tag Switching contains code switching from Indonesian to English or in reverse, Indonesian to Javanese or in reverse, Indonesian to Arabic or in reverse, Indonesian to Sundanese or in reverse. The use of Tag Switching relates to 10 data or 17,7% of total data during the communication interaction among female students of Islamic school at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School.

The use of Intrasentensial code switching covers 13 data or 22,2% out of overall data during the communication interaction at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School.The Intrasentensial code switching consists of code interchanging from Indonesian into English or in reverse, Indonesian into Arabic or in reverse, Indonesian into Javanese or in reverse, Indonesian to Sundanese or in reverse, Indonesian into Malay or in reverse. In addition, the use of Intersentential Switching covers 48,8% data or 22 out

of the total data number during the interaction communication among female students of Islamic school at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School. Intersentensial code switching includes the interchange of codes from Indonesian to English or in reverse, Indonesian to Arabic or in reverse, Indonesian to Javanese or in reverse, Indonesia to Sundanese or in reverse, Indonesian to Malay or in reverse. The most dominant pattern used by female students of Islamic school at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School is Intersentensial Switching. This type of code switching mostly occurs in communication in order to provide profound explanation related to the message of the utterance. Thus the speaking partner will easily understand the message delivered by the speaker. Several factors affecting the use of code switching at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School in the communication of female students of Islamic school include the closeness between speakers and speaking partners, prestige, the usage of more popular terms, and speakers' intention and purpose.

Song (2019) reveals the practice of code switching of Korean and British children from the perspective of language socialisation by using ethnographic and discourse analysis. From the research, the result finds the similarity of the use of code switching between those two languages in communication in different environment. The research includes the family environment and outer family environment (children playing neighbourhood). Meanwhile, this research takes out Islamic boarding school as the observation context including formal situation (classes) informal ones(dormitory and room). Therefore, this research is unlike the previous study. Moreover, this research results differently from Koban (2013) on Intra-sentensial code switching by revealing higher average than Inter-sentential code switching, and the speakers dominantly, Turkish and English, use Intra-sentential code switching than Inter-sentential one. Based on the above explanation, the researcher explain that (1) the patterns of code switching in Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School include taq switching, intrasentensial switching, and intersentential switching, (2) the 6 language use of code switching involve (a) Indonesian, (b) Arabic, (c) English, (d) Javanese, (e) Sundanese, (f) Malay, meaning the language use is varied. In fact, the use of Intersentential Switching is more dominant than Intrasentensial Switching and Tag Switching during the communication of female students of Islamic school at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School.

The research of code switching in Islamic boarding school has ever been conducted by Mustikawati (2016) on the mixing code and code switching used in the learning process at Al-Mawaddah Islamic Boarding School in Ponorogo. The result explains that the patterns of mixing code and code switching in the learning interaction at Al-Mawadah Islamic Boarding School in Ponorogo includes the switch among Javanese, Arabic, English, Indonesian, word insertion, phrase, idioms, the use of noun, adjective, clause, and sentence. Different from Mustikawati, the research on code switching of female students of Islamic school focuses on the patterns of code switching in sentences and utterances by female students in Islamic school including code switching of tag, intrasentensial, and intersentensial. Meanwhile, the research of Mustikawati entitled *Code-Mixing and Code Switching in The Process of Learning* mostly emphasises the type of Intern code switching from Javanese and extern code switching from English and Arabic. Instead of those differences, this research has similar coverage of Mustikawati in the areas of the type of code switching related to word form, phrase, clause, and sentence.

5. Conclusion and Suggestions

Based on the analysis and discussion on the code switching in daily basis communication by female students of Islamic school at Al Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School in the domain of friendship, the conclusions are as follow. The patterns of code switching in communication used by female students of Islamic school in the domain of friendship include three types; Tag Switching, Intrasentensial switching, and Intersentensial Switching. The friendship domain is the scope with the most variation of codes during the interaction communication between female students of Islamic school at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School. This research also finds the code switching in the languages of Indonesian, English, Arabic, Javanese, Sundanese, and Malay. It can be simply put that among those three patterns of code switching, Intersentensial Switching is dominantly used by female students of Islamic school compared to Intrasentensial Switching and Tag Switching. The factors affecting the code switching include (1) the closeness between speakers and speaking partners, (2) prestige, (3) the use of more popular terms, (4) the intention and the purpose of the speakers such as confirming information and maintaining culture. The implication of this research is that the use of appropriate code switching in communication is significantly important. The code switching of Javanese, Sundanese, Malay used by female students of Islamic school at Al-Mukmin Ngruki Islamic Boarding School and Assalaam Islamic Modern Boarding School becomes the form of loyalty to maintain their local language and culture. The use of code switching is barely complex phenomena in multilingual community in *pesantren*. Thus, the effort of code switching mostly requires language skills of foreign languages (Arabic and English), formal and informal Indonesian. This issue is highlighted due to diverse ethnical background of the students. Further research can have emphasis on the other communication occurrences in the context of traditional and modern Islamic boarding school to gain different result.

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The Effect of an Intensive Language Course on Students' Linguistic Performance at Majmaah University, Saudi Arabia

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Abstract
This study aims to investigate the effect of an intensive language course at Majmaah University on improving students' linguistic repertoires. It also explores the perceptions of instructors at Majmaah University on students' performance after the intensive language course. The study also addressed the following questions: 1-To what extent did the intensive language course at Majmaah University improve students' linguistic repertoires? 2-How do instructors at Majmaah University react towards students' linguistic repertoires after the intensive language course? To achieve the set objectives: the study used a mixed-of qualitative and quantitative method. A total of 283 students participated in the study experiments, and eight instructors responded to the interview questions. A paired samples t-test was used to evaluate the students' scores before and after the three-month program. The findings revealed that the students scored significantly higher on the post-test. Qualitative data also showed that improvement was not limited to their linguistic repertoires but also applied to their personal skills.

Key words: Intensive language course, linguistic performance, Saudi context

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1. Introduction

Several studies have attempted to analyze the recent deterioration of students' English skills at Saudi universities. Some of these studies addressed students' competencies in language skills (e.g. Abahussain, 2016; Aljarf, 2009; Alseghayer, 2014; Alsubahi, 2001; Liton & Ali 2011; Mahib ur Rahman 2011; National Center for Assessment in Higher Education(NCAH) 2014), while others attempted to evaluate the programs and teaching methods used in English departments (e.g. Abahussain, 2016; Alhajailan, 2003; Alzaidi, 2011; Almohanna, 2010; Mahib ur Rahman, 2011;). Coincidently, all of these studies acknowledged that Saudi students' have poor language proficiency. For instance, Alsubahi (2001) indicates that 60% of students sample from five universities passed their final English examination with very low achievement standard. Abahussain, (2016) and Aljarf, (2009) shows that several Saudi students who study at the tertiary level struggled with listening comprehension and in responding to very straightforward questions or instructions in English. They also had unpretentious written English and their performances in the English tertiary examinations were lower than in other subjects. From my own experience as a language lecturer, I have noticed that the intake from secondary schools not meet university standards, and the students' English competency is problematic. This observation is echoed by Abahussain's (2016) study, which pointed out that some of the reasons for students' poor language proficiency levels, particularly at English departments, is the leniency in student admissions and ignorance of the prerequisites of English departments. Hence, many students with little motivation to study English and poor language proficiency, are accepted into English departments. Abahussain (2016) also argues Saudi universities do not provide students with sufficient preparation courses. To bridge the gap between secondary intake and university demands, some universities have adopted intensive language courses to solve this problem. Among these is Majmaah University. Thus, this study aims to investigate whether the intensive language course at Majmaah University helps to reduce this dilemma or not.

2. Research Questions

The study seeks to answer the following questions:

1-To what extent did the intensive language course at Majmaah University improve students' linguistic repertoires?

2-How do instructors at Majmaah University react towards students' linguistic repertoires after the intensive language course?

3. Research Objectives

1-To investigate the effect of the intensive language course at Majmaah University in improving students' linguistic repertoires.

2-To explore instructors' perceptions at Majmaah University on students' performance after the intensive language course.

4. Previous Studies:

Nagano (1995) points out that: "a one-week intensive English course could affect not only the learners' achievement but also their attitude toward learning English positively". (p.13)

Austin and Gustafson (2006): "explored the possible differences between intensive and traditional semester-length courses by using a database of over 45,000 observations from different semesters and found out that intensive courses were more beneficial for the learners". (p.15)
Similarly, the findings of Raymond's study 1995 (as cited in Jayakaran Mukundan, et.al… (2012) shows:

> An intensive English program could have a significant positive effect on language knowledge development of the learners. More precisely, Raymond compared the oral and written competencies of the students in an intensive English course with the students in a regular course and showed that the students from the intensive program outperformed the regular students in both oral and written comprehension abilities. (p.3)

5. Intensive Language Course Program

The intensive course program was initiated by Majmaah University in the 2017-2018 academic years to promote students' English standards. The program was conducted full-time over 14 weeks (20 hours). The subjects are listed below:

5.1.Reading and Writing

Students previewed vocabulary, read paragraphs, and did quick writes. The reading exercises presented examples of the sentence structure and vocabulary needed to perform writing tasks.
Writing models were presented to scaffold the shape of the writing tasks. This was followed by graphic organizers that showed the structure of the paragraphs, and then grammar exercises. Writing activities mostly consisted of paragraph writing by giving the students main ideas, supporting sentences, etc…

5.2.Listening and Speaking

Listening and speaking were combined to give students more language practices in authentic circumstances similar to real- life conversations. More focus was given to accuracy by having students listen to different topics and then answer questions and complete activities from the book. Speaking activities focused on grammar, pronunciation, and fluency.

6. The Study

6.1.Sample of the Study

Experiment Sample

All of the students in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) enter secondary school, after spending three years studying English at intermediate school. During secondary school, the students are 14-17 years old. They all speak Arabic as their first language, and; nearly all of them have studied English for three years at school. The pupils who took part in the study were a mix of females and males. There were 283 students from five English departments in different towns.

Interview Sample

The interview group consisted of eight English instructors with M.A. degrees in the English language. Their teaching experiences varied considerably from 5 to 15 years.

Text book

Skills for Success by Lyn & Scanlon (2016) were used in the intensive English course program. Levels 1& 2 were used. Skills for Success is widely -used series in Saudi universities and institutions.

6.2. Methods

6.2.1. Study Experiment

Six classes participated in this study. All of the students from these classes studied English for the same amount of time and used the same textbooks. The pupils in the six classes were taught reading comprehension passages, writing skills, listening comprehension and speaking from their text book for three months during the intensive language course program as a prerequisite to join the Bachelor of English program. The experiment involved three phases:

Phase 1: Students took placement tests or pretests before starting the program. The tests consisted of reading comprehension, writing, speaking and listening quizzes.

Phase 2: Posttests were administered to students within three months after the program's completion. The test used was similar to the tests that students practiced in their text book and including: reading, listening, speaking, and writing quizzes.

Phase 3: A paired samples t-test was used to compare the students' grades between the pretest and posttest.

6.2.2. Interview

Semi-structured interview questions were emailed to 10 English instructors. Eight of the instructors replied back. They were asked to answer the following questions:

1- To what extent did the students' linguistic repertoires improve after the completion of the intensive language course?
2- Which language skill improved as a result of the intensive language course?
3- Which language skills do you think still need further improvement?
4- Do you have any suggestions that may contribute to improving the current practice of the university's intensive language course?
5- Do you think there are any differences in language performance between students who underwent the intensive language course and former students who did not take the intensive language course?
6- Do you have any further suggestions?

7. Results and Discussion

7.1.Experiment Analysis

The analysis of the experiment focused on answering the vital question: To what extent did the intensive language course at Majmaah University improve students' linguistic repertoires?

Table 1. *Distribution of Pre-test and Post-test Scores Within the Paired Samples*

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Pre test	15.1943	283	7.27263	.43231
	Post test	30.9435	283	11.50348	.68381

To answer this question, we computed the mean, standard deviation, standard error, and ranges for the pre-test- and post-test scores. To determine whether the progress was a direct result of instruction, T-test was used to compare the pre-test and post-test means scores. Table 1 clearly shows that after the intensive language course was administered, students scored higher on the posttest than they had on the pretest (mean = 30.9435 and 15.1943, respectively).

Table 2. *T-test Comparing the Results of the Pre-test and Post-test Means.*

Groups	N	Mean	St. Deviation	df	t	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pre test	283	15.1943	7.27263	282	-21.036	0.01
Post test	283	30.9435	11.50348			

Table 2 clearly shows that the comparison of the mean scores yielded a difference of (+ 15.75) between the pre-test and post-test. Further, the results of the t-test yielded a t-value of 0.01 ($p < 0.05$ ***), meaning that the difference between the pre-test and post-test scores was statistically significant. This suggests that the students' linguistic repertoires improved significantly as a result of introducing the intensive language course program. This result could possibly explain why some Saudi universities have initiated and adopted intensive courses or preparatory years to promote student standards in English and to bridge the gap between secondary intake and university demands. It also advocates the effectiveness of the intensive language course as a successful policy for improving students' linguistic repertoires. Qualitative data from the interviews aligned with the quantitative results, showing that there was a remarkable positive change in students' repertoires. This result was echoed in all of the interviewees' respondents, one of whom said:

> "Students' linguistic repertoires have been noticeably improved in a way that almost all of them have built up a strong base as beginners. They all can keep up with the teacher in each and early point, as their level of comprehension and vocabulary is very good. No use of Arabic in the class, even simple words or sentences, due to their enhanced level of English language", (Interviewee 6).

This finding is in harmony with Nagano (1995) who obviously pointed out that seven days intensive English course could positively affect the learner's performance and their attitude towards learning English. In addition, Austin and Gustafson (2006) argued that intensive language courses for the learners were more valuable. Likewise, the findings of Raymond's study 1995 (as cited in Jayakaran Mukundan, etal. (2012) showed that an intensive language course for the learners could have a notable affirmative influence on their language competence progress.

7.2.Interview Analysis

The thematic analysis technique was used in this study to categorize the results of the interviews into significant themes. The most important themes are discussed below:

7.2.1. Remarkable Improvement in Language Proficiency

The interview data showed that there was a significant change in students' language proficiency at the end of Intensive English Course (IEC) comparing to their level at the beginning of IEC. Thus, it appears from the interviewees' responses that the current intensive language course at Majmaah University helps prepare the students and develops their language skills. Students' linguistic repertoires were noticeably improved: their level of comprehension and vocabulary is very good; no use of Arabic in the classroom, even simple words or sentences. This result was echoed in all of the interviewees' responses one of whom said:

> "Students with IEC have comparatively good linguistic and language proficiency; listening, speaking, vocabulary and reading etc. They seem to be motivated towards English and can accomplish any learning task with confidence", (Interviewee, 1).

This result was in line with the quantitative results, mentioned earlier, which showed that there was a remarkable change for the better regarding students' scores on the post-test compared to the pre- test.

Another advantage of the intensive language course is that the language proficiency for those students who took the IEC was much better than that of previous students who had not taken any language foundation courses. One of the participants summarized this result when he said:

> "There is a massive difference between the previous students and the students who are coming after passing the intensive language course. The former had a weak English background. So, they were not very motivated and faced a lot of problems in understanding pedagogical activities. However, the later students have better understanding and they can communicate fluently. They also have a sound foundation for going ahead easily", (Interviewee, 4).

Another participant added that:

> "Students who have taken Intensive English Course (IEC) have an improved level of English language at all levels as noticed. They have very good communication skills in class and with the teacher. They have a great deal of responsibility regarding their courses and their assignments" (Interviewee, 2).

From the results of the data, one can say that the intensive language course at Majmaah University gave the students a chance to examine their skills and their English level in general, so they really know where they stand. Thus, it seems that students who took the intensive language course were better prepared for a variety of skills and topics.

7.2.2. Receptive vs. Productive Skills

The data showed that while there was an improvement in language skills in general, some of these skills improved more than others.According to the results of the interviews', the receptive skills (listening and reading) and to some extent speaking skills, improved more than writing skills.

> "Definitely speaking is a noticeably improved skill, along with reading as students have a rich storage of vocabulary. In addition, students' level in listening is very good as well", (Interviewee, 3).

The limited improvement in writing skills can be attributed to the fact that mastering writing skills requires a great deal of practice and additional time, as stated by one of the interviewees:

> "I think listening and speaking still need improvement because they require more time and practice due, to a large extent, to their nature as opposed to reading and writing, which rely more on analytical skills until you can see the results", (Interviewee, 5).

These results are similar to other studies regarding teaching and learning language skills. These studies, (eg. Djigunovic, 2006; Sebestova, Najvar, & Janik, 2011; Weshah; 2011) showed that productive language skills progressed the least during language courses.

Furthermore, improvement was not limited to major skills, sub-skills such as grammar, spelling, and pronunciation also improved:

> "As compared to those who have not taken any such intensive course, our intensive course students demonstrate remarkable skills in pronunciation, grammar, syntax, pragmatics and discourse", (interviewee 5).

7.2.3. Motivated and Confident Students

The data showed that the courses not only improved the students' language proficiency but also their personal skills. Students' motivation and confidence for learning English increased in comparison to those who did not take the intensive language course. One of participants mentioned this:

> "Students seemed to be motivated towards English and could accomplish any learning task with confidence", (Interviewee, 1).

8. Conclusion

Given the recent deterioration of student English skills at Saudi universities, Majmaah University initiated the Intensive English Course in the 2017-2018 academic years as a perquisite to join the bachelor program in English. This study investigated whether the intensive language course at Majmaah University improved students' linguistic repertoires? It explored instructors' perceptions on students' performance after the intensive language course. The study employed a mixed – approach using: qualitative and quantitative methods to obtain the aforementioned aims of the study. The study found that students' linguistic repertoires improved significantly as a result of

introducing the intensive language course program. Improvement was not limited to their language skills but also extended to personal skills, such as: motivation and confidence in learning the English language in comparison to those who did not take the intensive language course. Furthermore, the interview analysis revealed that receptive skills were improved more than other skills.

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Re-thinking the Practice of Teaching Literature to Enhance EFL Students' Civic Skills: An Algerian Perspective

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Abstract
Besides the undisputable role of literature in teaching civic virtues through exposing students to characters and themes that accurately exemplify and truly represent civility, teaching literature can serve a means to inculcate in students various civic skills, such as conflict resolution, leadership, negotiation of meaning and constructive criticism. Yet, to attain such skills, teachers need to reshape their teaching practices to be in conformity with the principles of modern education that champion active learning methodologies. The present paper argues for the necessity of rethinking the traditional teacher-centered methods in teaching English literature in the Algerian context as they tend to reduce students' active participatory roles in learning. In response to this, a number of suggestions have accordingly been put forward to enable students reach more independency in dealing with literature. This orientation of thought stems from the belief that active learning is conducive to active citizenship.

Key words: Active learning, civic virtues, civic skills, literature teaching, teacher-centered methods.

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Introduction

The noticeable revival of literary studies since the 1980s has marked the integration of literature in foreign language curricula worldwide (Carter, 1993). Yet, integrating literature in an EFL context entails the careful exploitation and the sensitive handling of the literary text to put the students in a better position to benefit from it linguistically, culturally and motivationally. In the same vein of thought, it is hard to deny the fact that literature, as an educating material, plays a significant role in teaching students civic virtues and noble values as it often exposes them to universal characters and themes that exemplify and represent civility. Teaching literature is equally considered an efficient means to inculcate civic skills in students, such as conflict resolution, leadership, negotiation of meaning and constructive criticism. However, in order for teachers to enable students acquire such skills; their teaching practices have to be reshaped to concretize an active learning methodology. This is another way of saying that teachers need to rethink the traditional instructional modes that usually consider the student as "Tabula Rasa" to be filled up with factual knowledge about literary productions. In response to some inadequacies of teaching EFL literature in the Algerian context, the present paper suggests alternate strategies that encourage students reach independency in dealing with literary texts. These suggestions stem from the belief that active learning is conducive to active citizenship.

Literature as a Resource for Teaching Civic Virtues

In addition to its significant role in language learning and cultural understanding, literature can also contribute to the students' civic readiness due to the fact that narratives, be them fictional or historical, are very likely to introduce and expose them to universal characters and themes that truly represent civility and good citizenship. In fact, literature according to Lazar (1993) has the power to educate the whole person. It elevates and transforms experience, and functions as a continuing criticism of values. The aesthetic delight of literature also serves to purify emotions and morals, and illumine the intellect. That is why, it is considered as an important part of education (Diyanni, 2002).In emphasizing the role of literature in providing the students with the richest and the most efficient contexts for moral awareness and behaviour, Bohlin (2005) accordingly writes:

> The study of literature provides students with an occasion for focused moral reflection and dialogue, an occasion to examine what informs the moral compass guiding fictional lives. Adolescents need a constructive context within which to talk about the lives of others – how they sorted out conflicting desires and learned (or failed to learn) to make their actions consistent with their ideals. (p.27)

Furthermore, literary productions all too often mirror the social, economic and political issues in societies. The author sees these issues from within an idiosyncratic angle, and therefore, attempts to present them to his/her readers. This knowledge can in turn help improve society. Needless to recall, civics sets the target of building the character of an ideal citizenship by stressing good morals and noble values, and this can be achieved through literature. The didactic aspect of literature is significantly efficient in inculcating these teachings in young readers in an implicit manner (Prasanth, 2004).

By the same token, Quigley (2000) praises the crucial role of literature in setting and reinforcing civics learning in educational institutions. He also discusses the benefit that might arise from introducing students to stories that exemplify civic virtues (courage, tolerance, patriotism, integrity, respect...etc) emphasizing the role of the teacher in selecting the most appropriate works conducive to the fullest understanding of morality in civic life.

More to this point, Stotsky (1992) insightfully discusses the merits of literature in inculcating in young learners civic virtues and values. She first draws attention to the role of a national (American) literature in enriching their historical knowledge as well as raising their awareness of the nation's cultural identity. In this very specific context, Stotsky referred to some outstanding American literary works such as Benjamin Franklin's autobiography and Ralph Waldo Emerson's essays which ,according to her, have much to play in attaining an understanding not only of America's political and social values, but also its civic identity.

On the other hand, Stocky (1992) insists on extending the exposure of students to literature to include works on other people and from other corners. She firmly thinks that such "foreign works" in spite of their distinct cultural perspectives and loads, in comparison with the local ones, can help students understand the universality of humans' desire for freedom and justice worldwide. In making this point and to be illustrative enough, she referred to the works of Chinua Achebe and Alexander Solzhenitsyn.

Teaching Literature: Teaching Civic Skills

Besides its role in teaching civic virtues, teaching literature can serve a means to promote students' civic skills (Stosky, 1992). Yet it seems wiser to wonder what the term "civic skills" refers to. Civic skills have been approached differently among civic educators. According to Kirlin (2003) civic skills refer to a set of individual abilities that are essential for an effective and sufficient participation in civic life. These include communicative skills, critical thinking and interpretation skills, monitoring skills, organizational skills, group discussion skills and cooperative skills at large. Kirlin (2003**)** accordingly writes that "Civic skills do not exist in a vacuum; they are part of a larger set of ideas about what is believed to be necessary for citizens to be engaged in public life. (p.3)

Preparing students to be civically engaged requires teaching them new knowledge and skills such as problem solving and thinking critically to initiate social actions in community settings. This is the idea of Battistonni (2002) as cited in Welch (2007) who identifies a number of specific skills that are deemed necessary for students to be engaged citizens. These include the following:

- ✓ Critical thinking skills
- ✓ Communication skills
- ✓ Problem solving skills
- ✓ Civic imagination and creativity
- ✓ Collective action
- ✓ Organizational analysis

While civic skills can be acquired at several organizational environments, they are all too often connected to and associated with civic courses offered at educational settings. Yet, beyond restricting the acquisition of civic skills within a standalone course with rigid boundaries, the point worth being raised in this context is the contribution of EFL teaching in promoting such skills because the importance of civic education and citizenship expands beyond a separate well-defined course, and therefore, it can take place in any class across curricula. In this respect, Burchett Gauna and Paul (2016) rightly posit that "preparing students to actively take part in the world around them is not merely the goal of one class; it is the overarching goal of school community."(pp.19-20)

It is within this vein of thought that the role of teaching EFL literature in promoting students' civic skills and civic engagement should be explored. In line with the necessary skills for ensuring civic engagement, it seems that literature is in a better position to respond to and fulfill these requirements. This would deliberately lead us to recall that literature can serve a source for:

- **Linguistic development:** since it provides the students with genuine and perfect examples of writing and expressive varieties.(Collie & Slater,2000)
- **Mental training:** reading literature improves the theory of mind. It urges and motivates the reader to unveil ambiguities and incompleteness of characters and plots. (Kidd & Castano,2013)
- **Open to interpretation:** Because of its various layers of meaning, literature is open to interpretation. The figurative aspect in literature adds impetus to perceiving it differently. Being a material open to interpretation also enhances the students' critical thinking skills. (Lazar,1993)

- **Communicative drive:** taking literature as a source of discussion improves students' communicative skills (paraphrasing, summarizing, arguing..etc) (Showalter,2003)

- **Tolerance and understanding**: getting insight into another culture through reading literature promotes the sense of tolerance and accepting otherness.(Kramsch,1993)

- **Cooperative effect:** involving the students in reading and analyzing the same book serves a useful task to enhance their cooperative skills (Daniels, 2002).

Active Learning and Civic Engagement

According to Quigley (2000) the acquisition of civic skills necessitates involving the students in an active learning environment. By the same token, Colby et al (2003) assert that promoting civic engagement in classrooms is ideally founded on some principles that include: active learning, learning as a social process, contextualized learning, reflective practice and the ability to represent an idea in more than one modality. The remarkable emphasis on active learning in attaining civic engagement goes in parallel with the recent trends in modern education, which has been primarily concerned with making students responsible for their own learning. This direction of thought has been driven by the strong desire to achieve a sustainable, self directed and life-long learning. To this end, active learning seems and yet has proven to be, despite the constraints that might impede its implementation, an adequate approach to move from the traditional ways of instruction which

stress the role of the teacher and the knowledge s/he delivers at the expense of the role of students in constructing knowledge.

Broadly speaking, active learning refers to some strategies and techniques that extend the role of student beyond simply listening to a lecture. Hence, the student is required to be engaged in learning through discovery, processing, applying as well as evaluating input. This basic idea about the essence of active learning is expressed by Felder and Brent (2009) who posit that active learning denotes "anything course-related that all students in a class session are called up on to do other than simply watching, listening and taking notes." (p.2)

By the same token, and in a more detailed manner, Faust and Paulson (1998) highlight the dynamic nature of active learning. They therefore associate it with

> Any learning activity engaged in by students in a classroom other than listening passively to an instructor's lecture. …. this includes everything from listening practices that help students absorb what they hear, to writing exercises in which students react to lecture material, to complex group exercises in which students apply course material to "real life" situations and/or new problems. (p.4)

In brief, because the crux of active learning is, par excellence, student-centredness,it caters for the different learning styles, addresses students' needs and most importantly exhorts the teacher to come down from the pedestal to assume the role of a facilitator who strives to create a supporting and autonomous learning environment.

Active Learning VS Passive Learning

Passive learning is deeply interwoven with traditional approaches of education that consider the teacher as the only source of knowledge. It is characterized by the limited personal involvement, and as such, it is not self –reinforcing. Passive students do little to contribute to learning; their roles are typically minor, and because of this, they *"*tend to become disinterested, non-motivated and nonresponsive, and ineffectual" (Petress, 2008, p. 566). The issue of students' passivity at higher education institutions, in particular, has recently become a serious concern for many educationalists (Bonwell& Eison, 1991). Though this phenomenon might be attributed to many reasons, the motivational drive seems to be at the core of it. Commenting on this issue, Hariss (1997) posits that "many university students are passive learners; their prime concern is to pass or get a good mark which will ultimately contribute towards their opportunities for further study or employment."(p.13)

On the other hand, the controversial issue to be raised here regarding active and passive learning is that both concepts are sometimes misperceived and misused, in the sense that many of us would argue that students may learn in a passive fashion and that learning, by definition, implies a type of activity. Clarifying this confusion, Ryan and Marten (1989) in cogent words write that:

> Students learn both passively and actively. Passive learning takes place when students take on the role of "receptacles of knowledge"; that is, they do not directly participate

> in the learning process... Active learning is more likely to take place when students are doing something besides listening.(p.20)

Active learning, as opposed to passive learning, stimulates the student to think about and consider the teacher as being a resource, a guide, an enabler and a facilitator for further endeavours and higher challenges. Active students usually assume dynamic and energetic roles in forging their education. They tend to show the full readiness to invest in what is learned by discussing it, working with it, explaining it, transforming and even testing it. To sum up this point, Petress (2008) as cited in Kheladi (2017, p.56) provides the major characteristics of active and passive learners.

Active learner	**Passive learner**
• Asks stimulating questions • Challenges ideas. • Follows up what has been learned with personal extension: supplementary independent reading, extended projects etc… • Connects what is being learned with what previously learned for better application of input. • Cooperates with peers: s/he shares views and exchanges findings with them. • Demonstrates an enthusiastic attitude towards learning. • Stimulates others.	• Lacks motivation and enthusiasm • Faces problems of retention. • Does not ask probing and challenging questions. • Fails to apply what has been learned. • Even though s/he is bright, s/he tends to acquire a reputation as not so smart learner. • Is not always sought out for their views or insights on what they know. • Does not easily accept cooperation with others.

Literature Teaching in the Algerian Context: State of the Art

Similar to many other EFL contexts, the teaching of literature in most Algerian universities is regretfully still traditional in nature in the sense that teachers depend heavily on lecturing and extended presentations. Within such modality of instruction, students rarely penetrate underlying meanings of literature as their roles are all too often reduced to memorizing and rote learning. In fact, many literature courses are turned into the mere transposition of teachers' own interpretations of texts leaving little space for students to seek and evidence meaning by themselves.

Yet, one has to draw attention to the fact that such a traditional practice often stems from the status of literature itself within the curriculum, particularly at the graduate studies. Literature, in comparison with other language- oriented subjects, is to some extent unfocused. Indeed, besides the limited time allotted to literary studies, the curriculum in its very essence is a survey of the major literary genres and movements. This is the reason why teachers find themselves in many cases urged to adopt a typically informative approach. However, this obsession with coverage rather than with developing in students the necessary competencies of how literature should be read and understood tends to prevent students from appreciating literature.

Moreover, such a traditional practice of literature teaching has had undesirable effects on students' literary competence. Many literature courses tend to direct the students' attention and interest towards contexts, backgrounds, history and sometimes to criticism principally led by the teacher, leaving little space for the vital foundation for appreciating literature, i.e. language. This focus on the extrinsic analysis of the literary text, one might say, is the hall mark of many literature graduate classrooms nationwide. Teachers usually rely on the use of excerpts particularly from novels and assign students the task of extensive reading and because sometimes they do not, reflexive teaching, to use Showalter's (2003) term, automatically takes place . Very few works are entirely studied in the classroom. This is not to devaluate entirely what Palmer (1998) and Showalter (2003) referred to as teaching from the "microsom". But one has to recall the fact that excerpts often lose the excellence of style, and therefore, reducing the benefit of literature. (Cook, 1986)

Teachers on the other hand, often put the blame on students for showing a striking reluctance in nudging themselves into extensive reading. This reluctance, however, is further increased by the selected texts. Indeed, the focus of the syllabus is entirely centered on the study of canonical works and seldom involves modern and non-native literature except for advanced literary studies within which students encounter other kinds of literature, particularly postcolonial texts. Another undeniable fact is that regardless of the approach being implemented in teaching EFL literature, the text is not sufficiently exploited in the classroom so as to involve students in an active learning environment, though most teachers seem to be well aware about the significance of active learning in achieving engagement with literature among students. Their common arguments, in this respect, stem from the assumption that such learning strategies are characteristically hard to apply. Implementing active learning strategies according to many of them is a real challenge especially for those dealing with large classes. In such settings, they are more frequently encountered with the fear to lose control over their classes despite the fact the teacher are supposed to be adequately trained to opt for efficient classroom management techniques that ensure the desirable flow of the course for a supportive learning environment. Another source of anxiety for teachers in applying active learning grows out from the endless obsession with coverage. This is another way of saying that active learning strategies are time consuming, and this in turn urges teachers to leave out some scheduled items or/and deal with others sketchily. Yet, teachers have to account for the fact that covering the syllabus must not be attained at the cost of students' active engagement. The neglect of active learning is also the result of some teachers'reluctance and resistance of change. Many of them would feel comfortable when sticking to the traditional modes of teaching because of their uncertainties of what the new teaching techniques would bring out to them. Consequently and inevitably this will lead them to act as custodians of knowledge, sometimes underestimating their students' abilities (Kheladi, 2017).

Towards An Active Learning Literature Classroom

In response to the different inadequacies and the traditional instructional methods of teaching literature, the present research outlines some recommendations and suggestions which hopefully will contribute to the promotion of active learning in the Algerian EFL literature classroom.

Text Selection: Towards Familiar Themes

The first step towards achieving an active learning environment concerns the text itself. Ensuring

engagement with literature necessitates opting for familiar themes that prompt the students to interact and transact with literary texts. However, familiarity, in this context, is not seen in generic terms because, as argued by Brock (1990), familiarity with the values, themes and issues portrayed in literary texts can significantly affect the students' comprehension and appreciation of literature more than concrete elements like background, place or time. Therefore, opting for universal themes such as courage, integrity, love, patriotism and sacrifice allows students to "view literature as an experience that enriches their lives" (Ali, 1994, p.289) .Stated differently, if literature is to matter, the text has to be chosen in relation to the real life-worlds of the students. This way literature will succeed in addressing directly their emotions; meeting their interests, catering for their needs and concerns. And as such it helps them grow as responsible citizens.

Exploiting Literature

It is quite paradoxical that many Algerian EFL literature teachers extensively argue for the boundless merits of literature in the foreign language classroom while their teaching practices, in many instances, reflect little interaction between their students and the literary text. Worse still, many of them would go further to draw a rigid distinction between the study of literature as content and the use of literature as a resource for language learning. Unfortunately, this clear cut divide is often conducive to reducing the benefit of the literature. On this basis, the need for exploiting the literary text becomes de facto a sine qua none condition for attaining an active learning environment. Authorities on literature teaching such as Lazar (1993), Carter and Long (1991) and Parkinson and Thomas (2000) have acknowledged the significance of working with literature. Their suggestions, in this very specific context, include multiple activities that teachers might bring into their classrooms some of which are traditional while others are innovative. Yet, what seems to account much is that these activities ought to be student-centered, carried out both individually or cooperatively. Methodologically speaking, within such activities, literary texts might be manipulated, rewritten from a different point of view, compared, summarized, transformed to other genres and even performed. (Kheladi, 2017)

Liberating Students' Thoughts and Emotions: A Reader Response Stance

If an effective literary reading in the EFL classroom is to take place, it is strongly advisable to develop an adequate pedagogy that might assume a place for the teacher to enable the students reach independency in reading, interpreting ,and hence, appreciating literature. It is believed that this could be achieved if a reader response approach is encouraged. The reader response theory in literature has shifted the exclusive focus on the text to an emphasis on the reader. The very assumption underlying this transactional model of reading is that meaning is built between the reader and the text (Rosenblatt, 1994, Probst, 1994,). Rosenblatt (1994) argues that the transaction process is determined by a number of variables including: the attention, the physical and the emotional state of the reader. In a deeper sense, within a transactional reading, the reader brings to the text personality traits, past events, present preoccupations which make his relationship with the text distinct and unique. The reader response approach develops in the students the ability to create meaning themselves beyond those provided and sometimes imposed by the teacher, critics, and their peers and even by the text itself. This is in fact another way of prompting the students, as independent individuals, to echo freely their own opinions and judgments by bearing upon their personal life experience.

Literary Discussions: A Step forward towards Dialogic Teaching

As stated above the transactional reading in the literature classroom is of capital importance. Yet, it might well be supplemented and further elaborated through more open confrontations with the opinions suggested by teachers and peers. This is the reason why literary discussions must be encouraged and the role of the students to take part in them must be praised and sustained. Ideally**,** teaching literature turns to be effective when it stimulates contemplation and synthesis by thinking over new concepts, posing sound and critical questions, raising relevant hypotheses and drawing convincing conclusions. To this end, literary discussions can offer the students the widest opportunity to develop and share their own interpretations of texts, to deepen their and others' understanding and to argue against readymade and/or previously established judgments (Clark, 2009). Introducing literary discussions is a means to move away from and transcend the predominant monologic modes of teaching within which the teacher is the "all know master" who arrogantly takes over the flow of talking in depositing knowledge, leaving little space for students' interaction and participation. Conversely, dialogic instruction, which stems from Bakhtin's (1981) notion of dialogic discourse, challenges the idea that meaning is authoritative and fixed. Dialogic instruction tends to favour and sustain the students' active participation in classroom discourse. It champions their voices in discussing and interpreting texts collaboratively with the teacher. Therefore, "by making their classroom interaction more dialogic, teachers can engage students in a collaborative deliberation of complex questions and support the development of students' thinking." (Reznitskaya, 2012, p.446).The dialogic mode of teaching is a step forward in preparing students to be engaged in civic activities. Through discussions, students acquire the communicative and interpersonal social skills to express and defend their own opinions as well as to reflect soundly on those suggested by others.

Cooperative Learning

The premise of cooperative learning, as an active learning strategy, is that students are engaged in working together towards a common goal (Carter, 1993). This in turn makes cooperative learning more structured and more organized than traditional group works. Creating a cooperative learning environment in the classroom necessitates the active involvement of heterogeneous group members in tasks. In so doing, each member is required to learn from and contribute to others' learning. Teachers, therefore, must strive to concretize the essential components of (CL) which, according to Jonson et al (1993), are:

(1) Positive interdependence: The student in the group must embrace the belief that his/her success is connected to and dependent on the success of his/her peers and vice –versa.
(2) Face-to-face interaction: The students are required to promote interaction in the group by explaining to each other how to solve problems, discuss concepts and, equally, teach their knowledge to each other.
(3) Personal accountability: Students learn together so that they can, in a later stage, perform better as individuals. They should be made aware of the fact that though they are working together towards a common objective, each member is responsible for his/her own contribution. Calling randomly on individual students to present their group's work is a common procedure to check personal accountability.

(4) Interpersonal and social skills: Besides linguistic skills, students learn interpersonal skills such as attentive listening to others, providing useful explanation, giving directives and acting as coordinators.

(**5) Group processing:** A common procedure for group processing is to ask each group to list things the group have well done and things that should further be improved.

The benefit of cooperative learning in the literature classroom would be boundless when critically implemented. The structured cooperative activities, within which the groups are provided with well-defined guidelines regarding the task and what ought to be achieved by the end of the course, have the very potential to improve students' academic achievements and promote in them effective skills, such as negotiation of meaning, problem solving, critical thinking and efficient communicative strategies. In this respect, Slavin (1991) posits that implementing cooperative learning in the classroom will result "in improvements both in the achievement of students and in the quality of their interpersonal relationships" (p.71). Obviously enough, such qualities are necessary in both school and extra school settings.

Conclusion

The present paper has praised the role of literature in promoting civic engagement. Introducing literature to students and inciting them to explore deeply its universal themes and characters is conducive to inculcating civic values in them. In addition to this, it has been made clear that in order to improve students' civic readiness, it is crucial to reconsider both the teaching materials and the practiced methodologies. It is within this vein of thought that the present research has brought into play the claim of many civic educationalists in stressing the significance of active learning in enhancing students' civic skills. Active learning requires the students to do more than simply listening to a lecture and taking notes. It rather urges them to be fully engaged in a process of discovery, processing, applying and evaluating input. Regretfullly, and the literature teaching practice in most Algerian EFL settings is still interwoven with old fashioned teacher-centred approaches that rather instill passivity in students. Active learning is seen as a requisite for active citizenship. That is why the present paper has presented some recommendations and suggestions to help concretize an active learning environment in the literature classroom. The text has to be carefully chosen to motivate students seeking further and deeper knowledge. The teaching practice on the other hand has to be aligned with a student centred approach that allows the move from "banking" to "dialogue".

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Approaches to Crafting English as a Second Language on Social Media: An Ethnographic Case Study from Saudi Arabia

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Abstract
Saudi female undergraduates perform various activities in English, their second language (L2), on social media. They engage in different types of writing and reading on social media in everyday life. But little is known about the material resources and concrete activities they drew on as they read and write in English on their preferred social media. This ethnographic case study aims to examine the material resources and concrete activities of a group of Saudi female undergraduates majoring in English Translation in a university in Saudi Arabia as they use English on social media. This study particularly aims to answer this research question: What material resources and concrete activities do Saudi female undergraduates employ as they read and write in English on social media? A total of eleven female Saudi undergraduates took part in this research. Online observation, focus group interviewing, semi-structured interviews, informal conversations and online logbook of English usage were employed over a three-months period to collect data. This study draws on Literacy Studies (LS), that understand literacies as social practices involving more than technical skills. Analysing the data thematically revealed that these undergraduates drew on three main approaches: English-spelling checking approaches, English grammar-checking approaches and English-meaning checking approaches. The study recommends that language learners are encouraged to use Google app, Google Translate app, Dictionary apps and the COCA website to correct, craft and improve their English. They are also encouraged to utilise the built-in smartphone technologies that supports English spelling.

Keywords: approaches to English, connective ethnography, English as L2, Saudi female undergraduates, social media

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Introduction

Social media took off in Saudi Arabia and Saudis have been reported to be avid social media users (Fouad, 2015). According to Hubbard (2015), Social media have boomed in Saudi Arabia due to the fast Internet and the extremely restrictive social codes that limit Saudis' public life.

Social media consumes a considerable amount of time in Saudis' everyday life. Alkhatnai (2016) indicates that half of Saudi undergraduates of both genders who study English at King Saud University spend 20–30 hours per week on social media. Kutbi (2015) explores females in particular and reports that the majority of these Saudi undergraduates spent around five hours per day on social media. This indicates that Saudi females spend a long time on social media.

English in Saudi Arabia is the second Language (L2) and Arabic is the first Language (L1). According to Dewaele (2017), the dichotomy of L2 is "the substitution of non-native speaker" "p.4" and the native language is the L1. Thus, English in Saudi Arabia is the L2 as Arabic is L1.

In terms of English use on Social media, Salem (2017) indicates that English was used more than Arabic by 18.3 per cent of users on Instagram in all Arab countries, including Saudi Arabia, and the use of English on Facebook increased by 7.6 per cent. To be more specific, 50.5 per cent of Saudi female undergraduates were reported to use English on Instagram, whereas 27 per cent used English on the whole range of social media platforms on an everyday basis - personal communication (Albawardi, 2017). Therefore, the use of English on social media by young people seems to be common in Saudi Arabia.

What is 'social media'?

The term 'social media' is defined in the Oxford English Dictionary as "websites and applications which enable users to create and share content or to participate in social networking" (Social media, 2018). In this paper, 'social media' refers to Internet-based apps that connect participants to one or several other participants by (1) enabling content creation, (2) allowing a list of people to be friends and be friends to and (3) sharing content in any form with different audiences. Examples of social media are Twitter, WhatsApp, Instagram, Snapchat, and Path.

Research Question

This paper is guided by the following research question:
What material resources and concrete activities do Saudi female undergraduates employ as they read and write in English on social media?

'Material resources and concrete activities' refer to the resources and activities Saudi female undergraduates employ to assist them in learning the meaning of English words or improving their capability in English when they read social media content on their smartphones. They also refer to the resources and activities these participants draw on to check the accuracy of their spelling, grammar and use of words before they actually write their words on social media using their smartphones.

Literature Review

Literacy Studies (LS)

Two perspectives on literacy were identified in the literature: a skills-based view and a social practice view. Each perspective will be explained in this section, followed by presenting the view of literacy this paper embraces.

In the skills-based view, literacy is seen as a set of discrete skills that reside in the individual (Papen, 2005). This skills-based view of literacy is germane to the 'autonomous model' of literacy (Street, 1984). The idea of an 'autonomous model' of literacy emerged when Street (1984) conducted an ethnographic study of Iranian villagers. He states that 'illiterate' people, according to a label given by institutions in that village, performed various literacy activities in their everyday lives that were different from the literacy activities taught in educational settings. These literacies are used in Iranian society and in Quranic schools. Literacy in the 'autonomous model' is seen as a neutral variable that can be learned out of context in formal settings. Barton (2007) explains that embracing this view of literacy is associated with learning and the practice of schooling. Literacy in this view can be broken down into skills that can be taught to individuals and later tested. Treating reading and writing as a set of skills assists educators in their methods of instruction and their methods of testing. An example of this view is to assess reading in terms of vocabulary choice and assess writing in terms of correct spelling and grammar. In this way, methods of assessing reading and writing, such as grading, testing and evaluating, can be systematically closely linked to the way of teaching. Measuring and abstracting such skills away from the individual then becomes an autonomous view of literacy, removing assessment from an authentic context of social practice.

This skills-based view of literacy is narrow as it does not look at reading and writing that originate outside institutions and relate to social and cultural aspects of literacy. Thus, the reading and writing that Saudi female undergraduates do on social media in English are not seen as literacy.

The second perspective on literacy is the social practice view. This is the Literacy Studies (LS) view which relates reading and writing to the wider social context in which these activities occur (Barton, 2001, 2007; Barton & Hamilton, 1998; Street, 1984, 1993). Viewing literacy as a social practice, according to Barton (2001), came about as a reaction to the dissatisfaction with viewing reading and writing in terms of cognitive skills, as these are "based on over-simplistic psychological models" "p.93". Thus, the social aspect of literacy is acknowledged and the idea of conceptualising reading and writing as purely decoding and encoding scripts is seen as insufficiently narrow. This view is referred to by Street (1984) as the 'ideological model' of literacy. Literacy in the 'ideological model' is not seen as merely neutral and technical skills, but as a social practice that is tied to people's values, social attitudes and prevailing discourses (Street, 1993).

This study draws on Street's (1993) 'ideological model' of literacy that sees literacy as a social practice and thus provides a wider lens on literacy. The 'ideological model' entails a holistic view of the various purposes, sources and contexts wherein people make sense of their literacy activities. This perspective starts with what people do with literacy in their everyday lives (Barton, 2007).

The skills-based view of literacy is the prevailing model in Saudi Arabia. It is, therefore, the model that the studies presented in the following section embrace although the researchers in these studies do not, of course, identify themselves as drawing on the 'autonomous model' of reading and writing.

English as L2 on Social Media in Saudi Arabia

Researching social media literacies seems to attract researchers in Saudi Arabia. The paradigm they draw on, however, is different. In Saudi Arabia, using social media in English is largely approached through the Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) paradigm. According to Levy (1997) Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) refers to "the search for and study of applications of the computer in language teaching and learning" "p.1". Language learning within the CALL paradigm is germane to the skills-based view of literacy (Barton, 2007; Papen, 2005). Language learning is conceptualised as a separate skill of reading and writing a specific linguistic system. Reading and writing are treated as skills that can be broken down into parts that can be assessed and supported in educational settings.

The use of WhatsApp in learning English was explored by several researchers. For example, Alsaleem (2013) explores the effects of using WhatsApp on the writing performance in English of 30 Saudi female undergraduates majoring in English Language Translation at a Saudi Arabian University. The participants were pre-tested and post-tested on writing topics in English and two teachers (not the researcher) assessed the participants' writing competency using a rubric. Alsaleem (2013) asserts that the participants' test results in the post-test outperformed their pre-test on their vocabulary choices. Similarly, Fattah (2015) explores the effectiveness of using WhatsApp to improve the writing skills of Saudi undergraduates majoring in English at a Saudi Arabia university. Fattah's study is quasi-experimental in nature and involves 30 students studying an 'Essay Writing' course over 45 days. Fattah states that the experimental group outperformed the control group on the post-test. Fattah (2015) surmises that the experimental group benefited from using the WhatsApp group. Bensalem (2018), however, focuses on the effect of WhatsApp on improving the learners' capacity in English vocabularly. He conducted a six-week experimental research program to explore the impact of using a WhatsApp group on learning vocabulary in English with 40 undergraduates in a Saudi Arabian university. Bensalem points out that that the experimantal group that used the WhatsApp group to learn English vocabulary outperformed the control group in the post-test.

The use of WhatsApp group to learn English was explored from a different perspective by Almekhlafy and Alzubi (2016). They investigate the use of a WhatsApp group as a learning setting where English must be the only language used by group members. Their research involves 40 Saudi male undergraduates and four English native language teachers at Najran University in the WhatsApp group. This study was conducted over four months and employed the observation of conversations, a questionnaire and semi-structured interviews. Their research states that the students posted and shared content from their surrounding environment as well as discussing local issues that sparked the interest of Saudi males.

Besides WhatsApp, other social media were explored to learn English. For instance, Ahmed (2016), explores the use of Facebook group in learning English. She conducted three-months experimental research to investigate the effects of using a Facebook group to learn English grammar

and improve the writing skills of female Saudi undergraduates in Saudi Arabia. Ahmed (2016) asserts that participants improved their grammar and writing skills by "(1) reading the comments and posts from their peers; (2) being able to identify their own and their friends' writing mistakes and correct them; (3) discussing incorrect grammar with Facebook friends; and (4) by responding to classmates' comments and posts" "p.942".

In addition to Facebook, YouTube and Twitter were explored by Kutbi (2015). She examines three social media platforms namely Twitter, Facebook and YouTube and how 25 Saudi female undergraduates view these platforms as a learning tool. Kutbi (2015) indicates that 84 per cent of the participants were 'extremely satisfied' with their experience of using social media to supplement their learning. She also indicates that posting on social media has improved the participants writing skills, as the course instructor demanded they use standard English in their posts. The course instructor also corrects the students' spelling and grammar mistakes, if detected, for each post.

Alnujaidi (2017), however, explores the effectiveness of ten social media platforms in learning English language from the point of view of English language students through quantitative measures. He points out that most of the participants expressed their confidence and desire to use social networking sites to learn English. He also points out that most of the participants strongly agreed that social networking sites gave them greater access to credible information from English speaking countries and made the process of learning English more fun.

As can be seen, these studies were limited in their methods to experiments followed by questionnaires, the use of experiments with structured interviews, or the use of questionnaires. They did not use ethnographic tools and referred to participants' activities on social media as an English language learning process. The studies conducted by Fattah (2015), Kutbi (2015), Ahmed (2016) were limited by the use of social media in relation to teaching a specific English language course to undergraduate students majoring in English. Fattah (2015) and Ahmed (2016) replaced the classroom walls with a group via social media to deliver English learning materials in their experimental groups of participants while Kutbi (2015) and Bensalem (2018) supplemented a face-to-face course with social media. Alnujaidi's (2017) study, however, explored the views of undergraduate students of both genders, doing various majors, regarding using social media to offer English language learning materials.

These studies limited the participants' choices of the social media they could use. Alsaleem (2013), Fattah (2015), Almekhlafy and Alzubi (2016), and Bensalem (2018) offered a WhatsApp group, Ahmed (2016) offered a Facebook group, Kutbi (2015) offered three platforms and Alnujaidi (2017) asked their participants to rank ten specific social media platforms according to their use. Kutbi (2015), Ahmed (2016), Almekhlafy and Alzubi (2016), and Bensalem (2018) required their participants to use standard English, while Alnujaidi (2017) asked the participants about their views regarding the social media platforms that helped them learn English and did not ask them to disclose other social media platforms they were active on where they used or learnt English.

These studies emerged from a cognitive paradigm of understanding literacy, that is, conceiving of reading and writing as acquired skills, decontextualized from everyday life. These studies explored the potential of using social media in English language learning to supplement or

replace a classroom setting for teaching a course or offering materials. Additionally, these studies did not start from the participants' own usage of English on social media and did not use the lens of Literacy Studies. In this study, posting and browsing content on social media is viewed as a form of social practice. Reading and writing are not examined as formal English nor as the ability to decode or encode a set of linguistic expressions in standard English. Social media is used as a setting in which Saudi undergraduates use English in their daily life.

Research Design

A connective approach to ethnography was used to collect offline and online evidence (Leander & McKim, 2003) over three months, from October to December 2016. Ethnography is a methodology in which several research tools are used to paint a comprehensive detailed picture of people's literacy in everyday life (Barton, 2007) and this study aimed to get a holistic picture of the material resources and concrete activities Saudi female undergraduates drew on while using English in their preferred social media spaces. Ethnographic data was collected through online observation, a focus group interviewing, two sessions of semi-structured interviews, informal interviews and an online logbook to track participants' activity in English.

Snowball sampling was used to recruit participants (Bryman, 2008; Dörnyei, 2007) and the first participant was used as a key informant to recommend others who use English on social media on a daily basis and were willing to participate in this study. This is what Georgalou (2015) refers to as 'a friend of a friend' sampling. In total, eleven Saudi female undergraduates studying English Translation participated (three of them agreed to participate only in the focus group conducted over WhatsApp, and one withdrew after participating in the face-to-face focus-group interview). Information sheets were provided to all participants and consent forms were collected ensuring that participation in the study was voluntary and the identities of these Saudis were protected and anonymised. These Saudis chose their pseudonyms and their real names were not kept in the observational notes.

Data was analysed by combining Saldaña's (2016) coding approaches with Schreier's (2014)'qualitative content analysis' method. Themes were developed from coding the data to answer the research question. In other words, coding helped to generate themes that are the "*outcome* of coding, categorization, and analytic reflection, not something that is, in itself, coded" (Saldaña, 2016, p. 198). The process of data analysis has been greatly aided by ATLAS.ti. software. ATLAS.ti provided the tools to create relationships between codes, raise queries, export queried information in tables and link multiple segments of data through meaning as well as with coding (Friese, 2014).

Results

The material resources and concrete activities Saudi female undergraduates draw on as they use English are situated in their social practices. These concrete activities and material resources are arranged according to their aims into English-spelling checking approaches, English grammar-checking approaches and English-meaning checking approaches.

English-spelling Approaches

When writing in English on social media, participants paid particular attention to their spelling. These participants draw on technologies built into their smartphones and by using particular apps.

Participants use the predictive built-in keyboard to check their spelling. A predictive keyboard refers to the text bar that appears above the keyboard predicting words being typed on a smartphone. It is important to stress that the predictive keyboard is a technology built into smartphones, not a unique feature of social media.

This predictive keyboard was used along with other resources to check the correct spelling. For example, Latifah refers to the words predicted by her smartphone keyboard as *'pop-up words'* (informal interview 1) as she gives her account on writing in English on Twitter. It seems that *'pop-up words'* is a resource that Latifah usually uses as she did not mention having a red squiggly line under the misspelled word. In fact, Latifah associates her use of a predictive keyboard with the use of Google Translate app on her smartphone. Latifah indicates that she checks a spelling by typing a word in Google Translate app. If the word is translated form English into Arabic, this would indicate that the word is spelled correctly, if not it indicates that the word is misspelled.

Norah and Latifah report that they use a *'spell checker'* among the on-screen activities they are involved with as they use English on social media. However, 'spell-checker' is not the same for Norah and Latifah. Norah, in interview (2), defines 'spell-checker' as a built-in smartphone feature where a red squiggly line appears under a misspelled word and tapping the misspelled word usually suggests a correct spelling of that word. Latifah, in interview 2, defines 'spell checker' as a predictive keyboard that predicts a word being typed.

Lama, in interview (1), indicates that she uses the same smartphone feature, that is a *'spelling checker'.* Similar to Norah, Lama defines 'spelling checker' as the red squiggly line that appears under a misspelled word and on tapping the misspelled word the correct spelling is usually suggested. She further indicates that if the spell checker did not suggest a correct spelling, she types the misspelled word in Google app, and this usually results in providing her with the correct spelling. It appears that Lama was not familiar with a predictive keyboard, unlike Norah and Latifah. This, of course, seems to imply that a predictive keyboard is not widely used, as Latifah would argue.

Norah seems to follow a unified spell-checking process before Tweeting in English. Norah, in informal interview (2), details her step-by-step spell-checking process before tweeting 'In desperate need of a break'. In step (1), she uses a predictive keyboard, if it does not work well she moves to step (2), which is tapping the word with a red squiggly line under it to see a suggested spelling, and if this does not work she moves to step (3), which is copying and pasting the word into Google app to see suggested words, and if this too does not work, the final step is to write the word in Arabic in Google Translate app and see the English equivalent.

Typing on Google app using the keyboard to check correct spelling was mentioned by Norah, Lama, Latifah, Deema and Rawan. Nouf, however, indicates in interview (2) that she uses Google app to check her spelling quickly in a different way. She states that she uses her voice to search for the correct spelling on Google app by tapping on the microphone while saying the word. The word then appears spelled correctly without Nouf having to touch letters on the keyboard with her fingers. This implies that writing on a smartphone can be accomplished in a different way, which is by using one's own voice and tapping the microphone on Google app, instead of touching the smartphone screen to select letters from the keyboard.

English Grammar-checking Approaches

The interview data show that English grammar-checking approaches are carried out using Google app, a corpus website, asking a person for specific information and searching content on Twitter where the account holder uses English as their L1.

Norah, in informal interview (1), describes how she checks her grammar using Google app. She begins by writing a sentence on Google app and searching for the same sentence. For her, finding a sentence in the same order indicates that the sentence is grammatically correct. It seems that using Google app to check if a sentence is grammatically correct is an advanced way of using Google app to check a misspelled word. The latter concerns the appearance of one word, but the former concerns the appearance of a group of words in the same order on several websites.

Deema, in interview (1), indicates that she uses a corpus website to check her choice of prepositions. She explains that she goes to the Corpus of Contemporary American English (COCA) website, searches for a specific word and sees the words that appear with it. She demonstrated her approach by opening her smartphone and typing the corpus website address in Safari. She gave an example of the verb 'fill' and wanted to know which preposition goes with it, as she was confused between 'in' and 'out'. Figure 1.A illustrates how Deema checked her choice of preposition that comes with the two words "fill" and "form" by tapping 'search', then tapping 'collocates' and writing the two words in the allocated spaces and tapping 'find collocates'. After that, she was taken to another website page (see Fig. 1.B) and could see all the prepositions that can be used with her desired words in context.

Figure 1. Screenshots of Deema checking her comprehensive use of propositions through the COCA website

Deema indicates that seeing words in context has helped her in choosing appropriate prepositions. She points out that she was taught to use the COCA website in one of her courses at university. It seems that Deema applied one of the techniques she used as a student to check her

appropriate use of prepositions before writing in English on Twitter as part of her literacy techniques.

Asking someone to check if a sentence is comprehensible grammatically before writing on Twitter was mentioned by Deema and Latifah. Deema indicates in interview (1) that she asks her friends if a sentence she intends to use on Twitter is grammatically correct. She explains that she usually asks her friend Emma by contacting her over WhatsApp app or asking her face-to-face. Deema writes a sentence on WhatsApp app and asks her friend whether the sentence has any grammatical errors or not; she speaks the sentence orally if Emma is present with her in a physical space.

It seems that Deema uses an online space, WhatsApp app, to contact her friend in order to ask her about the correct grammatical structure of a specific sentence and does not care about making grammatical errors on WhatsApp. Deema was not the only participant to ask someone about grammar as Latifah followed the same approach. Latifah, in informal interview (1), indicates that she would usually ask her sister orally in a physical space about whether a sentence had any grammatical errors or not before writing it in English on Twitter. It appears that Latifah only uses her sister to check her grammar, as she does not use any other resources.

Nouf, in interview (1), indicates that she searches Twitter to check her proper grammar usage in English before posting on social media. She explains that she writes a specific sentence or phrase and searches on Twitter to see if '*native speakers'* of English have ever used that phrase before, and if she finds the phrase this indicates that it is grammatically correct. By *'native speakers'*, Nouf means those people whose L1 is English. It appears that Nouf uses Twitter content written by people whose L1 is English as a resource for proper grammar usage. In this way, Twitter content is treated as a corpus representing how English is used in real everyday life, away from English grammar books.

English-meaning Checking Approaches

The interview and focus group data show that checking the meaning of English words as participants read or write posts on social media is done through Google app, Google Translate app, dictionary apps and corpus websites.

Google app was used to check the meaning of words in English. For example, Nouf, in interview (1), indicates that she uses Google app to search for the meaning of a specific word before writing it in English on social media. For Nouf, finding a word on several sites indicates that the word exists and reading that word in context helps her to guess its meaning. Emma, in interview (2), indicates that she checks the meaning of a specific word if she reads it, without intending to write it, on social media. Emma draws on a similar approach to Nouf's approach by using Google app. Emma memorises the spelling of a specific word and then types it in Google app to search for it. She then guesses the meaning of that word by reading it in context.

Google Translate app was used to check the meanings of specific words. Latifah, in interview (1), indicates that she uses Google Translate app to check the meaning of the English word by typing

that word and seeing the equivalent in Arabic. For her, this is the most appropriate way to discover the meaning of an English word before writing it on Twitter.

From the focus group conducted over WhatsApp, Sawsan indicates that she uses four resources to check the meaning of a specific word as she reads on Twitter. These resources are all smartphone apps. She uses Google app, Google Translate app and two different dictionary apps to check the meaning of what she refers to as *'a difficult word'*. She explains that she searches for the meaning of a word by copying and pasting it into four different smartphone apps. She indicates that both Google Translate and Almaany are smartphone apps that give the equivalent of a specific word in Arabic, while the Dictionary and Google apps give the meaning of a specific word in English, as well as putting that word in context.

Deema, in interview (1), indicates that she uses the COCA website to check the meaning of *"new"* English words. Deema explains that she accesses the COCA website from her smartphone's search engine, not an app, then types a specific word and taps search. She illustrates this approach with an example by typing the word 'aim', then tapping search and then tapping context. She is then moved to another page showing the word 'aim' in context in different sentences. Deema notes that reading a word in context enables her to guess the meaning of a particular word. Deema applies one of the techniques she learned in one of her courses to check the meaning of English words she encounters while reading on social media.

Discussion

This study identified a mixture of material resources and concrete activities female Saudi undergraduates drew on as they read and write in English on social media. These material resources and concrete activities were divided according to their aim into three approaches: English-spelling approaches; English grammar-checking approaches; and English meaning checking approaches;

These findings fill a gap in the literature identified by Barton & Potts (2013) when they asserted that research on language learner's practices in L2 on online spaces are 'very limited' "p.818". These findings also contribute to those of Vázquez & Cassany's (2016) findings in an additional aspect. Vázquez & Cassany (2016) examine the digital language practice of six teachers in Catalonia and point out that these teachers taught students to use dictionaries, automated translation software and grammar and spelling checkers. Vázquez & Cassany (2016) also point out the names of dictionaries as in DRAE and WordReference and to websites such as Wikipedia but not how language learners use these materials resources themselves. Participants in the current study mentioned smartphone apps and COCA website and clarified what they mean with 'spelling checker' not grammar checker.

This study also found that participants enabled two built-in smartphone features to assist them in checking their spelling in English. These two smartphone features had to be activated from the general setting relating to English keyboard (see Fig. 2).

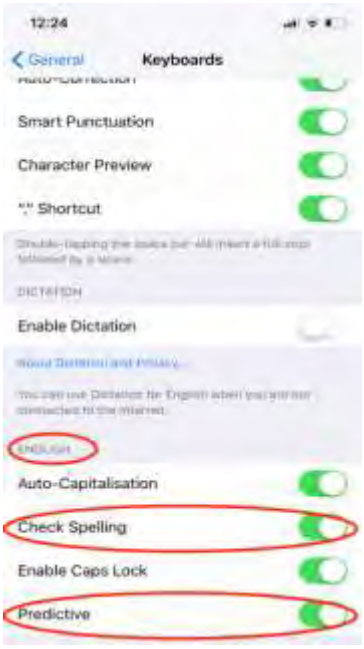
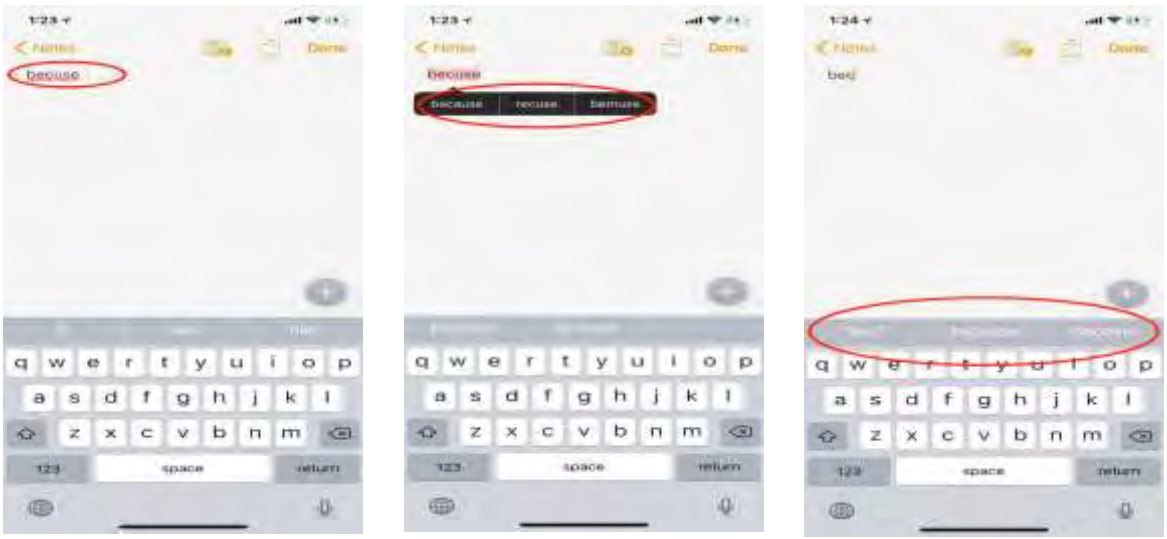


Figure 2. The two English keyboard features that were used to check spelling

As figure 2 shows, these features are 'Check Spelling' and 'Predictive'. The check spelling feature spellchecks the words as participants type and automatically underlines the misspelled word with a red squiggly line (see Fig.3.A) and often suggests an alternative spelling after tapping the misspelled word (see Fig.3.B). The predictive feature predicts the words as participants type by suggesting two words that appear in a bar above the keyboard (see Fig.3.C).



A B C

Figure 3. The outcome of enabling the spell check feature in (A) the red underline indicating a misspelled word; (B) the suggestions of the misspelled word; and the outcome of enabling the predictive feature in (C) predicting words for "bec".

Participates were careful to check their spelling and grammar before posting on Twitter and this is consistent with Gleason's (2016) findings. Gleason examines the practices on Twitter of teenagers in the United States who used English as their L1 and states that these teenagers concerned themselves with what she refers to as traditional dimensions of literacy, such as correct spelling, grammar and punctuation. Saudi female undergraduates also concern themselves with correct spelling and grammar of English their L2 before writing on Twitter specifically, and social media in general. Gleason mentions that Lucy, one of his participants, preferred to access the desktop version of Twitter and uses the spell-check feature to avoid spelling errors and does not mention any resources that may be found on smartphones. However, Saudi female undergraduates draw on different resources and concrete activities to check their spelling while accessing Twitter and social media on their smartphones.

Google app was used to check the spelling by selecting the letters from the keyboard or by dictating the word. Dictating the word is accomplished by tapping the microphone and voicing the word until it appears in the search bar. However, Google Translate app was used to check the spelling by writing a particular word in English and if this word was translated into Arabic this indicates that the spelling is correct, if not, the participant would write the Arabic equivalent and get the correct English spelling.

Participants checked their English grammar by drawing on Google app, COCA website, asking a friend about the accuracy of a specific sentence and searching Twitter content written by users whose L1 is English. Using the COCA website to determine the correct usage of prepositions in English was taught to participants in one of the courses they take as part of their academic studies. However, using Google app and searching Twitter content to check their English grammar before posting on social media was not taught in formal settings. This reflects the participants creative innovative ways of checking the grammar of their L2 as they were not taught to use these two resources but learned to do this informally on their own. These creative ways in checking the accuracy of the their L2 grammar align with the characteristics of vernacular practices proposed by Barton and Hamilton (1998). These ways are less observable, not regulated by social organisation and are learned in non-systemic informal setting.

The strategies used to check the meaning of English are associated with smartphone apps and the COCA website. The smartphone apps are Google, Google Translate, and three different dictionary apps. These resources can be accessed via smartphone when connected to the Internet which reflect that these participants are highly skilled in technologies and incorporate these skills in their social media literacies. Using Google Translate app in checking what a word mean in English reflects the influence of their academic major studies on their everyday literacies. They were taught to use Google Translate app to assist them in translating texts from English to Arabic in one of their academic courses.

Conclusion and Implications

This study explored the material resources and concrete activities Saudi female undergraduates draw on as they read and write in English on social media. The data suggest that these material resources and concrete activities are an amalgam of resources and activities related to built-in smartphone

technologies supporting English spelling. These material resources and concrete activities are also related to smartphone apps, websites and social relations.

The findings of this study have a number of implications for language learning and the teaching of English as L2. This paper responded to the suggestion made by Barton and Potts (2013) to use the knowledge gained about language learners' practices in L2 to inform classroom decisions about the content to be taught. These female Saudi undergraduates were not aware that their approaches to checking their correct spelling, appropriate grammar and word choices are not widely used. They drew on tools built into their smartphones and asserted that they were not taught these approaches. They needed to change the default settings of their keyboards and this was not known to all participants in this study sample. Female Saudi undergraduates extended their search capabilities by using Google app, Google Translate app and the COCA website to check their spellings, grammar and word choices in ways that are not necessarily widely used by language educators and learners.

Raising awareness of these approaches and the importance of using English on social media literacies could lead to a positive effect on Saudis' learning of English as their L2, bearing in mind the widespread use of social media apps on smartphones among young people in Saudi Arabia. This could be done by encouraging language learners to use English in social media literacies to improve their English. Language educators are advised to include a section in the English language learning curriculum to inform language learners of the potential of their smartphones and include the approaches to check the accuracy of English reported in this study. Language educators are also advised to notify their language learners to activate the 'predictive' and 'check spelling' keyboard features in their smartphones.

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The Effects of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures in Teaching Subject–Verb Agreement among Rural Sarawak Learners

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Abstract

Even after undertaking years of formal education to acquire the language in schools, having a poor command of English remains a problem faced by most Malaysians, especially students in rural schools of Sarawak. Based on the error-analysis carried out by recent research, subject–verb agreement (SVA) is one of the most frequent errors committed by students. To overcome this problem, teachers should significantly improve students' mastery of SVA in the English language through effective teaching methods. Therefore, this research was conducted to explore the effects of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures in teaching SVA among rural Sarawak learners. In this study, 35 Form 4 students were selected from a secondary school in the Belaga District, Sarawak as the research participants. Questionnaires and semi-structured interviews were used as data collection tools. Overall, findings demonstrated that students showed positive feedback after the intervention was implemented. Results of this research will hopefully provide insights to secondary school students, teachers and the community in the cooperative teaching and learning of grammar.

Keywords: Kagan cooperative learning structures, subject-verb agreement, teaching English

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1.0 Introduction

After Mandarin and Spanish, the English language has the third largest number of native speakers, approximately 378 million worldwide (Simons & Charles, 2018). English language is often referred to as the lingua franca of the modern world given its usage as the dominant language in international affairs, especially in the prospects of science and technology (House, 2014; Thirusanku & Yunus, 2012). In Malaysia, apart from the Malay language as the national language of the country, the second most important language is English; such ranking is explained by the latter being broadly used in various fields, such as business, medicine, engineering and so on (Abdullah, Rahman & Lina, 2010). Although the Malaysian Education system has emphasised the significance of English teaching and learning in schools, poor English proficiency among fresh graduates has been one of the top concerns faced by Malaysian employers (Ministry of Education, 2012). Since 1970, the English language proficiency among Malaysians has not shown considerable improvement (Yunus & Saiful, 2017).

Literature is essential to guarantee students' personal growth and contributions to society (Ien, Yunus & Embi, 2017). However, unsatisfactory results remain despite efforts to elevate the students' performance in English. Many students continue facing difficulties, especially in writing simple grammatical sentences. After years of studying the English language from primary to secondary education, students still tend to make repeated mistakes in dealing with the subject and verb agreement (SVA) patterns in writing their sentences owing to a lack of interest and exposure in using the language (Nurjanah, 2017). Hence, incorporating a strategy, such as the Kagan cooperative learning structures in the English lesson, is hoped to facilitate students' enhanced grammar skills, especially in mastering the SVA pattern.

Unlike the traditional English classrooms, which practise teacher-centred learning, cooperative learning allows autonomy among learners. In the latter, learners can monitor their own learning and could seize the opportunity to express themselves with their peers as well as the teacher who assumes the facilitator role (Schineke-Llano, 1983). In addition, learners' proficiency in the English language can be improved through collaborative learning (Kwan & Yunus, 2014). Hence, conducting cooperative learning is relevant in a language classroom as students are trained to communicate and share ideas with other learners in the language learning process inside and outside the classroom (Oxford, 1990; Littlewood, 1992). Yunus (2018) asserted that ineffective conventional methods should be replaced, and educators should attempt to make a difference. Thus, this study aimed to fill the research gap by exploring the effects of Kagan cooperative learning structures in teaching SVA among rural Sarawak learners. This study intends to address the following research questions:

1. What are the students' perceptions regarding the use of Kagan Structures in their mastery of SVA patterns?
2. What challenges do the students face whilst using Kagan Structures in their mastery of SVA patterns?

2.0 Literature Review

2.1 Cooperative Learning

As described by Kagan (1994), cooperative learning is a type of active learning students tackle in small groups to complete specific tasks assigned by the teacher. Correspondingly, Azizineshad et al. (2013) defined cooperative learning as a system of teaching and learning techniques. In the process of learning, students are active agents instead of passive receivers of the product of any given knowledge. Rewards or recognition will be given to boost students' motivation to learn when they successfully complete an assigned task.

The current educational system advocates learning models, which allow students to convey and express their opinions and views in a social context as it is significant to restructure their knowledge when learning is a major part of life. The main agenda of these learning models in education is enabling students to recognise their potential and enhance knowledge acquisition by comparing their schemata with the newly absorbed information (Ozden, 2004). As discovered by recent research, the most effective state to acquire knowledge is when a learner is aware of his needs and acts autonomously in his own learning. He should also independently identify his own learning strategies. In short, effective learning occurs when the learner is actively engaged in the process of knowledge acquisition.

Unlike traditional group tasks, cooperative learning emphasises on the principles of positive interdependence and individual responsibility. The idea of group achievement being more significant than individual achievement is instilled in every group member as students in a group exert efforts towards a shared goal (Johnson & Johnson, 1999). Members in a group must assist, support and encourage one another to achieve their learning target, thereby allowing everyone to contribute to the task whilst simultaneously being motivated to learn (Johnson, Johnson & Smith, 1991).

Olsen and Kagan (1992) and Johnson and Johnson (1999) described cooperative learning as a series of prepared group learning activities, making learning dependent on the socially structured exchange of information between learners in groups. Each learner is accountable for his or her own learning and is motivated to increase the learning of others. Therefore, numerous studies have been carried out to investigate the effectiveness of cooperative learning and have consequently obtained positive outcomes. Koppenhaver and Shrader (2003) claimed that cooperative learning increases the level of understanding and reasoning. At the same time, it develops critical thinking as well as increase the accuracy of long-term retention. Through cooperative learning, active participation in learning is believed to be promoted and thus lead to improved academic achievement (Panitz, 1996).

Different scholars may have their own respective definitions of cooperative learning. However, cooperative learning generally involves students working together or cooperating in small groups. They are responsible for their own as well as others' learning. Teachers act as a facilitator in a cooperative learning classroom whilst students become active learners. Cooperative learning aims to maximise the students' learning through the social support they obtained from their group members (Slavin, 1989).

2.2 Benefits of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures

Various advantages of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures are identified via research (Kagan, 1995; Kagan & McGroarty, 1993). Firstly, Kagan Structures allow students to gain substantial comprehensible input. This target is achieved as students adjust their speech to the level of their partner because they are working together as a team. Secondly, learning is conducted in a natural context. In a real-life scenario, language is used for functional interaction. Thirdly, negotiation of meaning takes place to ensure that students comprehend one another. Students have the opportunity to alter or modify their language output. Fourth, the affective filter is lowered. Students who are often frightened to speak in front of the whole class no longer have to feel that way. Instead of talking to the crowd, students talk with a supportive teammate. Fifth, peer support is present. When completing a task using Kagan Structures, students are encouraged to assist and support one another in a team. Sixth, motivation in learning is enhanced because the structures are engaging interaction sequences. Lastly, Kagan Structures promote greater language use.

Apart from the aforementioned benefits of Kagan Cooperative Structures, recent research also proved that these structures can increase students' learning outcome. In an action research conducted by Yusri, Mantasiah and Jufri (2018) entitled *The Use of Two Stray Model in English Teaching to Increase Student's Learning Outcome*, one of the Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures was implemented. To investigate the effects of Two Stay and Two Stray (TS-TS) in English learning, data were collected through observation, tests and questionnaires. Accordingly, the use of TS-TS Cooperative Learning Structure increased student's learning outcome in English learning. Notably, cooperative learning structures produced active learners in the classroom as the social interaction between learners was present and teamwork was fostered.

Another action research was employed to improve the students' reading ability through Numbered Heads Together (NHT), which is also one of the Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures. Fanolong et al. (2016) selected a classroom of secondary students from SMA Negeri Wawalesi as the research participants; they found that NHT was successful in improving students' reading ability as an increment in students' mean reading scores was observed. Students' mean reading score has increased from 65% in the first test to 80.3% in the second test. The finding also indicated that NHT technique was effective in enhancing the students' participation because students willingly raised their hands to answer the questions during the answer-checking session.

Sabbah (2016) used a quasi-experimental research design to investigate the effect of using jigsaw cooperative strategy, a Kagan cooperative learning structure, on ESL students' achievement in reading comprehension. The participants were female students enrolled in Level 4 reading classes in the Foundation Program of the Community College of Qatar during the fourth quarter of AY 2013–2014. The statistical analysis of the acquired data showed a positive effect of jigsaw strategy on ESL students' reading achievement.

3.0 Methodology

3.1 Research Design

This study employed the mixed-method research design, which involved both qualitative and quantitative research methodologies in the process of data collection and data analysis. It was divided into two parts to answer the two research questions. The first part of this study focused on

quantitative method. Survey questionnaires were administered to obtain the students' perceptions on the use of Kagan Structures in their mastery of SVA patterns, thereby answering the first research question. The survey method was suitable for a large sample administered within a limited time, and generalisation can be done. The results from the questionnaires were then described in the form of descriptive statistics.

The second part of this study applied the qualitative method, using semi-structured interviews to gather data, and subsequently discovered the challenges faced by the students whilst using Kagan Structures in their mastery of subject–verb agreement. The interview sessions were recorded and analysed using thematic analysis.

3.2 Research Population

The participants for this study were from a secondary school in Belaga District, Sarawak. The research objective is to explore the effects of Kagan Structures on rural Sarawak students' mastery in subject–verb agreement. The research participants selected for this study were based on purposive sampling. They were chosen on the basis of the predetermined characteristics extracted from the requirement of the study. The participants were from different socio-economic backgrounds but of similar language background as they were non-native speakers of the English language.

3.3 Research Instruments

Two instruments were constructed to collect the required data. The instruments for this study comprised a survey questionnaire on the students' perceptions of cooperative learning and a semi-structured interview.

The survey questionnaires aimed to identify the students' perceptions on the Kagan structures implemented. After the implementation of Kagan structures in the classroom, a set of questionnaire was given to the participants. The questionnaire which was adapted from Hung et al. (2010) consisted of 20 items on a four-point Likert scale from 'strongly agree', 'agree', 'disagree' to 'strongly disagree'. It discovered the students' perceptions on the use of cooperative learning in learning English.

Interview sessions were conducted individually with the selected participants. Five participants were randomly selected to be interviewed using the hat and draw method to offer all participants an equal chance to be selected for the interview. The five interview questions focused on the challenges students' face whilst using Kagan Structures in their mastery of SVA patterns.

4.0 Findings and Discussion

4.1 Students' Perception on the Use of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures

After the participants were exposed to the lessons conducted using Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures, participants were instructed to complete a set of questionnaire. This questionnaire was divided into two sections, namely, Section A: Respondent's background and Section B: Students' perceptions on Kagan structures. The data collected from Section B of the questionnaire were analysed using frequency and percentages. Table 1 displays the participants' responses based on the questionnaire.

Table 1. *Students' perceptions on Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures.*

The Effects of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures in Teaching Subject-Verb Agreement					
No.	Questions	Participants' Responses			
		Strongly Disagree n(%)	Disagree n(%)	Agree n(%)	Strongly Agree n(%)
B1	I like the small group activities.		1 (2.8)	20 (57.1)	14 (4)
B2	In small group activities, I believe that if I try my best, my group will perform better.		1 (2.8)	17 (48.5)	17 (48.5)
B3	In small group learning, I feel learning English is more effective whenever I help my friends.			18 (51.4)	17 (48.5)
B4	Learning in a small group makes me feel more confident and energetic while learning.		2 (5.7)	17 (48.5)	16 (45.7)
B5	Learning in a small group helps me to learn English better.		1 (2.8)	15 (42.8)	19 (54.2)
B6	Learning in a small group enhances my motivation towards learning English.			19 (54.2)	16 (45.7)
B7	I am more interested in learning when my group performs well or gets rewards.		1 (2.8)	19 (54.2)	15 (42.8)
B8	I consider that learning in a small group is interesting and makes learning enjoyable.			18 (51.4)	17 (48.5)
B9	Hereafter, I hope to keep learning in small groups in the English classes.			19 (54.2)	16 (45.7)
B10	I have more opportunities to practise English in small group learning		1 (2.8)	25 (71.4)	9 (25.7)

B11	My group members perform well in small group learning.		1 (2.8)	22 (62.8)	12 (34.2)
B12	The noise of group discussions would affect me in learning English.	6 (17.1)	13 (37.1)	12 (34.2)	4 (11.4)
B13	The cooperation and interaction among group members help me to understand the learning materials more easily.		2 (5.7)	15 (42.8)	18 (51.4)
B14	In a small group, I learned how to get along with classmates, interact and cooperate with them, and develop my social skills.		1 (2.8)	15 (42.8)	19 (54.2)
B15	There are classmates who seldom participate in a group discussion or learning, and this affects my learning as well.	2 (5.7)	7 (20.0)	20 (57.1)	6 (17.1)
B16	I think small group tasks help everyone learns to be responsible for our own learning and motivate us to study hard.			19 (54.2)	16 (45.7)
B17	I am easily distracted when talking to my classmates in a small group. I did not feel nervous at all while playing this game.	3 (8.5)	9 (25.7)	20 (57.1)	3 (8.5)
B18	It is good that students with different levels are assigned to a small group because higher-level students could help other students in learning English.		3 (8.5)	13 (37.1)	19 (54.2)
B19	I prefer learning in a small group rather than learning individually. I think I am pretty good at this game.		1 (2.9%)	16 (45.7)	18 (51.4)
B20	I Learning in a small group could enhance the atmosphere of working together in the class, which is better than learning alone.		2 (5.7%)	18 (51.4)	15 (42.8)

To support the quantitative data obtained in the survey, semi-structured interviews were also conducted to investigate the students' perceptions on the use of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures in teaching subject–verb agreement. Five participants were interviewed, and Tables 2 and 3 present some of the interview responses.

Table 2. *Participants' Interview Responses (Question 1).*

Question	Participant	Interview Response
What do you think of learning the English language by using cooperative learning structures? Do you like it? Why? Or, why not?	Epraim	I like it because it's fun. We can… there are games so that we can play while learning. It helps me in learning.
	Fiviana	Yes, I would like it because we get to share our knowledge. There are some of us who are better in English while some of us who are weak. Those who understand the lesson can help those who don't.
	Lydia	I like it because if I am to do the task alone, I don't feel confident. In a group activity, I have friends with me. I feel more confident that way and I feel braver to answer all the questions asked by the teacher.
	Sally	I don't really prefer the activities because I feel shy to work with the others. I feel shy talking to people. I prefer a normal classroom lesson because I feel more comfortable.
	Jacqueline	Yes, I like it because I'm able to understand the lesson better when we share and learn together as a group. I would not be able to achieve that if I study alone.

Table 3. *Participants' Interview Responses (Question 2).*

Question	Participant	Interview Response
What are your favourite cooperative learning activities during the English lesson?	Epraim	My favourite game was when we traded the yellow cards with each other because it's fun to exchange cards and seek for our partners.
	Fiviana	The activity which requires us to search for a partner because it is challenging. We were using the SVA formula and some of us were still confused. Some of us found the wrong partner as we did not match it properly following the rule of the formula.
	Lydia	I like Flashcard game the most because if I get it wrong, my partner can correct me and I don't feel shy or embarrassed.
	Sally	My favourite is the Flashcard game so that we learn to identify subject and verb.
	Jacqueline	Mix-N-Match because we get to apply what we have learnt and involves movement.

Based on the findings in Table 1, most of the participants can be observed to display positive responses on the use of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures in teaching subject–verb agreement. For example, 5 out of 20 items of the questionnaire achieved a 100% agreement. These items were Item B3 '*In small group learning, I feel learning English is more effective whenever I help my friends*', Item B6 '*Learning in a small group enhances my motivation towards learning English*', Item B8 '*I consider that learning in a small group is interesting and makes learning enjoyable*', Item B9 '*Hereafter, I hope to keep learning in small groups in the English classes*' and Item B16 '*I think small group tasks help everyone learn to be responsible for our own learning and motivate us to study hard'.* Mahmoud and Mohamed (2014) reinforced the finding that students show positive attitudes towards the use of cooperative learning approach in developing language skills.

The interview responses supported the above statements, given that an increased motivation to learn can be observed in the respondent's (Epraim) expressed feelings towards the use of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures. He stated that '*I like it because it's fun. We can… there are games so that we can play whilst learning. It helps me in learning'*. Purnomo (2015) has also concluded that Kagan structures not only enhance students' motivation towards learning but also lead to positive social behaviours because fun learning and healthy competition are promoted. If students enjoy whilst studying, it will directly contribute to a better academic achievement. Both students' motivation and confidence level to respond to questions were improved as Lydia mentioned the following: '*I like it because if I am to do the task alone, I don't feel confident. In a group activity, I have friends with me. I feel more confident that way, and I feel braver to answer all the questions asked by the teacher'*.

In addition, the highest number of participants (71.4%) agreed with Item B10 '*I have more opportunities to practise English in small group learning*', whilst 25.7% strongly agreed to the same statement. This finding is implied when Lydia described that when Timed Pair Share was conducted, '*everyone was speaking English'*, thus providing other opportunities for students to practise the target language. The second highest is Item B11 '*My group members perform well in small group learning*', with 62.9% of the participants agreeing to such statement. Although the amount of noise produced in a cooperative learning classroom may be a concern to certain teachers and students, the result in the questionnaire showed that 54.4% of the participants disagreed with Item B12 '*The noise of group discussions would affect me in learning English*'. Thus, the noise may not be an issue to a majority of the students in a cooperative learning environment.

Among all 20 items, 54.3% of the participants strongly agreed with Item B5 '*Learning in a small group helps me learn English better*', Item B14 '*In a small group, I learned how to get along with classmates, interact and cooperate with them and develop my social skills*' and Item B18 '*It is good that students with different levels are assigned to a small group because higher-level students could help other students in learning English'*. This idea is also seen in Jacqueline's response when she expressed her appreciation concerning the implementation of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures because '(*she is) able to understand the lesson better when (they) share and learn together as a group. (She) would not be able to achieve that if (she studies) alone'*. Yusri, Mantasiah and Jufri (2018) also mentioned that the social interactions among students can nurture students in becoming active learners whilst simultaneously fostering teamwork.

Fiviana's response was also on par with Item B18 '*there are some of us who are better in English whilst some of us who are weak. Those who understand the lesson can help those who don't'*. Hence, the students can be concluded to prefer learning SVA of the English language in a small group using Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures as the positive feedback outweighs the challenges.

4.2 Challenges of Using Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures

Despite the positive responses from the students obtained in the questionnaire and the interview, a part of the interview responses continued displaying some of the students' encountered difficulties and challenges in learning English via the Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures. Hence, analysing the data collected is needed to identify the challenges faced by the students. Tables 4 and 5 illustrated participants' interview responses based on Questions 3 and 4, respectively. According to the analysis of data, the challenges identified can be divided into four main themes, namely, 1) Lack of Communication Skills, 2) Burdening Tasks, 3) Noise Distraction and 4) Passive Teammates.

Table 4. *Participants' Interview Responses (Question 3).*

Question	Participant	Interview Response
What are your least favourite activities during the lesson? Why don't you like them?	Epraim	I don't like the last game that we played. The paper that you gave me that had six pictures on it. Because we need to construct words so my teammates they doesn't know how to do it so I need to help them while I need to think for my own answer so that makes me busy. It feels like a lot of burdens.
	Fiviana	The one which we need to produce a paragraph because the group is not active. My friends… did not participate. They did not give any opinion and they did not help to construct the sentences. I asked for their help but they just kept quiet.
	Lydia	The first activity, Timed Pair Share, because we need to teach our friends about what we have learnt. Because everyone was speaking English, I find it hard to communicate with them. I tried to speak in English but my English is broken.
	Sally	The activity which requires us to find the correct match. It is Mix-N-Match. It's hard to understand and I don't feel comfortable because it involved too many people. I feel too shy to find the correct partner.
	Jacqueline	The writing activity because I'm not really good at writing and it's challenging to translate from Malay to English. My friends helped me but there were also other words they did not know how to translate.

Table 5. *Participants' Interview Responses (Question 5).*

Question	Participant	Interview Response
Is there any problem that you face while you are working in a group during your English lesson?	Epraim	When I don't know the person, I need to have courage to talk to them. That is also another challenge to me.
	Fiviana	It's noisy because discussions are carried out. It is especially noisy during the activity which requires us to match with the correct partner.
	Lydia	Difficulty to communicate with the others. I feel afraid to speak in English because I'm afraid of making mistakes. It's not because of my friends. I, myself, feel afraid and shy to ask.
	Sally	(Described in Q4)
	Jacqueline	I also have problem interacting with my friends because I'm not confident to speak in English.

4.2.1 Lack of Communication Skills

4 out of 5 participants indicated that Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures involved several interactions among students and caused discomfort at a certain point. When the participants were asked to state the challenges they faced, Epraim stated that he had difficulties communicating with his teammates because he was not comfortable with them at that time. Consequently, he was compelled to muster the courage in starting a conversation and completing the tasks assigned by the teacher. Lydia experienced the same situation when Timed Pair Share was conducted. All participants were required to take turns and share regarding what they had learnt in the lesson with their friends in the classroom. She felt inferior communicating with her friends, especially when she needed to converse in the English language because she could not speak proper English. Moreover, she was afraid to make mistakes in front of her friends. Similarly, Jacqueline also had problems interacting with her friends because she lacked confidence in speaking English.

The same thing happened to Sally. In the activity Mix-N-Match, Sally felt uncomfortable because the activity involved all 35 participants. Apart from being too shy to participate, Sally further explained that she was someone who preferred to study alone than in a small group. This idea is also portrayed in Item B19 '*I prefer learning in a small group rather than learning individually, I think I am pretty good at this game*'. One of the participants disagreed with the statement, which indicated that she was not fond of learning in a small group. Thus, the lack of communication and social skills is one of the main barriers the students must overcome in a cooperative learning classroom.

4.2.2 Burdening Task

Apart from the lack of communication skills, two of the participants raised the issue regarding the presence of burdening tasks. When asked about the least favourite activity, Epraim mentioned that he disliked the writing activity, which involved one of the Kagan Structures, Flying Carpet. He

considered helping his friends whilst simultaneously having to complete his part of the task a burden. Jacqueline's least favourite activity was also writing because it was her weakness, and translating from Malay to English was challenging for her. Although her friends actually attempted to help her, her friends had their limitations as well.

4.2.3 Noise Distraction

As expected in a cooperative learning classroom, noise is inevitable as discussions are constantly carried out among students to share their views on a certain topic or an assignment. The classroom environment was slightly noisy to Fiviana, especially when it involved activities, such as Timed Pair Share and Mix-N-Match. The latter involved several movements from the students in the classroom. However, noise may not be a major shortcoming of cooperative learning as most of the students did not see it as a threat.

4.2.4 Passive Teammates

Another challenge pointed out by one of the participants, Fiviana, is having passive teammates. She described her experience in the writing activity in which the students were required to produce a paragraph with the correct usage of subject–verb agreement. During the activity, her teammates were not actively participating. They did not contribute any opinion and did not help construct sentences as well. She added that even after she asked for her teammates' assistance, most of them only remained silent. This scenario is also shown in Item B15 '*There are classmates who seldom participate in a group discussion or learning, and this affects my learning as well*', with 74.28% of the participants agreeing to such statement.

5.0 Conclusion and Implications

This study investigated the effects of Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures in teaching subject–verb agreement. Accordingly, the findings provide a better understanding of how these structures work as well as their effects towards language learning. Based on the findings, Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures are beneficial to students because they can improve the students' language skills. As shown in the findings, they have significant effects on the students' SVA test achievement. Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures can also promote students' teamwork and interpersonal skills as students are required to communicate and discuss with one another to solve problems or complete the tasks assigned. Every team member plays an important part in the learning process.

Undoubtedly, this study will benefit English teachers who are teaching either in primary or secondary schools. Considering that the study took place in a rural district of Sarawak and involved participants who were studying in a rural school, this study suitably serves as an example for further consideration. The lack of amenities and poor Internet connection have constantly been a problem for teachers who are teaching in the rural area. Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures can be utilised to overcome this problem as these structures require no substantial amenities to conduct an engaging lesson.

Moreover, educators are constantly searching for effective teaching methods and approaches to enhance students' learning. The findings of this study have shown that Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures can be proposed as one of the effective teaching methods for

teachers. An interactive learning environment is created through the use of these structures. Specific steps or procedures in conducting the structures can be easily obtained and integrated into the lesson at any point in time. Hence, it can lessen the teachers' burden as time spent on lesson planning can be reduced.

Both school teachers and educators at the tertiary level can benefit from this study. Employing cooperative learning in colleges and universities is highly suitable, especially during tutorials. As tertiary education involves mostly adults, they should be afforded with extra autonomy in their own learning. Using Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures is relevant because lecturers will only act as facilitators to monitor the students' learning.

Based on the findings, Kagan Cooperative Learning Structures, as described in this study, evidently provided positive effects on the acquisition of various language skills. Positive attitude towards the learning of the English language is also promoted through these structures. Therefore, cooperative learning is seen as a viable option for educators to deliver English lesson to among students. However, the results of this study cannot be generalised given its limitations.

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Speech Act of Refusal on the Phone

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Abstract:
This paper investigates the speech act of refusal taking as a case study British responses to a salesperson's offer through the study of recordings of 109 conversations between the salesperson and a potential British customer. The data are analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively with the aim of finding the most frequent responses that denote refusal by the English native speakers. Most of the expressions used to reflect the British people's annoyance with the use of cold calls, the majority being brief phrases of refusal. In addition to the recorded calls, two questionnaires were conducted in Britain to shed light on the frequent expressions used on the phone in response to the salesperson. It is interesting here to catalog the range of strategies used by individuals, most of the time verbal, to avoid talking to the salesperson. These strategies seem to exist on a continuum of directness-indirectness. Firstly to perform an act of refusal efficient enough to end the call. Secondly to make the balance between the impacts of refusal per se and the keeping up with the social convention of mutual cooperation presented in the theory of politeness.

Key words: phone conversation, politeness theory, refusal, speech act, salesperson-customer

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Introduction

Background to the study:

This paper studies some verbal phrases used in response to a salesperson in a phone conversation focusing on negative attitudes that British people had towards cold calls in the light of speech-act theory. Upon analysis of the responses, the researcher noticed that most of the strategies that had been used by the potential British customers consisted of using some phrases that are typical of answering cold calls over the phone. Most of the time, these phrases denote refusal. In addition, these phrases signal the kind of relationship that characterizes the potential British customers and the salesperson. In this respect, the potential British customers employed certain strategies in an attempt to stop the flow of the calls.

Theoretical framework

This paper draws on the work of eminent researchers who showed that refusal as a speech act required deep studies in different cultures. A good deal of such studies worked on the multiple aspects of the speech act of refusals like Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990), Tnack (2002), and Nelson et al. (2002). These researchers demonstrated that refusals comprise a series of other speech acts like requests for clarification, the promise to comply, and the expression of regret or apology. Along with the refusal response, there is often a positive remark, an expression of willingness, an expression of gratitude and showing a partial agreement with the interlocutor (Félix-Brasdefer, 2008, p. 196). According to Nelson, Carson, Al Batal and El Bakary (2002) refusals are "particularly interesting because they are face-threatening acts, and we would expect many face-saving strategies to be used, especially in refusing individuals of higher status" (p. 165). Based on the influential studies led by Beebe et al. (1990), other researchers followed their method of eliciting data. They used Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as a tool for collecting data from participants. Nelson et al. (2002) defined the Discourse Completion Test as "a structured written discourse that provides the context/impetus for the speech act being studied with rejoinders that cue for eliciting the desired speech act being studied" (p. 165). It is worth pointing out that most of the studies on refusal used DCT to collect data. However, Nelson et al. (2002) criticize it arguing that "what people claim they would say in a hypothetical situation is not necessarily what they actually would say in a real situation" (p. 168). In most cases these studies are carried out in order to understand the discrepancies between native and non-native complaints and refusals (Tnack, 2002). Nelson et al. (2002) studied refusals in American English and Egyptian Arabic. Similarly, Beebe et al. (1990) investigate the speech act of refusal produced by two different language groups: native speakers of Japanese and native speakers of English. Al-Kahtani (2005) also worked on the speech act of refusal studying how Americans, Arabs, and Japanese refuse, seeking to see whether there was any difference in the ways people realize this speech act. Cold calling requires the presence of two main participants, the cold caller and the customer. The success of the cold caller's task depends entirely on the rapport that the salesperson establishes with the customers.

For our own study, the analysis will rely on 109 recorded calls of salespersons-customers exchanges and two questionnaires carried out in the UK with native speakers of English. The framework of the present study also takes into consideration the politeness theory by Brown and Levinson (1987). The choice of the theoretical framework stems from the fact that both the phone call operator and the potential customer act and react according to what may be called a stimulus-response pattern. As for the salespersons, the initiators of the exchange, they expect the

interlocutor to acknowledge, or "co-operate" to realize the goals above-mentioned, technically called wants/desires.

Research objectives:

The present study has three objectives:

- Explore British answers on the phone to the salesperson.
- Document negative attitudes the British have towards the cold calls that they receive.
- Unveil most of the responses used by the potential British customers in an attempt to cover most of the contents of their strategies of refusal on the phone.

Methodological Design

The researchers had work experience in an offshore oriented call center. This call centre is established in Tunis. As in any call center's strategy, they provided workers with a script to use that is supposed to lead to the establishment of some kind of relationship between the salesperson and the potential customer, and ultimately to a sale. Despite the script, we realized that to a large extent the answers were the same. These similarities lie in the strategies of refusal used to deal with the sale proposal. So, the researchers became interested in the replies potential British customers made on the phone. There were two means used in collecting data from the potential British customers: recorded calls and questionnaires.

Structure of the study

The research is divided into five parts. The first part gives a description of the call center and refers to studies conducted on the speech act of refusal and the politeness theory. It highlights some issues linked to call centers in Tunisia and the United Kingdom. While Tunisia has witnessed a rapid growth in the industry of call centres, the United Kingdom passed laws to organize electronic marketing and reduce or even stop cold calls. The second part presents the methodology followed in the analysis of the data as well as the instruments used in collecting that data. The instruments included in the present study are 109 recorded phone calls with two questionnaires conducted in the United Kingdom. The third part focuses on the analysis of the recorded data and the two questionnaires. It reveals most of the strategies used by the British people to respond in refusal to call centers' offers. The fourth part summarizes the findings. Finally, the last chapter is dedicated to the conclusion that provides the recommendations and the limitations of the study.

Literature review

A number of studies have so far been carried out on the speech act of refusal and its classifications along with the politeness theory.

Politeness and face

Holmes (1995) describes politeness as a "behaviour which actively expresses positive concern for others, as well as non-imposing distancing behaviour" (p. 5). This makes of politeness a "general form of an expression of good-will or camaraderie, as well as the more familiar non-intrusive behaviour which is labelled 'polite' in everyday usage" (p. 5). As a fundamental constituent, "face" is a frequently recurring concept in the literature about politeness and can even amount to a defining agent in theory. The notion of face is derived from "the work of Goffman (1967) and Brown Levinson (1987)" (p. 5). This "technical term", as mentioned in Holmes (1995)

and Yule (1996), refers to "the emotional and social sense of self that everyone has and expects everyone else to recognize" (Yule, 1996, p. 60). From this perspective, "everybody has face needs or basic wants", which requires that "people generally cooperate" to maintain and show concern for each other (Holmes 1995, p.5). In other words, politeness will materialize only if its prerequisites, namely face needs, are respected. This is obvious in Yule's (1996) linkage between the two notions when he defines politeness as "the means employed to show awareness of another person's face… accomplished in situations of social distance or closeness" (Yule, 1996, p. 60). Accordingly, if an interlocutor transgresses the social convention to "cooperate" to satisfy the hearer's face needs, the latter is said to disobey the very basics of polite conduct. That very basic conduct of politeness is a covenant where both the speaker and the hearer cooperate to satisfy their mutual basic wants. This is an effort made by participants where they employ strategies meant to show "respect for each other's" expectations regarding self-image, take account of their feelings, and avoid face-threatening acts (FTAs)" (Cutting, 2002, p.45). FTAs are a central core in the theory of politeness around which evolves much of the literature. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), there are certain acts that threaten face as they "run contrary to the face wants of the addressee and/ or of the speaker" (p. 65). Holmes (1995) considers suggestions, advice and requests as potential face- threatening acts. She claims that "polite people" avoid face-threatening acts such as "insults" and "orders" by "softening them or expressing them indirectly" (p. 5). Face-threatening acts are incorporated in the broader sphere of politeness which is divided in the literature into "positive politeness‟ and "negative politeness‟. Positive politeness is portrayed by Brown and Levinson (1987), cited in Holmes (1995), as "sociable behaviour expressing warmth towards an addressee" (p. 5). Negative politeness on the other hand is the "behaviour which avoids imposing on others" (p. 5). In their approach to politeness, Brown and Levinson (1987) distinguish between two kinds of face needs: "negative and positive." Positive face needs are "the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others" while negative face needs are "the want of every „competent adult‟ that his actions be unimpeded by others" (p. 62). In this regard, FTAs are the acts whereby cooperation between participants collapses, which results in a difficulty "to maintain the face of all people involved in an interaction" (Nelson et al., 2002, p.165). In the context of an interaction, an FTA, according to Nelson et al. (2002), can either be threatening to the hearer's or to the speaker's face. Some other acts, nonetheless, are threatening to both participants‟ face wants. Holmes (1995) advocates that "any utterance which could be interpreted as making a demand or intruding on another person's autonomy can be regarded as a potential face-threatening act" (p. 5).

Gender and politeness

As a response to the question dealing with gender as to who is more polite, men or women, Holmes (1995, p.6) affirms that women are more polite. She justifies this on the ground of women's expression of positive politeness or friendliness in the way they use language. In an attempt to show that women tend to be more verbally polite than men, Holmes (1995, p. 193) cites a variety of evidence to prove this claim by saying: Women give more encouraging verbal feedback to their conversational partners than men do, they disruptively interrupt less often than men. Women ask questions and introduce topics aimed at maintaining talk that is of interest to others in informal and private interactions. In public where the floor is highly valued, they participate much less and leave the floor to men more often. Women agree with others, compliment

others, and apologise more often than men, demonstrating sensitivity to the feelings of other people and using these speech acts as tokens of solidarity.

The speech act of refusal

It is of great importance at this stage to note that most of the responses in the recorded calls expressed refusal, whether directly or indirectly; hence the significance of studying the speech act of refusal. However, with the scarcity of work done on the speech act of refusal on the phone, it seems necessary to study in depth the main articles that have so far been written about the general use of this speech act.

Definition

Researchers have been attempting to provide an accurate and precise definition to cover the entire meaning of the speech act of refusal. Most of the time, the use of this speech act reflects an intention of declining an offer, suggestion or request on the part of the speaker. Basically, it is when the speaker directly or indirectly says "no" to a request or invitation (Tnack, 2002, p. 2). According to Tnack (2002), refusal is "a face-threatening act to the listener because it contradicts his own expectation and is often realized through an indirect strategy" (p. 2). Refusal is claimed to "respond negatively to an offer, request, invitation, etc" (AlKahtani 2005, p. 37). In fact, refusal denotes the state of being uncooperative with someone about something. Al Kahtani (2005, p. 37) refers to Searle and Vanderveken (1985) who define the speech act of refusal as "the negative counterparts of acceptances and distinguish them from rejections". It has been noted that "how one says "no" is probably more important than the answer itself" and therefore "sending and receiving a message of "no" is a task that needs a special skill" (p. 37).

Methodology

The background

This chapter describes the methodology adopted to investigate the research problem stated in the introduction. It also presents the description of the data collection methods that were followed throughout the analysis of the recorded calls and the two questionnaires. In the analysis of the recorded conversations and the questionnaires, the researcher followed the descriptive method. The descriptive method is mainly used in analyzing the common responses that are found in both the questionnaires and the recorded calls. The recorded calls and the questionnaires are analyzed qualitatively and quantitatively. They are classified according to the responses of the potential British customers to the salesperson. The basic concern is to reveal and explore the most common phrases spoken by the potential British customers to the salesperson. These responses aim at mapping the verbal strategies of refusal that are more likely to be used in answering cold calls along with some features that are typical of the telephone conversations.

Subjects

When preparing for this study, a decision was made concerning the specific population which the researchers were working on. The participants for the current study included 109 English native speakers that made up the recorded calls which were conducted in Tunis, with 91 people in the first questionnaire and 75 in the second one in London.

Instruments

Most of the researchers who worked on the speech act of refusals like Beebe et al (1990), Nelson et al (2002), and Tnack (2002) used a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) in eliciting refusals in which participants should respond to some situations as prompts. Nelson (2002, p. 167) mentioned three reasons which account for the use of a DCT as an efficient tool for eliciting data. To elicit data, Nelson et al. (2002) made some modifications on the DCT; subjects had to respond verbally on audiotape. Beebe and Cummings (as cited in Nelson et al., 2002) made a comparison of two kinds of methods in eliciting data, „talk versus written questionnaire" and they found "that subjects talked four times more than they wrote" (p. 168). The DCT also has some limitations pointed out in the work of Nelson et al. (2002). They referred to Rose and Ono (1995) who said that "we should not expect a single data source to provide all the necessary insights into speech act usage" (p. 207). This section provides the data for this present research including the participants in both the recorded calls and the questionnaires.

Two types of data were used in this study:

- ✓ 109 recorded calls.
- ✓ Two written questionnaires.

The way of classifying the recorded calls

We thoroughly considered the influential method used by Beebe et al. (1990), in which the speech act of refusal was classified in terms of semantic formulae and adjuncts. This classification influenced a lot of studies like those by Nelson et al. (2002), Tnack (2002), and Al Kahtani (2005). We developed a method, based on collecting the major responses uttered by the potential British customers because we were more concerned with the content of different responses given to the salesperson rather than classifying them according to Beebe et al. (1990) classifications. We followed this method in analyzing the content of both recorded calls and the questionnaires for several reasons. While considering the method used by Beebe et al. (1990) to classify refusals, we found that it could not be applicable to the phone conversations because there was a new context that would govern the whole conversations. First, the inapplicability evolves around the nature of the phone conversations under scrutiny. This call was in essence commercially oriented, and procedure which molded the way operators conversed. Beebe et al. (1990) used the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) to elicit refusals; while our way of collecting data was recording 109 calls using a script as a 32 prompt. In the light of the responses given by the potential British customers, we wrote two questionnaires depending on the frequent responses given by the potential British customers. The whole conversation occurred on the phone, which meant the absence of eye-contact as an essential part in establishing any kind of relationship between speaker and interlocutor. Furthermore, and as far as our experience is concerned, while starting the phone call, we as salespersons could not predict the answer to be "no". Yet to our surprise, most responses look the same even if the strategies differ. This was among the main motives behind the choice of considering the responses of the potential British customers as the focal points. These responses typify the features of answering cold calls. Therefore, we developed our own classification of the British answers based on the content.

The Transcription of the conversations

Relying on the recorded calls, as our primary data, we transcribed the conversations the way they were said by the potential customers and the agent. This method was used because we were interested in the content of what was said by the potential customer and using phonetics is beyond the scope of this paper. In the recorded calls, there were certain phrases that were used by the potential customers in order not to be engaged in long conversations with the salesperson. These answers were spoken repeatedly, which made us consider them as the components on which these classifications were based.

Classifying the conversations

After transcribing the conversations, the researchers used their own way of classifying the recorded calls based on the content and found that the potential British customers used different refusal strategies with the intention of avoiding speaking to the salesperson in general and of ending the conversations in particular. In answering cold calls, the potential British customers may use some expressions regularly to show their discontent in receiving such kinds of telemarketing. These expressions were quite revealing; they were in fact ways of refusing the proposed offers of the salesperson. It meant that they were verbal strategies of refusals, which were typical of the phone. After studying the recorded calls, we realized the common ground that was omnipresent in most of the British answers to the salesperson. We chose these classifications because they stated some of the refusal expressions, which were more likely to be used in dealing with a cold call. These conversations were classified according to their types of refusals.

There were nine main categories:

- General not interested “I am not interested”.
- Hanging up.
- Direct rejection and the notion of “Ex-directory”.
- Polite rejection: “No thanks”.
- Excuse: “Being busy” and” in the middle of doing something”.
- “I have not got any money” and “it is expensive”.
- Rejection: Not wanting anything.
- “Call me back”.
- Other reasons “I could not hear properly” or “someone has phoned me before.”

Based on these nine categories, we analyze these conversations quantitatively and qualitatively.

3.6. Piloting

In order to determine the frequent strategies of refusal, we used two questionnaires. We suggested some of them to a few people. Then we stopped, and discussed the pilot results. Piloting gave us the opportunity to see whether there should be any modifications or revisions of the questionnaires. Both questionnaires were piloted with a small sample of the target population. No changes were needed, so we carried on as the pilot data was considered valid to be taken into consideration.

Conclusion

The previous part has dealt with the methodology employed in the study. It has been devoted to describing the corpus chosen to work on, and the two instruments used in collecting data which

have contributed to identifying most of the British responses to the salesperson on the phone and stressing the negative attitude towards the reception of the cold calls.

Analysis

British responses

Receiving phone calls for British people is not a new phenomenon. Throughout the researchers experience in the call center, they have become familiar with the different responses they use in responding to the sale proposal. After subdividing 109 calls, we ended up with nine parts.

British refusal responses on the phone

Most of the responses were direct when it came to talking to a salesperson over the phone, in such a way as to quickly end the call. While the salesperson tried to convince the potential British customer to buy a basket of Italian biological products, the latter seemed to develop verbal strategies to deal with the cold call offers and not to be engaged in such conversations which may necessitate buying, with a simultaneous concern to maintain the salesperson's face wants: the need not to be rejected. These verbal strategies reflect disinterest in Italian products. The answers were expressed with precision and clarity through the 39 choices of words given by the potential British customers in an attempt to avoid leaving any opportunity for the salesperson to stay a longer time on the phone and selling any of their products. The data elicited from the recorded calls and the two questionnaires were analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. The responses can be classified as follows:

General, not interested

This category was often expressed by phrases like "I am not interested, thank you", "I do not think I am interested" and "I am not interested in whatever you are selling or offering". With these people not being interested, it was hard to confirm whether the British customers did not find the content of the offer interesting, or just say it so that they can end the call as quickly as possible. Here positive politeness is not attended to and the speaker, here the customers, can be said to breach the "covenant" of cooperation to maintain the salesperson's face needs by setting forth their reason for not conversing in a direct manner or, in Brown and Levinson's (1987) terms, "without redressive action, baldly" (p. 60). The very answer, "not being interested" was ubiquitous in various parts of the conversations. There were some interlocutors who gave the "I am not interested" response at a too early stage of the conversation, without even recognizing the person they were talking to. The statistics above confirm that "general not interested" is the dominant strategy of refusal which the respondents tend to use to react to the different cold calls they receive. This strategy is realized by two components which are a reason/ excuse "I am not interested" and a statement of gratitude, "Thank you". Out of 109 calls, 24 people said that they were not interested. These potential clients represented 20.33%, which means that a considerable portion was interested neither in the salesperson nor in the offer. It is worth pointing out that the potential customers tended to say "I`m not interested" even before the salesperson utters a word about their merchandise, leaving them just with the opportunity to introduce themselves This "general not interested" can be divided into four categories: Firstly, "not being interested" came before the salesperson even introduces themselves. There was one person who reacted this way in conversation 52. One possible interpretation of this is that the potential clients, being greatly targeted by cold calls, recognized that the voice was not familiar to them, and thus it must be a

salesperson. Secondly, “not being interested” came after knowing the person they were talking to was a salesperson. As can be seen from conversations 9, 22, 36, 46, 48, 70, 81 and 98 after the salesperson 'A' has introduced himself “Hello my name is Paolo Castello…,” the potential client 'B' end the conversation straight away. The possible interpretation is that 'B' is not listening to 'A', the salesperson, in the first place, with B‟s presupposing 'A' is selling some worthless products. Another way of interpreting this is to assume that 'B', after having heard the name of the salesperson, realized that it was not someone they knew. Therefore, by way of being accustomed to such situations, 'B' infers it must be someone selling a product. All that 'B' wants to do now is stop the conversation as quickly as possible. This results in B's reaction exemplified in the utterance “No thank you, goodbye;” which is to end the exchange politely. Thirdly, “not being interested” came after being asked by the salesperson whether they have tasted Italian food or not. In conversations 1, 50, 66 and 90 the potential customers wanted to end the dialogue. “Have you ever tasted Italian food?” the question asked by the salesperson triggers 'B' into ending the conversation quickly. It may be tempting to note that B could construe this question as one asked by a salesperson selling something, or, in some cases, as someone making a survey. In either case, the potential customers by no means wish to be involved in a series of questions that may invade their privacy. Fourthly, “not being interested” came after mentioning the name of the firm the salesperson works for. In conversations 15, 16, 17, 20, 43, 49, 64, 68, 100 and 104 the 41 potential British clients allowed the salesperson to introduce the company and the reason of this call. After “B” had an idea about the purpose of the call, they were still not interested.

Hanging up

There were 20 people who simply hung up the phone. Generally speaking, at different parts of the script the potential customers abruptly ended the call. It is worth pointing out that putting the phone down is a typical way of refusal and/ or rejection on the phone. At this point, both the salesperson and the potential customers can be said to have made a face-threatening act. As to the former, the act of calling seems not to respect the customers’ want to be independent and not imposed on simply because from the perspective of the customers this act invades their “territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 61). The customers’ reaction is manifested through putting the phone down, an act which may be among the toughest of face-threatening acts. Here the customers do not pay attention, of course intentionally, to the salesperson’s want to be accepted and therefore do not employ a face-saving strategy. There was one person who hung up the phone after saying “Hello”. This was in conversation 75. This person recognized that the person on the phone was unknown to her. As a consequence, she put the phone down straight away. There were five people who hung up the phone after the salesperson ‘A’ wanted to check if 'B' was the potential British customer they intended to speak to. This can be observed in conversations 19, 26, 53, 78 and 92. 42. Another five people hung up the phone after the salesperson mentioned their name. These are in conversations 3, 23, 61, 67 and 87. Six people hung up the phone after the salesperson asked them this question: “Have you ever tasted Italian food?” These are in conversations 2, 12, 47, 58, 88 and 97. In these cases, the potential British customers were aware of the trigger behind this cold call. However, the so-called special offer failed in drawing the attention of the potential customers. This was because the salesperson managed only to speak four turns, which was not enough to establish “relationship” with the customers. Only two people let the salesperson continue with their speech till he started introducing the firm he was working for. This stage of the script witnessed the cut of the call.

These are in conversations 84 and 65. There was only one person in conversation 95 who put the phone down, once he knew that the salesperson wanted to talk to someone who did not live in the house anymore. Hanging up seems to be the safest strategy on the part of the customers, in order not to have any conversation with the operator.

Polite rejection

The people included in this section tended to use the thanking expression "no, thank you" or "no, thanks" with the intermediary intention of minimizing the threat to the salesperson's positive face, thereby softening the directness of rejecting the offer, which is the ultimate goal. From this angle, the customer can be said to satisfy, even to a minor degree, their interlocutor's need to be, and have their request accepted. Making use of positive politeness is just a superficial utilization of a strategy that maximizes the benefit to the speaker, here customer, and minimizes benefit to the hearer, here call center operator. In other words, the salesperson's want to be accepted is not really considered since what they aimed at, the act of selling; is declined with an expression that apparently stands for acceptance. This part is divided into four categories: Firstly, the potential customers said "no thank you," before even knowing the person they were talking to. In conversation 59 the potential customer said "no thank you," and she hung up without knowing the person she was talking to. For her, the person who was talking was a stranger. Secondly, the potential customers said "no thank you," after recognizing the person they were talking to. In conversations 4, 29, 40, 57, 60, 86, 99 and 101 the potential customers noticed that "A" is a salesperson at the moment "A" mentioned the country they are calling from. Thirdly, the potential customers said "no thank you," after the salesperson "A" asked them the key question "have you ever tasted Italian food before?" In conversations 10, 21, 37, 39 and 63, the potential customers seemed to be disturbed by the question, and in order not to be perceived as impolite, they just said "no thank you," and put the phone down. Fourthly, the potential customers said "no thank you," after knowing the offer. In conversations 31, 54, 56, 94 and 101 the potential customers ended the conversations saying "no thank you". This reveals disinterest in the offer promoted by the salesperson. By saying "no thank you", the salesperson could not carry on with their patterned speech because the customers put the phone down.

Excuse: "Being busy"; "In the middle of doing something"

Eighteen people said that they were busy or in the middle of doing something. Often, the potential British customers' statement that they were busy was followed by an expression of apology like "sorry". There were two potential customers who said that they were in the middle of doing something and had no time to discuss anything. Firstly, in conversations 51 and 107, there were two potential customers who said that 44 they were in the middle of doing something before knowing who the caller was. One possible interpretation is that the salesperson is unknown to them so they do not want to talk to them. Secondly, the potential customers said that they were busy after knowing the name of the salesperson, as can be seen in conversations 5, 35, 74 and 82. This reveals that the potential British customers just made excuses in order not to speak to the salesperson.

What is common to all responses is that the potential customer avoids direct rejection of the offer in a way that may seem to reflect their care for the salesperson's positive face, that of the need to be accepted. Yet, and once more, what the customer cares for most is to end the exchange

as soon as possible. This appears in their use of the same excuse even before the callers uttered a word about what they were calling for.

Not wanting anything

This part includes 12 people. "I do not want anything," "No, I do not care," or "I am not interested in buying anything," are the common expressions used in this part. These expressions illustrate a negative willingness and show the indifference on the part of the 45 customer to the special offer proposed by the salesperson. The British customers used these phrases so as to avoid having a talk with the salesperson. These are in conversations 6, 7, 14, 32, 38, 41, 43, 44, 45, 48, 93 and 96. As a reaction to the flow of unwanted calls, the customers used different expressions showing that they do not need anything. This directness on the part of the clients, and which is face-threatening in essence, pushed the salesperson to end the call with a minimum degree of embarrassment to save his face simply because his wants were not accepted nor shared by the call recipient.

Rejection: "I do not like it" and "I like my own food"

There are six potential customers who said "I like my own food", or "I like Scottish/ Indian dishes". Though they may express dissatisfaction with the Italian food, the two statements are not typical of face-saving strategies given that the speakers here do not attend to the hearer's want to be admired. Rather, what the customers aim at is an entire linguistic switch off and a direct way out once they know about the aim of the salesperson. That very directness, especially in "I like my own food", might be considered as a categorical excuse, but more importantly, it leaves salespersons little or no chance to go along with their speech having lost their face-wants. These are in conversations 5, 20, 33, 34, 55 and 62.

Direct rejection and the notion of "Ex-directory"

There were certain expressions that were used to show people's discontent with being called because they were "ex-directory" or just for "not accepting cold calls" as a principle. The refusals were achieved by these expressions that act as reasons for not talking to the salesperson: "I do not accept cold calls," "you should not have this number," "how did you get my number, because I am ex-directory?" and "you should not be calling me."

Common to all of the above-mentioned responses, there is absolutely no desire on the part of 47 of the customers to exhibit any degree of concern for their interlocutors' positive face given that their own negative face has been threatened. Noticeably, when some customers find out that their privacy has been transgressed, they become very suspicious to the extent that they are no longer concerned about the face-wants of the person they are talking to, let alone the latter's offer.

"Call me back"

In conversations 10, 20, 27 and 105, there were four potential British customers who were busy and asked the salesperson to call them back. These potential customers have some reasons for not talking at the moment the salesperson rang. "Call me back" seems to be the less face-threatening and the most face-saving. Unlike the other statements, this one does not aim at abruptly ending the call nor somehow deceiving the hearer by giving fake reasons for not answering the call, but rather gives an extra chance for the call center' operators to have their offer considered next time they call. What contributes to making this strategy less face-threatening to the hearers is that the

customers themselves are at ease enough not to feel they are under the threat of the former's intrusion into their territories, and thereby abstain from using a counter positive face-threatening reaction.

"I have not got any money" and "it is expensive"

Here the target of the call can be said to have proceeded by respect to their interlocutors' positive face wants, the need to have one's proposition appreciated by others. By being patient enough to give excuses, while not being obliged to, the customer treats the addressee not as a stranger but "as a member of an in-group", in Brown and Levinson' s (1987) terms. This in-group is any business deal between a seller and a customer. It remains to say that the initial intention of the customer in this exchange is not total cooperation or acknowledgement of the addressee's total freedom of action, but just to minimize the potential face threat of the hidden intent of refusal. Here the means to hide the threat is to be tolerant enough to speak about the financial situation. In both questionnaires, it was very rare for potential British customers to reveal their personal financial situations to strangers. However, there were some exceptions revealed in the recorded phone calls. There was one older person who was frank enough to reveal that she was a pensioner and she could not afford to buy these products. There were two customers who had become disinterested after coming to prices.

Results and Discussions

This part surveys the different reasons that may account for the failure of some call centers in achieving success in doing the business over the phone in the UK, and also provides a summary of the different responses used as strategies of refusal on the phone. 5.1. Strategies of refusal over the phone. The two questionnaires together with the 109 recorded calls investigate the responses which the British people would normally use to reply to a salesperson's sale offers on the phone. Both have led to cataloging a variety of strategies most frequent to phone exchanges of this kind and that reveal how potential British customers would refuse the sale proposal when answering the cold caller. These strategies classified according to their frequency help make a comparison between the recorded calls and the questionnaires.

The first observable piece of information is the fact that the recorded calls reveal more strategies of refusal as compared to the two questionnaires. As outlined above, there are four extra-strategies particular to the recordings, namely "Not wanting anything", "other reasons" like not being able to hear the salesperson, the notion of ex-directory, and "I do not have money" and "it is expensive". This result may have two different interpretations. First, in the questionnaires participants seem to have more time to reflect as to the best thing to say or do to decline cold calls; and therefore the absence of spontaneity in the questionnaires may make some kind of feedback that would possibly come out otherwise in other situations, and which is not called for on the part of the customers. Second, some strategies are typical of telephone exchanges. An instance of this falls under the category "other reasons". Here the interlocutor may intentionally or unintentionally say that they are not able to hear the caller. The notion of ex-directory is also quite likely to appear in direct telephone conversations because the potential customers presuppose that they would never receive strangers' calls when their phone numbers are ex-directory, which explains why the first thing these customers say is "I am ex-directory", being surprised by a call from somebody they does not know. In addition to mentioning the refusal strategies that are particular to the

recorded calls, it is also important to refer to those strategies that are common to both recorded calls and questionnaires, and which constitute the largest bulk of data.

These strategies are:

- General not interested
- Hanging up
- Excuse: Being busy
- Polite rejection
- Direct rejection: I do not buy over the phone
- Call me back later

Both questionnaires and recorded calls confirm the fact that the potential British- customers, in about 50% of cases, tried just to give excuses in order not to be engaged in a conversation which may lead to a loss of time or, to the very detriment of the customer, loss of money. However, the British potential customer may ultimately succumb to the overwhelming rush of words and agree to the salespersons' offers. After examining most of the given strategies, it is noticeable that the potential customers once called have one thing in mind, which is impeding all kinds of attempts made by the cold caller to "defeat" the customer's resistance. The attempt of the customer in half of the exchanges to give excuses may fall into the attempt not to be too direct and therefore not threaten the face of the interlocutor, the salesperson, and give some space however small or "freedom of action". It is very important to note that "General not interested" came as the most frequent/dominant strategy of refusal used by the potential British customers. This might be due to the disinterest and the negative attitudes that customers hold towards such kind of business, or it can be the customer's disinterest in the product itself. Concerning the "polite rejection" strategy, it appears in the third place in the recorded calls and the two questionnaires. It is also worth pointing out that in the second questionnaire, where questions were asked in an open-ended style, the polite rejection seems to be more familiar to female rather than male. However, in the first one, the close-ended questionnaire, showed that males remarkably may use this strategy to put an end to the cold call. Refusals as face-threatening acts pose a difficult challenge on the part of the hearer, here the salesperson. On the phone, the salesperson is left with little room to persuade the client and go on with his speech, and therefore he does not have any chance to draw the attention of the latter. The potential customers just give their responses without considering the impact on the hearer. This lack of concern might be explained by the cold caller's invasion of the territory of the interlocutors, one which, from the client's perspective, maximizes benefit only to the salesperson. This irritation-caused rejection is manifested in the form of the strategies present in most of the conversations. Once the rejection takes place, the caller's script, ideally thought to lead to success, has to be instantaneously reconsidered or none of the goals would be realized. At this point, the most difficult challenge is the struggle to keep the hearer listening, something that both the recorded calls and the questionnaires have proved to be difficult to attain. At this point we must question the effectiveness of telemarketing in such a cold-call targeted country as the UK. Here the notion of privacy and claim to territory seem to be central in the "conflict of wills" between the caller and the target of the call.

Conclusion

This conclusion gives a summary of the main findings of the study. It also draws attention to the limitations of the research.

The study set out to investigate the responses given by British people to cold calls. Two types of data were collected: primary data collected through recording phone calls of potential British customers and a salesperson, and secondary data gathered by means of two questionnaires to provide feedback on how native speakers of English tend to respond to cold calls, and to explain the negative attitudes towards cold calls in general. The analysis of the primary data, the recorded calls, raised a number of questions that needed to be more closely scrutinized later through the two questionnaires. One of those questions, one which makes the core of the study, is the background of responses used by the potential British customers to answer the salesperson. These responses have a unique and conspicuous function, one that denotes refusal. None of the given responses showed attempts on the part of the customers to cooperate with the caller. This lack of cooperation is quite understandable since every stimulating action of the caller directly results in proportionate feedback on the part of the interlocutor. For instance, the operator's intrusion into the potential customer's privacy on a regular basis brings about a seemingly inevitable consequence: rejection of the offer. This is because that action was threatening enough to the negative face wants of the customer that the latter's claims to intrusion-free territory were violated. The use of the politeness theory suggested by Brown and Levinson (1987) proved how difficult it is to have two parties with two contradictory sets of wants cooperate. In Brown and Levinson's terms (1987), negative politeness is "essentially avoidance-based, and realisations of negative-politeness strategies consist in assurances that the speaker recognises and respects the addressee's negative-face wants and will not (or will only minimally) interfere with the addressee's freedom of action" (p. 70). It is quite important here to note that what the call centre agent aims at is by no means intrinsically threatening since it is legitimate, at least from the seller's own perspective, to exhibit his merchandise to others within the conventional frames of social exchanges. But it is also important to note that if we follow the claim that the seller has to proceed by total avoidance, they will end up abstaining from the deal altogether. It remains therefore to note here that the failure of the exchange rests in factors other than the mere seller's want to exhibit the product. These factors can be said to have an even more intense effect of threat than the primary intrusion of the call.

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Impact of Intensive Reading Strategy on English for Specific Purposes College Students' in Developing Vocabulary

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Abstract
The study aims to find out the impact of intensive reading strategy on English for specific purposes college students' in developing vocabulary. To achieve the aim of the study, 40 ESP College students were randomly chosen from the college of political sciences at A-Nahrain University in Iraq, the participants were in the second grade during the academic year 2017-2018. Two groups were enrolled in this experiment, 20 ESP students in the experimental group and the same number in the control group. To determine if the intensive reading strategy had an impact on ESP student's in developing vocabulary, a pre-posttest was administered for both groups. The control group was treated by the traditional way of teaching vocabulary through translating the words in Arabic language and memorizing them with the help of the teacher, while the experimental group was treated by using intensive reading strategy for about ten weeks. The chosen texts were taken from (New Head way Pre-intermediate student's book). Fill in the blank exercises had been chosen in the pre-posttest which consist of 50 items for each, the test was administered by the researcher. Based on the findings of this research, it was found that the new strategy has a positive impact on ESP College students' in mastering vocabulary that was proven from the improvement of students' mean score from pretest to posttest. Based on the results gained; it is recommended that intensive reading strategy can play a great role in mastering vocabulary.

Keywords: English for specific purposes, intensive reading, vocabulary

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1. Introduction

English is considered as an international language, which is having its impact on every field of our daily life. The English language is mainly composed of grammar and vocabulary, though grammar is a basic element in English language, yet vocabulary is more important, because without mastering a large of vocabulary , students can't express themselves and communicate easily with others whether inside or outside the class room. Wilkins (1972, p 97) states that: 'There is not much value in being able to produce grammatical sentences if one has not got the vocabulary that is needed to convey what one wishes to say … While without grammar very little can be conveyed, without vocabulary nothing can be conveyed''.

Vocabulary is the repository and the main engine of the communication process. A reader cannot understand a text without knowing what most of the words mean. "The more actively and deeply students process words, the better they learn them". (Blachowicz & Fisher, 2000 ; Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986, pp. 503-524). To teach vocabulary effectively teachers must learn the necessary skills to apply the suitable methods and strategies, students on the other hand need a wide range of independent word-learning strategies. Intensive reading is one of these strategies that are useful in learning and teaching vocabulary, it helps learners to grasp the meaning of the words.

2. Problem of the Study

Many English language learners found that learning new vocabulary and words is one of the most challenging parts in mastering English. Learners have many difficulties in acquiring words, even for quite proficient learners, the extent of their knowledge of vocabulary is only a fraction of what it is for native speakers of English, and the failure to understand even a few words of a text can have negative effects on comprehension because every words has its form, meaning, and usage.

(Beglar, 2009) states that in learning many vocabularies is not an easy matter for learners that occurs progressively over many years for foreign language learners and even for native speakers. Arab countries students in general and Iraqi students in particular face a lot of problems in acquiring English vocabulary. This is due to the educational system and the methods of teaching. (Saeed & Jafar, 2016). Most of our English teachers in Iraqis schools and colleges usually follow the traditional ways in teaching vocabulary, that the teacher often presents a word in English and their meaning in Arabic language and ask the learners to memorized these words. (Alqahtani, 2015; Alakeeli, 2013).

Some students acquire new vocabulary through new words in their textbooks and memorize these words in their mind and then they can use it correctly in their speech or a written text, but mastering a word is not only to know its meaning, but to know other seven aspects .All these properties are called word knowledge. (Schmitt , 2000). Insufficient of vocabulary knowledge is a serious problem for ESL and EFL learners. To learn new words is not an easy job, so teachers have a hard task to find effective strategies. (Heggins, 2015)

There are many methods of teaching vocabulary but most of these methods don't help the students in acquiring the vocabulary and how to realize the meaning of words, their correct pronunciation and usage. According to (Diamond, & Gutlohn, 2006) vocabulary knowledge is not

something that can ever be fully mastered; it is something that expands and deepens throughout a life time.

3. Significance of the Study

Vocabulary is considered as one of the language elements which need to be mastered well. If students master vocabulary; they can easily improve language skills such as listening, speaking, reading and writing (Cahyono &Widiati, 2008,p.1). Vocabulary is a significant predictor of overall reading comprehension and student performance. (Stahl & Fairbanks, 1986;, & Baumann, Kame'enui Ash, 2003).

Teaching vocabulary is a vital part of any English language course. Many teachers are concerned about how to teach vocabulary. New words have to be introduced in such a way as to capture the students' attention and place the words in their memories. In order to develop an ability to learn new vocabulary, for both general English and technical vocabulary in learning ESP, the students should become aware of the importance of language learning strategies and be trained to use them appropriately.

The teachers put a lot of effort toward helping them to learn vocabulary related to their field of study. Vocabulary instruction should aim to engage students in actively thinking about word meanings, the relationships among words, and how we can use words in different situations. This type of rich, deep instruction is most likely to influence comprehension (Graves, 2006; McKeown & Beck, 2004).

In recent years, the world witnessed many changes in the methods and techniques that are used in teaching different subjects, as there is a great interest in the use of intensive reading strategy in learning and teaching a foreign language. There are various studies emphasizing the fact that intensive reading was the best way to solve student's problem in learning vocabulary, because its focus is on the language rather than the text. As for (Abid, 2017) Intensive reading is a method in which learners read texts with a high degree of comprehension. By contrast, extensive reading is a method in which learners focus on an amount of reading rather than comprehension.

4. Aim of the study

The study aims to find out the impact of intensive reading strategy on ESP College students' in developing vocabulary.

5. The Hypothesizes

The hypothesis of this research is as follows:

1. There is a significant difference in students' achievement in acquiring vocabulary through intensive reading strategy.
2. There is no significant difference in students' achievement in acquiring vocabulary through intensive reading strategy.

6. Limits of the study

The present study is limited to the second year ESP college students in the college of political sciences at Al-Nahrain University, Iraq during the academic year 2017- 2018.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Vocabulary in English

Vocabulary is a word that is used in a language. In other words, vocabulary is a set of words within the language. It is an effective communication tool that allows a person to interact with others. The vocabulary was used at the first time in the 1530s which clarify that it is a list of words with explanations; the noun vocabulary came to refer to the "range of language of a person or group. It is "a range of words in the language of a person or group" (On line Etymology Dictionary, 2006). For many scholars the word *vocabulary* is related to the number of words that a person knows. It is a collection of words known by an individual or by a large group of people. (Merriam Webster Dictionary, 2018). It is also defined as the knowledge of words and their meanings in both oral and written language. (Osborn & Hieber, 2004).

2.1.1. The Importance of Vocabulary

One of the main elements that shows the student' success in schools and colleges is vocabulary. Vocabulary is used in many fields of our daily life.(Marzano & Pickering, 2005).Generally vocabulary is considered as the main key for the students to use the English language in speaking and writing perfectly and effectively. It is "a core component of the language proficiency and provides much of the basis for how well learners speak, listen and write" (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 255).

Vocabulary expand the learner's knowledge .The more the learner knows words, the more he can communicate with others when he needs to speak or write certain thinks. (Graves, 2000).A student with rich vocabulary can improve his ability to contact and communicate with others through the four English skills. (Allen, 1999) **.**Knowing many and different vocabularies can be useful for students in school, at work, and socially. It will enable him to understand and communicate others' ideas better and develop reading ability. (O'Connor, 2018)

2.1.2. Types of Vocabulary

In the English language, there are four types of vocabulary as stated by (.Montgomery, 2007). They are as follow:

1- Listening Vocabulary: It is all the words, which we can hear and understand when we are listening to oral speech or communication.
2-Speaking Vocabulary: It is all the words that are used while some one is speaking or communicating. It refers to all the words that we speak.
3-Reading Vocabulary: It is all the words, which we determine while; we read books, newspapers or journals. It refers to the words we recognize when we read any text.
4-Writing Vocabulary: It is all the words that are used in various forms of writing such as writing essays, composition-mails or letter writing. It refers to those words which we regain while writing to express ourselves.

2.1.3. Parts of Vocabulary

Vocabulary is broadly divided into two types as follows:

1- Receptive knowledge also known as receives. It is the **control** of the words that you understand when you hear them or read them.

2- Productive knowledge is also known as achieves. It is the control of the words that you use to express yourself, in speech or writing. (Laufer , 1998)

2.2. What is Intensive Reading?

Intensive reading refers to the way of reading through every word of a text from beginning to end very thoroughly and deeply. It is the way of reading short texts thoroughly and with clear goals. *(Koay, 2015)*. It is an activity that requires great mental effort and focuses. Because of this, the learner who engages in intensive reading must be careful to follow specific guidelines, or else risk boredom and burnout. (Lampariello, 2017)

Intensive reading is a classroom activity carried out under the supervision of a teacher who is primarily concerned with texts, which contain new words and idioms .This type of reading is considered as the backbone of language education programs. It involves focusing on question-and-answer teaching methods and uses the explanation of presentations and representation to communicate meanings of words, it also describes the vocabulary and rules to be taught and the order in which it should be submitted .it aims to develop the students' ability on how to understand the detailed information.

2.2.1. Goals of Intensive Reading

Intensive reading has many goals as follows:

1. It concentrates on having a new **language** such as vocabulary and grammar.
2. It helps students to create a great number of new vocabularies and language composition that helps the student to use the useful expression.
3. It helps the student to learn new **skills** such as making inferences and identifying main ideas
4. It helps the student to have a good transition from one word to another and from sentence to sentence and from paragraph to paragraph.
5. It helps the student to understand the meaning of the lesson and keep its thoughts alive in mind.
6. Students will develop other reading skills, such as skimming, scanning, and identifying the main ideas of texts and paragraphs. (Macalister, 2011)

2.2.2. The Characteristics of Intensive Reading

The intensive reading strategy is characterized by the followings:

1. It is characterized by slow and deliberate Student read the text line by line, and using his dictionary.
2. Intensive reading usually classroom based.
3. It helps to develop reading skills.
4. The aim is to build more knowledge in language and not to depend on practicing the skill of reading.
5. It is used when reading the article requires concentration and attention. (Palmer, 1921)

2.2.3. The Materials of Intensive Reading

1-Learners read the text in detail with specific learning aims and tasks**.**
2-The used text should be short.
3-The chosen texts are done by the teacher. (MacLeod, 2013)

2.2.4. The advantages and disadvantages of Intensive reading

a) Advantages

1- Intensive reading is usually done with difficult texts with many unknown words that require the learner to use a dictionary.
2- Intensive reading enhances cooperation among students.
3- Intensive reading is the fastest way to acquire and learn vocabulary.
4- Intensive reading is the most typically taught method of teaching reading and reading comprehension,
5- It improves the power of expression.
6- It helps the student in making inferences.
7- It helps the student by understanding sentence structure. (Scrivener, 1994)

b) Disadvantages

1-Learners have on enough time to practice of reading because of the small amount of text.
2-Learners often are unable to read the text at their level in the class, because everyone in the class is reading the same material.
3-The texts mostly are chosen by the teacher; therefore the text may not be interest to the reader. (Scrivener, 1994**)**

3. Methodology

3.1. The Design of the Study

The Pre-Posttest two groups design was used in this study that compares the change that occurs within two groups and to measure the degree of change occurring as a result of treatments.

3.2 Population of the study

The population of the current research was the second grade ESP college students in the college of political sciences at Al-Nahrain University in Iraq, which consist of 95 students.

3.3 Sample of the study

The sample used for this study was 40- second grade ESP college students in the second semester during the academic year 2017-2018. The ages range between nineteen and twenty.

3.4. Validity of the test

Validity is defined as 'the extent to which a concept is accurately measured in a quantitative study". (Heale & Twycross, 2015, p.66) It is the degree to which the scale measures what it is expected to measure. To ensure the validity of the research instrument, it was given to a jury professor in the field of EFL to evaluate the items of the test. Jury's comments were taken into consideration and the researcher modified all the required comments accordingly.

3.4. The Material

The researcher used both materials in the research .They are:
(a) Using an intensive reading as a strategy in learning vocabulary
(b) Text book of New Head way Pre-Intermediate student's book.

3.5. The Study Instruments

In order to fulfill the aims of the study, the researcher used the following instruments:

1- Pre-posttest was designed for both groups to develop ESP college students' vocabulary through using intensive reading strategy.
2- The instructional program based on Intensive reading strategy.
3- Questionnaire was categorized into ten questions to know the student's idea about using intensive reading strategy to develop their vocabulary. (See Appendix A)

3.6. The Administration of the Vocabulary Test

The test was prepared by the researcher by using intensive strategy to develop ESP college students' ability in mastering vocabulary. The program lasted ten weeks during which the participants were supposed to read (3-6) texts in each new lesson .These texts were chosen from the New Head way Pre-Intermediate Student's Book. The class met once a week for two hours in each session for 50 minutes per week. The study was carried out during the students' second semester of the college.

3.7. The Pre-test

The pre-test was administered at the beginning of the experiment as a regulatory means to control prior differences among participants followed by the treatment and the post-test towards the end of the experiment to measure the development of ESP students in using vocabulary through the new strategy. The participants of both experimental and control groups received a pretest of vocabulary. It administered before the treatment.

Fill in the blanks exercises was chosen in the test which consists of 50 items. The sample of the exercise was made by the researcher himself. The purpose of such a test was homogenization of participants and also the need for pretest and posttest mean comparison. Students answered each questions by choosing the correct choice of their answers on the answer sheet which was provided to them. The students would get one mark for the correct answer and zero (0) for the wrong answer or no answer. Time location of the test was 50 minutes. The pre-test was conducted on, February 19th 2018. (See Appendix B)

3.8. The Pilot Study

The pilot study was carried out to facilitate the achievement of the study aim by testing and modifying the research instruments. The test was piloted by a group of 20 students who did not participate in the main study. Based on the results of the pilot study, some items were excluded and some items were modified. The final version of the test which was used for the main study had **1o** questions items. A pilot study was conducted to check the validity of the instruments as well as to decide on the time needed for participants to finish each test.

3. 9. The Instruction

The researcher (the teacher) himself tried to introduced the instructional planning for all sessions, by preparing all the necessary procedures for the test, starting from choosing the material, arrange the classroom situation and prepared the lesson plan for the experimental group while the control group continued by learning vocabulary through the traditional method that depends on

giving the meaning of the new word and its meaning in the Arabic language by the teacher himself and the students had nothing to do only to memorize these words.

The researcher in his experiment prepared in each new lesson (3-6) texts which were taken from New Headway pre-Intermediate student's book. He explained to his students the meaning of the new strategy and the main roles of teacher and students in using this strategy.

Students in an intensive reading treatment read passages in their textbooks in details and line by line, using their dictionaries under the guidance of the teacher, and the teachers attend to issues of grammar, vocabulary, text organization and meaning that arise from the readings. The teacher should encourage and motivated the students to read the text in general without knowing every word in the passage, they should think about the meaning of what was written, and engage with the text and then answer questions about the text, order sentences, or find specific words.

3. 10. The Post Test

This test was used to find the differences before and after they get treatment and if there is any development for students in using vocabulary after treatment was given,
The test was constructed in the same way as done in the pre-test by forming fill in the blanks test which consisted of 50 items. The sample of the exercise was made by the researcher himself. Students answered each question by choosing the correct answer, they got I mark for the correct answer and zero for wrong and no answer. Time location of the test was 50 minutes. The post-test was conducted on, May 7th 2018. (See Appendix C)

3.12. The Reliability

Reliability refers to the consistency of a research study or measuring test. It is a way of assessing the **quality** of the **measurement procedure** used to collect certain data.
It's the extent to which assessments are consistent. Cronbach's alpha was used to administer the reliability of the test for the study. By data analysis, the results showed that the measured reliability by 'Cronbach Alpha' formula was 0.81.

4. Results and Discussions

4.1. Data analysis

In accordance with the requirement of the study, two-groups pre-test, posttest experimental research design was used .The pre-test was administered at the beginning of the experiment as a regulatory means to control prior differences among participants followed by the treatment and the post-test towards the end of the experiment to measure the development of ESP college students in acquiring vocabulary through intensive reading strategy.

Table 1
Results of Pre -Test of Control and Experimental Groups

Groups	Test	N	Mean	Std. D	T-V	df	Sig.
Control	Pre	20	6.85	1.80	0.485	94	0.001
Experimental	Pre	20	6.14	2.42			

The results of the above table show that there are no statistical differences between the two groups, as the mean score of the control group was 6.85, while in the experimental group was which refers that there are not any differences between both groups. و6.14

Table 2
T-Test of Pre Control-and Experimental groups in Post-Tests

Groups	N	Mean	Std. D	T-V	df	Sig.
Control	20	13.8	3.7	3.86	87	0.001
Experimental	20	16.68	3.1			

The result of the two groups in posttest shows that the mean of the posttest scores in the experimental group was 16.68, whereas the mean score in pre-test was 13. 81,
The result indicates that the post-test score is higher than the mean of the pre-test**.**
The above result confirms that the new strategy has been the effective impact on developing learners' vocabulary.

Finally, the post-test performance of both the control and experimental group were compared and the obtained results revealed that there is a significant difference between the two groups in their post-test scores at .01 level of significance.

Table 3
Paired Sample T-Test of Pre-and Post-Tests of Experimental Group

Experimental Group	N	Mean	Std. D	T-V	df	Sig.
Pre-test	20	6.136	1.8	17.8	68	0.001
Post-Test	20	16.68	3.1			

As shown, the results of the vocabulary pre-posttest scores of the experimental group, which indicated that the mean of the posttest was 16.68 , while the pre-test was 6.136 ,which refers that the post-test score was slightly greater than the mean of the pre-test.

4.2 Discussion

Due to the results of the statistical analysis of this study, it was found that there was a significant development in ESP learners' scores in using vocabulary through intensive reading strategy. It was found that the students' mean scores in the pre-test of the experimental group was 17.72, while the students' mean scores in the post-test was 22.63, which indicates that the mean scores of the post-test were higher than the mean scores of the pre-test, which revealed that there is an improvement in the students' scores before and after the treatment.
Therefore, these results indicated that intensive reading could enhance a positive impact on students' attitudes in using vocabulary.

This study is compatible with (Rashidi & Piran, 2011) in their study how can the extensive and intensive reading strategy can effect on Iranian EFL learners' vocabulary size and depth which demonstrated that reading both intensively and extensively can lead to vocabulary development in a way that the number of vocabulary which each learner knows in terms of each word's synonym, antonym and collocation will be improved significantly.

Moreover, (Sari & Huzairin, 2012) in their study how to improve students' vocabulary through intensive reading, the final analysis of the results showed that there was a significant improvement in students' vocabulary achievement after they were taught by using intensive reading, which emphasize that intensive reading can improve students' vocabulary achievement.In addition (Morales, 2017) in his study proves that intensive reading has a positive effect on scaffold reading.

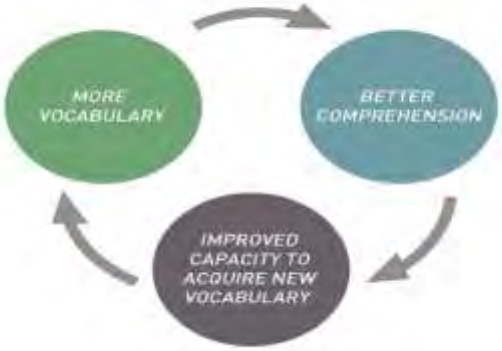

Figure 1 Shows Vocabulary Improvement

5. Conclusions and Suggestions

5. 1. Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to find out the impact of intensive reading on ESP students in developing their vocabularies. To achieve the goal of the study a pre-test was given before the treatment and a post-test was given after the treatment. The results and analysis of the data that gained from the test proved that intensive reading strategy could develop ESP college students' ability in acquiring vocabulary and use words correctly.

5.2. Recommendations

Based on the findings and the conclusions drawn from the study, many recommendations could be followed as:-

1-More studies could be recommended to examine the effect of intensive reading on other English activities such as, writing and speaking skills.

2- Up dating curriculums in universities and colleges with new trends in teaching and learning English vocabularies.

3- Teachers should stimulate students' motivation by using different technologies.

5-Students should be given enough chance to develop their vocabulary by using effective and different strategies.

5.3. Suggestions

According to the result of the study, the researcher puts some suggestions .as:-

1-New innovative methods of English teaching should be introduced in the curriculum.

2-It is necessary for an educational process in teaching EFL, ESL or ESP to apply another vocabulary training techniques such as extensive reading, skimming and scanning strategy.

3-In order to improve the process of teaching and learning teachers should be more creative in using intensive reading strategy.

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Appendices
Appendix A
Questionnaire for Students

Dear Students,
You are kindly requested to answer the following questions. Please. Answer (None, A little, Some, and A lot) in the right place. Add any commitments when necessary.
Student Name---------- Time: 50 minutes

No	Description	None	A little	Some	A lot
1	Do you think that learning vocabulary through intensive reading helped you to learn words quickly?				
2	Do you think that intensive reading strategy enhance your vocabulary acquisition?				
3	Do you think that learning words which you learn by intensive reading can stick in your mind for a long time?				
4	Do you think that Intensive reading strategy can help you to understand the details of texts that you have read.				
5	Do you think that Intensive reading strategy make vocabulary learning meaningful?				
6	Do Intensive reading help you understand the meanings and to remember all words?				
7	Do you want to learn vocabulary through intensive reading strategy again?				
8	Do you think that intensive reading strategy play a great role in developing your reading skill?				
9	Do you think that intensive reading strategy help you to understand to and remember the meanings of the English vocabularies easier?				
10	Do you think that intensive reading strategy makes you enjoy the teaching learning process?				

Thank you for your collaboration

Appendix B
Sample of Pre-Test for 25 items

Name: _____ Time: 30 min.
Read these sentences carefully and fill in the blanks with the correct answer.
1-Ahmed's father was killed in a car _____ last month.
a- incident b- accident c-president d- student
2 – Snakes in Australian are ---------- species.
a-Dangerously b- dangerous c- dangers d- danger
3-Arthur writes English ----------

a-Beautiful b-beautifully c- beautiful d- beauties
5-can I --------a lunch with you.?
a-Has b- have c- do d- make
6- I'm _____ to meeting you at the Symposium.
a-Looks forward b-Look forward c- looking forward d-look
7- A defect can be caused ..... negligence by one of the embers of a team.
a- by b- to c- at d- in
8-He tries his best to get a better _____to develop his life.
a- employ b- job c- work d- employment
9-Punishing children may cause a bad---------on their behavior.
a- affect b- pressure c-. influence d- effect
10-He is --------- to go to India this summer.
a- planning b- intended c- decided d- ought
11- Students shouldn't ----------their teacher in the classroom .
a- interrupt b- interfere c-communicate d- ask
12-She was late to join the conference, because she was held up in traffic ----------
a- crush b- jam c- order d- blocks
13- It was the longest story I've ever read; it……..six hours.
a- lasted b- finished c- taken d- ended
14- She decided to travel to France for a month in order to---------- the French language..
a- learn b- speak c- join d- know
15- Life without rules, people would live in---------
a-hardly b- peacefully c-harmony d- jungle
16- The Boss …… the workers for arriving late.
a-punish b- rewarded c- dismissed d- helped
17- Please be---------- when you pass this street..
a- Careless b-carefree c-careful d-caring
18- The teacher taught the children always to say the.....
a-truth b-facts c-true d-news
19- Old people should be ----------. when you cross this road.
a-careless b- cares c- careful d-caring
20-Cancer is considered as one of the most ..... diseases.
a-problems b-attempts c- serious d- dangerous
21-The doctor submitted to the hospital several results to ..... his point of view.
a-Support b- explain c-deny d- explore
22- On Monday, I'll tell you ..... how many people will be attending the party.
a-probably b-mostly c-exactly d-definitely
23-Water is ---------Hydrogen and Oxygen.
a-Made of b- contain of c- consist of d- depend on
24-You must attended the final exam of English; it was
a-important b- interesting c-dull d-stimulating
25- The student doesn't feel good. He must be _____ a cold.
a- taking b- having c- getting d- coughing

Appendix C
Sample of Post-Test for 25 items

Name: _____ Time: 30 min.

Read the sentences and fill in the blanks with the best answer.
1-Hearing a daily broadcast of the weather will make you ------ of what is going to happen.
a- aware b- alike c- understand d- knowledgeable
2- It was the longest story I've ever read; it……..six hours.
a- lasted b- finished c- taken d- ended
3- We haven't had ..... problems with him.
a- some b- any c- no d- none

4- Many experts are eager to test ---------- new experiment.
a- in b- up c-on d-out
5- All items of the required delivery will be -------from 17 May.
a-suitable b-portable c-available d-accessible
6- You ..... travel to Syria – there isn't an airport.
a- may b- can c- may not d- cannot
6- Her treatment with patient gives a good ----------that she is a good nurse.
a-view b-reaction c-impression d-knowledge
7- Please, let me know if you are ----------to attend the meeting.
a –concerned b –informed c-invited d-interested
8-You must -------your suggestions by the end of the day.
a-submit b-subject c-subscribe d-decide
9-They always work ----------their manager orders.
a-share b- against c- with d-agree
10-It is _____ for me to meet you today.
a- possible b-not possible c- necessary d-hard
11-The teacher has to _____ the students' papers test.
a-re- arrange b-put together c-fix d-collect
12-I will have a n invitation with my -------- group of my friends.
a-nearest b- large c- close d- old
13- I like to ---------- songs, when I'm taking my breakfast.
a-Record b- listen c-sing d-have
14- She insists to ---------- her speech, though no body listen to her..
a-complete b-neglect c-continued d-finished
15- Workers should be careful to _____ fires in the store.
a. conduct b. prevent c. produce conduct d. cause
16-This insect is very invisible----------.
a-cannot be touched b-. Cannot be seen c- can be heard d- cannot be moved
17-Helen works as secretary. She --------- is late for work.
a- always b- seldom c- almost d- frequently
18- Sura failed the French test four times, but she studied hard and _____ she passed.
a- finally b- because c- automatically d- until
19- What is the main --------- for the crisis?
a- reason b- effort c- effect d- result
20- Everyone needs _____ some sports for our good health.
a- practicing b- sufficient c- excessive d- having
21- The child doesn't seem well. He must be _____ a cold.
a- sharing b- taking c- getting d- causing
22- All the travellers in the boat were killed .Only one little girl _____ the accident.
a- saved b- survived c- stayed d- lived
23- All kinds of vegetables _____ energy for the body.
a- assist b- increase c- reduce d- provide
24- Many experts are eager to test ---------- new experiment.
a- on b- up c-in d-out
25-Peter cant --------- the drawn people, because he isn't a good swimmer.
a- Keep b- save c-see d-prevent

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Using Awareness Raising in Syntactic and Semantic Errors to Foster Translation Performance among Majmaah University EFL Students

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Abstract
The present study aimed at developing English as a foreign language (EFL) college students' translation performance through raising their awareness of related syntactic and semantic errors. During the pilot study, the researcher analyzed fifty translated passages from students' assignments. The aim of this systematic analysis was necessary to build a list of their most frequent errors. Besides, a checklist was used to determine students' level of awareness of these errors. As a result, a program based on some metacognitive strategies was developed to raise students' awareness of syntactic and semantic errors to improve their translation performance. Metacognition awareness went through five stages of preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion. Students worked together in the process of translation to translate the given passages. They worked in pairs to proofread their translation by identifying their errors, correcting them, and finally editing their final copy. A pre-post translation test was developed to assess students' translation performance. Data obtained from the test was dealt statistically with SPSS software. The results indicated improvement in students' translation performance.

Key words: error analysis, metacognition awareness raising, metacognitive strategies, syntactic and semantic awareness, translation performance

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Introduction

Achieving Saudi Arabia's vision 2030 requires a flourishing economy that, in turn needs an education system aligned with the market needs. The English language as a medium language between cultures can contribute to the success of this vision (Alzahrani, 2017). Therefore, to meet the requirements of this vision, more focus is needed to promote English language teaching, and learning in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), in general, and to develop translation skills, in particular. This focus is necessary because translation plays a distinguished role in exchanging information between languages. It enables people to correspond ideas and culture regardless of their different languages. It enhances global interaction and mutual relationships in various fields such as the economy, technology, trade, culture, and education.

Translation into English enables learners to use their linguistic competence in producing target text. It reflects their competency in foreign languages. So, it can be used as a method for assessing English language learners' linguistic and communicative knowledge. Due to its importance, translation as a course is taught at the university level in language departments all over the world. It is a course that is incorporated in almost all study plans in colleges of education in KSA. In spite of its importance, translation is a complicated process. It requires a thorough knowledge of the source, and the target language such as their syntactic, semantic, and pragmatic features (Zengin, & Kacar, 2011). The process of translation incorporates problem-solving procedures because students face some problems during interpreting, decoding, and using equivalents in the target language. Translation can begin with challenges, for example, diction, grammar, construction and, cultural habits. Differences between languages in translation motivate students to solve semantics, syntactic or pragmatic problems (Yingxue, 2013). That is to say, in the process of translation, students can face some barriers or difficulties and problems. Such problems could result in frequent errors in translation in the word level, sentence level, and the whole textual levels (Kásroly, 2012). Some researchers suggest teaching students some translation strategies to facilitate their process of translation (Aly, 2004; Abd-Elshaheed, 2012; Nasr El-Din, 2010).

On the other hand, some researchers confirm the importance of conscious –raising in the frequent errors made by foreign language learners to help them correct these inaccuracies. When applied to translation, it results in producing an error-free product. To achieve this competency and proficiency in translation, researchers have studied and analyzed the causes of errors made by second or foreign learners due to the complexity or difficulties in the source or the target language. For example, (Studies of Adrienn, 2012; Al Karazoun, 2016; Na, 2005; Zaho, 2013). It is suggested to raise students' awareness of their errors to avoid them.

Among the suggested methods of awareness raising in aspects of language learning is the use of metacognitive strategies in language learning. Metacognition consists of the learners' understanding of their knowledge, and thinking processes. It also includes their ability to regulate their learning (Chamot, 2007). Metacognition strategies have aspects of awareness raising, namely executive management strategies, which can be achieved using some metacognitive strategies such as planning and organization, self-monitoring, and self-evaluation (Hartman, 2001a). Researchers confirm that teaching student these strategies result in better performance and achievements in their learning. In the field of translation, Studies of Echeverri (2015) and Yanqun (2015) conclude that metacognitive strategies improve students' translation competencies and performance.

Some researchers emphasize the importance of applying the metacognitive approach to error analysis that postulates consciousness-raising, awareness of error source and adopting an active approach to error correction (Hernández, 2001; O'Brien, 2015; Schraw, 2001; Umale, 2011). Applied to translation, metacognition monitoring and regulating one's errors in syntactic and semantic can lead to improvement in their translation (Abbasi & Karimnia, 2014; Prior, Kroll & Macwhinney, 2013; Utomo, 2016).

1. Research problem and hypotheses

Success in the translation course is one of the requirements for graduation from the English language department in Zulfi College of education, Majmaah University. Among the objectives of this course is to enable the students to produce error-free copies of translation on the word level, sentence level, and textual level. The pilot study results revealed that the students had frequent syntactic and semantic errors in translation. Moreover, they suffered from a lack of awareness of these errors (see the section of results for more details). Therefore, the present study tried to teach the students some metacognitive strategies to help them identify their frequent semantic and syntactic errors in translation and then providing them with feedback to raise their awareness of these errors. These procedures were necessary to help them self-correct their errors and thus develop their translation performance. To achieve this goal, students worked together in the process of translation in class and then completed their work via Google apps to proofread and edit their translation assignments. Hence, the study proposes the following hypotheses:

1. There are statistically significant differences between the means of the pretest and the post-test in translation performance in favor of the latter.
2. There are statistically significant differences between the means of the pretest and the post-test on syntactic features in translation performance in favor of the latter.
3. There are statistically significant differences between the means of the pretest and the post-test on semantic features in translation performance in favor of the latter.

2. Literature review

4.1 Teaching Translation

Translation is not only seen as a tool to develop foreign language competence and skills but also as a valuable and applied skill. Having translation skills can enhance learners' level in the language. Many theorists and educators agree on the importance of using translation activities in foreign language learning since it has beneficial effects to increase vocabulary knowledge, to develop writing performance and to enhance thinking skills (Károly, 2014; Mateo, 2015).

Due to its importance, translation pedagogy has been a subject of interest on behaves of researchers. Traditionally, translation pedagogy has been both prescriptive and product-oriented. Recently, researchers have proven that the best way to improve learners' translation performance is by recognizing how they produced the target text, i.e., by understanding the translation process. This tendency is referred to as the process-oriented translation approach. This approach is learner-centered and needs-based. It includes problem-solving methodologies involving a collaborative approach between teachers and learners or among learners themselves (Fox, 2000; Shreve, 2011).

"The translation process encompasses the thought process that is intended to solve a problem or make a relevant correction to change the source text to the target text" (Hansen, 2003, P. 26). Translation involves different types of problems. These problems are mainly linguistic ones, i.e., syntactical or grammatical, lexical or semantical and phonological (Enani, 2001; Teleiba, 2004) and pragmatic or cultural (DiFranco, 2000; Ghazala, 2012; Robinson, 2003). Consequently, they are the principal sources of difficulties and errors in the translation process.

4.2 Difficulties, problems and errors in translation

Some of the students' difficulty to translate may result from obstacles in the translation process itself. Among these obstacles are lack of comprehension of the text and shortage of available resources to look up for vocabularies, and new expressions and idioms; besides, the inability to identify their problems in translation and find possible compensation strategies, or difficulties in the production of the target language e.g. finding appropriate vocabularies, idioms, structures, grammar or equivalent cultural substitutions. All these elements result in multidimensional errors in translation (Debboune & Tebib, 2010; Solano-Flores, et al., 2009).

Analyzing errors enables teachers to understand the thinking process that the student is utilizing. Recognizing the reasons and sources for errors help teachers to focus on these aspects, and if the students are aware of them, they are introduced to the concept of metacognition. Syntactic awareness means the ability to understand the grammatical structures of language within sentences. If students are unaware of these grammatical structures and their correct use within sentences, they are likely to have errors in the writings. Therefore, it is necessary to teach the students to rectify some of the fossilized grammatical or syntactical errors (O'Brien, 2015). Syntactic awareness in translation results in producing an accepted translation in the target language. Semantic awareness means being aware of the potential and appropriate meaning along with its implication in a given context. Semantically, a single word can have more than one meaning. Errors in translating a meaning may result from uncertainty in synonymy, polysemy, homography, homophony, and homonymy and morphological ambiguity (Prior, et al., 2013).

Errors are significant in three ways as they tell the teacher what needs to be emphasized, how language learning progresses, and what prerequisites have to be achieved (James, 2013). Therefore, some previous studies in translation have been conducted in this respect. For instance, Na (2005) identifies the errors in the translation of topic-comment structures.. Adrienn (2012) reveals the recurring patterns of lexical, syntactic and textual errors in translations from English into Hungarian. Zaho (2013) investigates the reasons behind some errors in students English-Chinese translation by analyzing their mistakes in idiomatic usage, and the lack of knowledge in the cultural background. Ardeshiri and Zarafshan (2014) found that understanding the pragmatic aspects was the most frequent problem in translating from English into Persian. Al Karazoun (2016) concludes that linguistic errors of EFL students in translation are grammatical, discourse and lexical ones. Utomo (2016) classifies students' grammatical translation errors as those of omission, addition, selection, and ordering. Wongranu (2017) reports that students have syntactical and semantic errors in translation. All these studies agree on the importance of identifying the reasons behind students' errors in translation. They suggest teaching foreign learners some strategies or techniques to correct their errors. Moreover, it is recommended to raise students' awareness of their frequent errors in translation to avoid such types of errors.

Errors in translation can be successfully addressed by different strategies that can be used to solve various problems. Thus, translation strategies can be defined as potentially conscious plans for solving the translation problem. They can be forms of explicitly textual manipulation. For Chesterman (2016), they describe text-linguistic behaviors. They refer to the operation that a translator carries out during the formulation of the target text. They should be goal-oriented and problem-centered as well. In the translation process, some texts are translated without any problems and others that need application of strategies (Dimitrova, 2005). Munday (2016) outlines a taxonomy of translation strategies which includes comprehension, production, training, problem-solving, survival strategies and metacognitive strategies. Metacognitive strategies develop students' metacognition about translation and are used to overcome translation errors.

4.3 Translation and metacognition

Two types of metacognition are executive management strategies such as planning, monitoring and evaluation, and strategic declarative, contextual and procedural knowledge about their use (Hartman, 2001b). Metacognition includes aspects of awareness raising that can be achieved through the use of some metacognitive strategies such as self-monitoring, self-evaluation, planning and organization, and self-regulation (Chamot & Robbins, 2006; Crawford Saul, Mathews, & Makinster, 2005). Teaching the students these strategies helps them to be strategic learners. Those learners know how, when and why to use strategies, and are willing to learn much more about other ones. Furthermore, learners who use learning strategies have good achievements in their language learning (Beckman, 2002; Cohen, 2007).

Metacognitive strategies play significant roles in the language learning process since they help students become autonomous and self-regulated learners. As for the translation performance, monitoring and regulating one's errors in syntactic and semantic can lead to improvement in their translation achievement (Ardeshiri & Zarafshan, 2014). Angelone (2010) reports metacognitive strategy use at the textual level, behavioral level (problem recognition and its proposed solution and evaluation) and the locus of translation activity (comprehension, transfer, and production). Echeverri (2015) concludes that metacognition helps the students to become more responsible for their learning and consequently develops their translation performance. The study of Yanqun (2015) proposes a model of metacognition, and the results indicated a development in students' translation competencies by monitoring, regulating, and reflecting on the performance.

Metacognition strategies aim at solving translation problems to enable the students avoids errors in translation. These errors have been the subject of research in the field of applied linguistics and teaching methodology. To develop translation competency, it is necessary to consciously identify related errors and then determine the most appropriate solution for them. These steps are beneficial because the analysis of students' errors has advantages in the process of learning translation (Schaffner & Adab, 2000).

To sum up, this study focused on syntactic and semantic errors in translation. Its aim was raising students' awareness of their errors, i.e., their cause, and their method of correction to develop their translation performance. Translation performance in this study referred to students' ability to produce and transfer an acceptable and equivalent meaning in the target language (TL)with accuracy in selecting appropriate lexicon-grammatical items, words, tenses, linguistic

markers, cohesive devices and, sentence structure and style to achieve a balance between source text (ST) and target text (TT) . These objectives could be achieved by teaching the students some metacognitive strategies in translation. The context of the study utilized Google apps to facilitate students' work in translation. They worked collaboratively in groups through Google Docs to translate, edit and proofread their translation.

3. Methods

5.1 Participants

The participants of the present study were the 4th level (n= 48, Mean age = 18.5 years) female students enrolled at Introduction to Translation course ENG224. In the first semester 1439/1440 H, at the English language department, Zulfi College of Education, Majmaah University, KSA. They almost had the same level of proficiency in English according to their GPA, and their native language is Arabic. All the participants completed 128 credit hours of study in their study plan.

5.2 Research Design

This study adopted one group pre-posttest design.

5.3 Instruments

The instruments of the study included:

5.3.1. *A translation test*

This test aims to measure students' translation performance and their ability to avoid related syntactic and semantic errors. The test is divided into two sections. The first one includes twenty sentences that have syntactic and semantic difficulties from English into Arabic and vice versa. It is assumed that errors may occur because of such difficulties. Its total score is 40 marks. The second section consists of two short passages to translate into the target language. Thirty marks are assigned for each one to make a total out of 60 marks. Thus, the overall score of the test is 100 marks. The sentences and the passages used are from (Enani, 2005a; Ghazala, 2012).

5.3.2 A translation rubric for scoring the translation test.

The rubric measures two aspects of translation performance: the semantic – and syntactic features. The semantic ones are divided into three components: comprehension of the ST, transfer of meaning in the TT, and finding equivalents. The syntactic features include three criteria: sentence structure, grammar & style, and using equivalent lexical and functional categories. The total score of the rubric is 60 scores, 30 marks for each feature with a range of scores from 5 to 0 for every component. The rubric is based on Khanmohammad and Osanloo's Translation Assessment Rubric (2009, pp. 146-149) with some modifications and changes in division and description of items and scores.

5.3.3 The validity and reliability

Specialists in TEFL assigned the validity of the translation test. Some modifications were made according to their suggestions. The test-retest method was estimated to determine the reliability of the test. The correlation between the two applications was (0.79) which is significant at 0.01 level which means that the test is reliable.

The reliability of the translation rubric was measured by using inter-rater reliability. The Pearson correlation between the two scorers was (0.75) which is significant at 0.01level.

5.4 The procedures

A Pilot study was conducted by applying a content analysis of 50 translated texts to identify the most frequent syntactic and semantic errors in translation from Arabic to English and vice versa. As a result, a list of these errors was developed, and then an awareness checklist was applied to check students' awareness of them.

5.4.1 Error analyses

Two raters identified the errors to avoid any bias in counting them. The Pearson correlation coefficient was (r = 0.90) at 0.01 level. Categorization of errors, frequency, percentage, and rank are represented in Table 1.

Table 1 . *Frequency, percentages, and rank of semantic and syntactic errors in translation*

	Errors (Category)	**Frequency**	**Percentage**	**Rank**
Syntactic errors				
	Sentence structure errors	109	%26.1	1
	Word order errors	80	%19.2	2
	Fragments and runs-on	73	%17.5	3
	Errors in translating participles, adjectives, and adverbs	42	%10.1	4
	Prepositional phrase errors	40	%9.6	5
	Errors in translating conditional sentences	38	%9.1	6
	Errors in translating tenses and passive voice	35	%8.4	7
	Total No. of errors	417		
Semantic errors	Direct translation from L1	145	%23.5	1
	Errors in Collocation choice	90	%14.6	2
	Errors in translating metaphors and expressions	87	%14.1	3
	Confused use of synonymy, polysemy, and monosemy.	70	%11.4	4
	Errors in the word choice in the TL	65	%10.6	5
	Misselection of prefixes and suffixes	60	%9.7	6
	wordy sentences	55	%8.9	7
	Borrowing and coinage	44	%7.1	8
	Total No. of errors	616		

Table 1 presents the most common errors in translation. They include seven syntactical errors and eight semantic ones. As for syntactic errors, the most frequent one is sentence structure errors (26.1%). The rank shows the descending order of all of them. The majority of the students have semantic errors in direct translation from Arabic, collocation choice, translating metaphors and expressions, use of synonymy, polysemy, and monosemy, word choice, selection of prefixes and suffixes in the TL, wordy sentences, borrowing and coinage with percentages of 14.6, 14.1, 11.4, 10.6, 9.7, 8.9, and 7.1, respectively.

5.4.2 The list of syntactic and semantic errors

The list is based on frequent errors identified by the content analysis of students TT. It consists of fifteen syntactic and semantic errors. It was submitted to specialists in linguistics and TEFL (n= 10) to determine its validity.

5.4.3 A syntactic and semantic error awareness checklist

The checklist aims to determine students' level of awareness in syntactic and semantic errors. It consists of 20 items. The first ten sentences are translated into English, but the other ten ones are translated into Arabic. Each group of sentences is divided equally to include five syntactical errors and five semantic ones. Students were given a score of 3 on each sentence based on their identification of the error, giving a reason for that error, and correcting it. One point was assigned for each one. The total score of the checklist was 60 marks.

Table 2 *Descriptive statistics of the checklist*

Dimensions	No. of participants	No. of items	Min.	Max.	Mean	SD
Total	60	20	14	35	25.43	5.546
Syntactic errors	60	10	8	19	14.39	2.93
Semantic errors	60	10	3	19	11.23	4.17

As shown in Table 2 the checklist was applied to a group of 60 students. The mean score for syntactic error is (14.39), and it is (11.23) for semantic errors. These means are lower than that of the checklist. This result indicates that before the experiment, the students lack awareness of the identified syntactic and semantic errors in translation.

5.4.4 The treatment

The present study lasted for 13 weeks during the first semester of the academic year 2018-2019. Table 3 shows the duration of the treatment. During the first week, the translation pre-test was applied to the study sample. The implementation of the program lasted for ten weeks. The introductory session was conducted in the second week. The third to the seventh weeks covered the syntactical errors in translation. The semantic errors in translation sessions were presented through the eighth to the eleventh weeks. An evaluation session was conducted in the twelfth week. The last week of the treatment was assigned to the post-test.

Table 3.*Framework of the study (duration of the treatment)*

Week (1)	Week (2)	Weeks (3-7)	Weeks (8-11)	Week (12)	Week (13)
Pre-test	Introductory session	Syntactical errors in translation sessions	Semantic errors in translation sessions	Evaluative session	Post-test

5.4.4.1 Program description

An awareness- raising of syntactic and semantic errors in translation program was developed by the author of the study. This remedial program aims to improve students' translation skills by training them in using some metacognitive strategies to raise their awareness of syntactic and semantic errors in translation. The program consisted of ten sessions. Each session went through five stages of metacognitive strategy training to raise students' awareness of syntactic and semantic errors in translation and consequently develop their translation skills. The five stages were preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion. Metacognitive strategies included three components: planning, monitoring, and evaluation.

5.4.4.1.a Before translation

Preparation stage

In this stage, the teacher checked the students' prior knowledge about the related syntactic or semantic rule that might cause an error in translation. This step could be done by presenting some sentences with syntactic or semantic errors and asking the students to detect and explain the reason behind such errors. Finally, the teacher asked them about the strategies they could use to correct these sentences to produce a good translation.

Presentation stage

The teacher introduced two sentences and two version of translation for each one. One was an appropriate translation, and the other contained syntactic or semantic errors in translation. Besides, the teacher explained how and why to use planning, and monitoring strategies. Teacher modeled with thinking –aloud protocol how to detect the errors, explain the reasons for them and how to correct these errors to produce an acceptable translation.

5.4.4.1.b During translation

Practice stage

In this stage, students planed for their translation. First, they used advance organization strategy to skim the sentences or the text to be translated. Then they utilized advance preparation strategy by rehearsing the language needed for translating the given sentences into the target language. Next, students employed selective attention strategy to attend for words, idioms, and linguistic markers needed to perform the translation task.

Finally, students applied production-monitoring strategy by checking and correcting their translation. During this step, they worked in pairs to proofread their translation by identifying their errors, correcting them, and finally editing their final copy of the translation.

5.4.4.1. c After translation

In the evaluation stage

Students used an evaluation checklist to evaluate their translation process and their use of metacognitive strategies. They also wrote a notice about the errors they had done in their translation and how they corrected them. They should understand what the error was, what the reason was for it and how to correct it.

In the expansion stage

Students were given other translation assignments to translate some sentences and short passages collaboratively via Google Docs. Students were asked to comment and write the errors if they found them and correct them in the comment box in Google Docs.

5.4.4.2 Activities and tasks of the program

The translation exercises are adapted from the students' textbook "Translation as problems and solution" by Ghazala (2012). Further exercises are used from "Translation Manual" by Enani (2005a), and "The Science of Translation an introduction, with reference to Arabic-English and English-Arabic translation" by Enani, (2005b).

5 Results

6.2 . *Pre-post translation test results*

To test the first hypothesis, Paired samples t-test was used to analyze the differences between the means of the post-test and the pre-test on the translation test. Results are shown in Table 4. Hypothesis one "There are statistically significant differences between the means of the pretest and the post-test in translation performance in favor of the latter."

Table 4. *Results of T-test between the means of the post-test and the pre-test of overall translation performance in the translation test*

Test	N	Means	S.D	T-value	DF	Sig*.
Pre-test	48	44.64	10.45	16.59	47	0.00
Post-test	48	59.85	7.50			

Note. *P < 0.01

As shown in table 4, it is obvious that the mean of the post-test (59.85) is higher than that of the pre-test (44.64) where T-value is (16.59) which is significant a 0.01.

Paired samples t-test was conducted to test the second hypothesis. Results are shown in Table 5. Hypothesis two "There are statistically significant differences between the means of the pretest and the post-test on syntactic features in translation performance in favor of the latter."

Table 5. *Results of T-test between the means of the post-test and the pre-test of syntactic features in the translation test*

Test	N	Means	S.D	T-value	DF	Sig*.
Pre-test	48	22.60	4.36	14.45	47	0.00
Post-test	48	28.68	4.30			

Note. *P < 0.01

Results of table 5 reveal that the mean scores of the students in the post-test are higher than that of the pretest, and as a result, the second hypothesis is accepted.

Paired samples t-test was used to test the third hypothesis. Results are presented in Table 6.
Hypothesis three "There are statistically significant differences between the means of the pretest and the post-test on semantic features in translation performance in favor of the latter."
Table 6. *Results of T-test between the means of the post-test and the pre-test of semantic features in the translation test*

Test	N	Means	S.D	T-value	DF	Sig*.
Pre-test	48	22.04	8.45	10.60	47	0.00
Post-test	48	31.16	5.19			

Note. *P < 0.01

Results of Table 6 show that the mean of the post-test is higher than that of the pretest (8.45) on the semantic features of translation. Thus, the third hypothesis is accepted.

6 Discussion

The findings of this study are in line with Angelone (2010) Abbasi and Karimnia (2011) , Al Karazoun, (2016), Echeverri (2015) Yanqun (2015) and Utomo (2016). The results of the posttest affirmed the hypotheses of the study. Identifying and analyzing syntactic and semantic errors in translation helped to focus on the points of weakness and trying to overcome them. The sessions of the proposed program of the study were directed to cover the most frequent errors in translation as identified by the results of the pilot study, Tables 1 & 2. All the errors that were classified in Table 2 could be categorized in a more broad classification of deletion, addition, improper selection, and formation. The same classification was utilized in the study of Utomo (2016). The results of Table 3 showed that the students before the treatment had little awareness of such errors.

Most of the errors were due to the interference between the first and the target language. Other errors were because of the students' insufficient mastery of the target language. In other words, there were two causes of students' errors. First, the intralingual errors those were due to interface between Arabic and English. Second, the interlingual errors that resulted from students' inadequate proficiency level in the target language. This result is supported by the findings of Al-Shormani and Al-Sohbani (2012) and Ngangbam (2016). Similar to the results of Aly (2004), students in this study had more errors in semantics rather than in grammar and sentence structures. On the contrary, the participants in Al Karazoun's research (2016) had more grammatical errors in translation followed by lexical and discourse errors. The findings of Wongranu (2017) showed that the students had more frequent and prominent syntactical errors than semantic ones in translation.

Addressing these errors by raising students' awareness of them helped to improve their translation proficiency and consequently their translation performance. Thus, the first hypothesis is confirmed as indicated in Table 4. This result is consistent with Mateo (2015) who proved the effectiveness of metacognition awareness of the occurrence of calques by studying cross-linguistic differences and similarities between students' native language and the TL in producing an accepted translation. El-banna and Naeem (2016) employed a translation common error remedial program

to help students avoid syntactic, semantic and pragmatic errors in translation from English into Arabic. Other previous studies also have emphasized the importance of error analysis in developing students' translation performance such as Abbasi and Karimni, (2011), Al Karazoun (2016), Utomo (2016) and Wongranu (2017). Thus, when the students become aware of the reasons and sources of their errors and how to correct them, their metacognition awareness is developed (O'Brien, 2015).

Using metacognitive strategies resulted in metacognition awareness raising in syntactic and semantic errors. Before translation, students used advance organization and selective attention strategies. During the translation process, students used production-monitoring strategy. After translation, they used self-evaluation strategy. Therefore, Students' improvement in translation was due to training them to use these strategies during the translation process. In other words, helping the students to use these executive management strategies raised their awareness of their translation errors, and consequently, they avoided them, and then their translation performance improved. Translation performance was reflected in the students' ability to produce and transfer an acceptable and equivalent meaning in the TL with accuracy, to some extent, in the syntactic and semantic levels. This result confirms the second and the third hypotheses of the study as shown in Tables 5 & 6.

Similarly, previous studies affirmed the effectiveness of using metacognitive strategies in improving translation performance. For example, Shreve (2006) pinpointed that expertise in translation is correlated with translators' metacognition. Bergon (2009) proved the role of metacognition in developing translation competence. The exploratory study of Angelone (2010) concluded that successful students used metacognitive strategies during all the levels of translation. The results of Echeverri (2015) and Yanqun (2015) showed that metacognitive strategies improved students' translation performance. On the contrary, the results of the present study are not in line with Shabani-Jadidi (2004) who found no significant differences in pre-post test results on the conscious raising of metacognitive strategies and students' abilities in translation.

The suggested program of this study is learner-centered and needs based. It followed the process approach towards translation that helped the systematic manipulation of students' errors. The sessions of the program went through three stages: before, during, and after translation. Besides, each stage was divided into one or two phases according to Chamot's (2007) model for teaching strategies. These phases were preparation, presentation, practice, evaluation, and expansion. During each phase, the teacher trained the students on using metacognitive strategies to raise their awareness in translation errors to avoid and correct them in their final product of translation. Fox (2000) supported the use of the process approach in translation. The study of Amirian and Baghiat (2013) explained how the translation process is considered a metacognitive activity and they suggested developing metacognitive activities to develop translation among translators. Moreover, using metacognitive models in translation is suggested by the study of Yanqun (2015). Therefore, these studies are compatible with the present study.

The translation process was facilitated through the collaborative work in the stage of editing and proofreading the final product of translation. The program of the present study put into consideration the advantages of web2.0 tools, so students utilized Google Docs to edit their

translation together and to work collaboratively on their assignments. Writing comments and providing feedback on Google Docs helped to promote students' metacognitive awareness of their errors. Cooperative learning has also been found to activate metacognition as reported by the related study of Hernández (2001). In his research, students' awareness of grammatical and lexical errors was raised via Email.

Although the participants' overall performance in translation has improved, some of them still have errors in translation. The explanation of this result is compatible with the study of Shreve (2011) who pinpointed that translation has levels of comprehension, transfer, and production, and so errors can occur at any level of them. On the word level, few errors appeared in spelling or lexical choice. Those students showed errors on the sentence level such as sentence structure and fragments, and punctuation marks. On the paragraph level, the most frequent errors were related to the cohesive device and coordinate conjunctions. Those students had interlingual errors that were related to inadequacies in the target language. Therefore, it is recommended to have remedial programs in writing skills to those students. In translating into Arabic, students confused different forms of plural for two or more objects, especially with feminine and masculine ones. Other students had performance problems and errors in translation that were due to interference between L1 and the target language. Those intralingual errors need more practice to avoid them. This result is consistent with Ngangbam (2016) who concluded that students' syntactical errors were caused by mother-tongue interference. Another reason for their persistence errors was the direct translation from the Arabic language into English. This result supports the findings of Al-Shormani & Al-Sohbani (2012).

7. Conclusions, recommendations, and suggestions

Based on the findings of the study, raising students' awareness of their syntactic and semantic errors in translation resulted in enhancing their translation performance. Besides, developing metacognition awareness about errors developed their translation competencies and performance. Metacognition awareness raising in errors is better achieved through using metacognitive strategies. Enhancing translation performance by raising awareness of related errors went through aspects of metacognition. In the declarative knowledge level, students knew the causes of errors and how to correct them. In the procedural knowledge level, students applied the rules to correct their errors. In the production level, the students produced accepted translation by using executive management strategies. Collaborative work and following the process approach in translation are other causes for improving students' translation skills.

It is suggested for teachers to analyze and identify their students' errors in translation and adjust their methods of teaching accordingly. Teachers should put into consideration the necessity for metacognition awareness raising in syntactic and semantic errors in translation to improve their students' translation performance. Therefore, metacognitive strategies should be integrated into translation courses. It is also recommended to incorporate in translation course books a chapter or more exercises for editing skills, in both the first and the target language, to avoid errors in the transferring and production levels of translation. Translation courses should be learner and needs-based to address learners' needs and improve their translation performance accordingly.

This study was limited to syntactic and semantic errors in translation. Further studies need to study awareness of pragmatic errors and its related effect on translation proficiency. Other studies may suggest programs to raise students' awareness of the differences and similarities between the FL and the TL to overcome calques in translation. It is also suggested to examine whether gender difference may affect students' awareness of translation errors. The effectiveness of syntactic and semantic awareness raising in writing skills or speaking skills can be a further field for other studies. This study can be duplicated with other population to verify the results.

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Refusal as a Social Speech Act among Thai EFL University Students

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Abstract

This paper discusses the commonly realised social speech act of refusal strategies in English among university students in the Southern part of Thailand, in explaining how they say 'no' to request and the effects of this speech act on the hearer's face. Using Discourse Completion Test (DCT) to collect oral data in naturally-occurring situations, together with a qualitative analysis of the transcribed data according to Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) classification scheme of refusal, the study affirms that there are two major common ways of realising refusals to request in English among these students, namely: direct and, overwhelmingly, indirect refusal strategies. The findings also reveal that the last strategy of the classification scheme, adjuncts to refusals, was not found in the data. Similarly, not all the indirect refusal sub-strategies were found in the data. However, two novel sub-strategies: giving advice/explanation, and lack of empathy were found in the analysis. The findings have implications for better socio-cultural communication and interaction in a multicultural university context.

Keyword: Refusal strategies, social speech act, Thai EFL university students

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Introduction

Speech acts or 'social speech acts' are expressions that serve a function in communication, such as apology, request, promising, refusing and greeting (Kasper, 1997; Reinard, 1994). These utterances are seen as essential elements of language which can better understand how human communication is carried out using linguistic behaviour (Austin, 1962; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Tanck, 2003). To be more precise, Tanck (2003, p. 2) opines that 'speakers employ a variety of speech acts to achieve their communicative goals' which include wider seminal speech categories (Searle, 1969) including commissives, declaratives, directives, expressives and representatives, in addition to more specific acts such as apologies, requests, complaints and refusals (Kasper, 1997).

Since culture is regarded as communication, just as communication is culture (Al-Khateeb, 2009), this explains why various cultural and social interactions affect discourse language choices. Put differently, "cultural and contextual factors inextricably play a role in developing various ways of communication in a given speech community" (Ambele, 2014, p. 13). It is recommended that we observe social interaction rules that influence language choices, especially when expressing speech acts that affect human behaviour. To this notion, Sarfo (2011, p. 1) states that "one of such acts which influence human behaviour is refusals". Due to its significance to daily interaction and communication, this social speech act of refusal is very crucial. Speakers can choose either to refuse or accept a request. The speaker may, however, risk offending the listener if the hearer whose request has been refused does not know how a refusal is made in the speaker's culture (Fishman, 1972; Meier, 1995, 1997; Richard & Schmidt, 1983). The research therefore aims, because of its importance, to explore the frequently used cultural-specific direct and indirect refusal strategy (among Thai university learners in Thailand). It also tries to study the connection between the message transmitted and its affect / emotional impacts on the hearer. In order to achieve this, the classification scheme of refusal approach by Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990) has been implemented.

Refusal Study and Its Place in Thailand

Searle (1969) defines the speech act of refusal as the negative counterparts to acceptance and consenting. Refusals are face-threatening (Barron, 2007; Brown & Levinson, 1986) as we refuse because of complex personal (Chen, Ye & Zhang, 1995) reason like gender, juniority, education, power and hierarchy (Ambele, 2014; Fraser 1990; Gass & Houck, 1999; Sarfo, 2011; Smith 1998). They are also often negotiated over several turns and involve some degree of directness and indirectness, usually depending on the status and age of the interlocutors and the cultural contexts (Sarfo, 2011). It seems, of course, that speakers have a challenge to be able to dismiss their requests. Refusing to accept request or saying ' no ' not only involves linguistic understanding, but also pragmatic understanding. It is more difficult in Thailand, because of its cultural diversity, to refuse requests. This is because each culture communicates rejection policies in a distinct way, as Al Kahtani (2005) has shown, who indicates that individuals from distinct cultural backgrounds reject the same language code (English). Differences like these could result in misunderstanding or pragmatic failure when people from different cultures need to interact with each other and one could risk offending the listener who might have had another cultural orientation (Sadler & Eröz, 2001). The speaker must therefore understand the suitable type of refusal to use, its function and the time when it should be used, according to ethnicity and cultural-linguistic values.

Although culturally universal, it is hard to correctly use refusals in English, whether by native speakers or by foreign language students (Ilmiani, Wijayanto, & Hikmat, 2016). It could be misleading to deploy inappropriately, ruining the mood of the parties involved in the interaction. This communication breakdown, often triggered by the transcultural expectation of linguistic selection, perception, hierarchical differentiation, rights, obligations etc. is called "sociopragmatic failure" (Thomas, 1984, p. 226). When a person is perceived to have committed a linguistic error, it is easy to ignore the act because of the poor language skills of the speaker. However, the speaker could be perceived as rude or disrespectful if the act is perceived as a sociopragmatic error.

Many studies suggested various approaches for refusal (eg, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984; Campillo, 2009; Kwon, 2004). However, the strategies suggested by Beebe et al. (1990), which offer the means of refusal speech-acts, of invitations, offers and suggestions, are acknowledged as the most advanced (Ilmiani, Wijayanto, & Hikmat, 2016).

It was also commonly used and adapted to study refusals in distinct languages between native and non-native speakers (Al-Shboul, Gol, 2013; Maros, & Mohd Yasin, 2014; Sahin, 2011; Sahragrad & Javanmardi, 2011; Wannaruk, 2008; Wijayanto, 2011). In particular, Bebee et al. (1990) states that the refusal strategies are widely divided into two groups: direct and indirect refusal strategies, replaced with communicative supplementation indicating an unambiguous decline without uttering “I decline”. For Bebee et. al (1990), formulaic expressions of refusals consist either of a performative refusal (e.g., "I refuse"), or of a non-performative refusal (e.g. “I can’t”, “I don’t think so”, “No”). With respect to indirect refusal approaches, Bebee et al. (1990) suggest most popular, but not restricted, indirect refusal strategy as (*I'm sorry.../I feel terrible...*), wish (*I wish I could help you...*), excuse, reason, explanation (*My children will be home tonight*), and proposing alternatives (e.g. *“I can do X instead of Y”, “I’d prefer …”, “Why don’t you ask someone else?”*), set conditions for future acceptance (e.g. *“if I am not busy, I will…”*), and make a promise of future acceptance (e.g. *“I’ll do it next time.”*). The difference between direct and indirect refusal is important because refusal is confronted with threatening acts which need to be mitigated with different communicative strategies (Ambele, 2014; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 1984; Gass & Houck 1999). Knowledge is often required of culture-specific social interaction standards in order to express strategies of direct and indirect refusal appropriately. As stated above, the function of various rejection strategies is to reassure the hearer that he is still approved and thus mitigate the threat to the positive face of the hearer. The speaker can use multiple negotiations approaches to minimize the danger of causing an offense, such as the offer of an option, besides providing a decent sufficient reason for refusal.

Apparently, many scholars have researched on the phenomena of pragmatic transfers in refusals (e.g., Al-Shboul, Maros, & Mohd Yasin, 2014; Amarien, 2008; Gol, 2013; Henstock, 2003; Kwon, 2003; Nelson, Carson, Al Batal & El Bakary, 2002; Sahin, 2011; Sahragrad & Javanmardi, 2011; Umale, 2008; Wannaruk, 2008; Wijayanto, 2011; Yamagasira, 2001). With regards to English as a foreign language (EFL) learners in particular have been studied based on how distinct cultural groups use refusal in several socio-pragmatic research in English as either native, second or foreign language (Al-Issa, 2003; Chen, 1996; Chen et al, 1995; Félix-Brasdefer, 2006; Garcia, 1996; Ikoma & Shimura,1993; Kanemoto, 1993; Laohaburanakit, 1995; Liao & Bresnahan, 1996; Moriyama, 1990; Nelson et al, 2002; Shimura, 1995; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987; Ueda, 1974;

Sadler & ErÖz, 2001). The studies show that learners' L2 speech performances were significantly influenced by refusal strategies (Byon 2004; Hassall 2003; Huth 2006). For instance, Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990) demonstrate two ideas about Japanese English students and their pragmatic refusal transfers that suggest that the refusal generated in Japanese or Japanese-made English 1) appeared significantly less direct than that of American learners ; and 2) were affected by the social status of interlocutors indicating the connection between cultural consciousness and changes in communication.

The notion of refusal as a social speech act or saying ' no ' in Thai English discourses, especially among Thai university learners, was under-investigated when looking back to Thailand where this survey was performed. Wannaruk (2008) notes that Thai English students deploy three refusal strategies: 1) regret sentences, particularly with interlocutors of higher status; 2) future acceptance with people of lower status; and 3) Soft-spoken statements and modest explanations. The approaches reflected three pragmatic transfers from Thai cultural context in corresponding orders: i) softening refusals; ii) maintaining beneficial relationships with subordinates; and iii) showing humility. Moreover, after examining 1) the Thai and English speech acts of apology; and 2) the pragmatic English approaches of Thai undergraduates, Thijittang (2010) discovers that a) there are more methods of apology in English than in Thai; and b) sociolinguistic influences: social class, hierarchical differentiation and severity of offense are key variables in apology. While this study aims to examine refusals, Thijittang (2010) aims to explore apologies. While it was not a direct comparison, it was relatively relevant to the Thai context. Therefore, since most of the previous studies are based on their exploration outside of Thailand, it is a novel area to investigate the different ways in which these students realize refusal in English and their emotional effects on the hearer when interacting with interlocutors with different cultural norms and values. Subsequently, this empirical study will become crucial to the awareness of communication and the rightful realization of this speech act, which is usually considered face-threatening. It will enable participants in the discourse (students) to have a better social operation, thus enhancing intercultural and interethnic communication among Thai university students.

Research Methodology

The current research explores the strategies used by Thai university learners to study English, particularly in the southern part of Thailand, by stating' no' to request. The information collection technique adopted for this research was Discourse Completion Test (DCT) (Blum-Kulka (1982). It is important to point out here that this is the most common technique of obtaining information in the speech act of refusal studies in a single language or culture, rather than cross-cultural research (Hahn, 2006; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Nittono, 2003). This is because it is very accurate because it represents what speakers actually say in a specified speech case rather than what they believe they would say (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993). Data was gathered by observing and participating in speeches at Thai universities where speakers (students) use this act of refusal in a natural condition in English to say' no' to request.

The information were analyzed qualitatively using analytical frameworks at the discourse level to gain a clearer knowledge of how (frequently) Thai university learners negotiate refusals. To start with, all recorded information were transcribed according to Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990)'s suggested classification system. Regardless of the relationship between the refuser

and the refusee, such as status, age, education, gender, jobs and ethnic-cultural background, the refusal strategies were recorded as observed. This was undertaken to be informed of learners and speakers ' frequently used refusal strategies, knowing when and what strategy to use depending on how they want the listener to feel. According to this system, in relation to adjuncts to refusals, refusal strategies are categorized into direct and indirect refusals. The classification scheme is applicable to our dataset as exemplified in the next section.

Findings and Discussion

In order to analyze the information gathered, Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990) Classification Scheme of Refusal Strategies were adopted. Although old, this classification scheme is still applicable to present studies into refusal. It relates to the refusal coding system proposed by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) in their research of refusals in Japanese, English, and Japanese English learners ' speech. Their classification scheme comprises of three primary classifications: direct refusals, indirect refusals, and adjuncts to refusals. However, it is worth noting here that only two of the primary methods (direct refusals and indirect refusals) were identified from the information gathered and analyzed. In this research, the speakers did not use the last approach (adjuncts to refusals). The salient refusal strategies observed in the analysis will be outlined in the following parts with examples from the data.

4.1 Direct Refusals

This is Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz's (1990) first major refusal strategy directed at direct or direct behavior. There are two "Performative" and "Non-performative" kinds of direct refusals. The direct performative refusal refers to the use of the expression of actual or definite refusal (*e.g. I refuse*). Without any redressive face action, this strategy is a direct way to say things. Here, the speakers intentionally used face-threatening phrases in a straightforward, clear and concise way to allow the hearer to comprehend his / her point of view (of' no') on the request. The impact of this sort of direct refusal speech acting on the emotion of the hearer is that it makes the hearer feel ashamed, scorned, disrespected and humiliated, whether in private or public areas. On the other side, non-performative direct refusal strategy also has two kinds: flat' no' which has the same mental impact as performative direct refusal on the hearer and adverse readiness or capacity without the word' no'. Although still a face-threatening act, non-performative direct refusal strategy of negative willingness or ability is a bit soft and the hearer does not really feel hurt and humiliated as the direct performative. It should be observed that in these universities, the use of direct refusal strategy among learners was not as prevalent as in the event of indirect refusal strategies. This is corroborated by Chen et al (1995) reporting that, regardless of their backgrounds, Americans and Japanese often do not immediately refuse. It also coincides with Ikoma and Shimura (1993) results. They believe that because of its face-threatening nature, it is not prevalent. Direct refusals can be referred to as refusing strongly (Ambele, 2014; De Devitiis et al, 1989). It involves what Brown and Levinson (1983, p. 33) referred to as “bald on-record”. From the data analysed, four types of direct refusals were identified. They include: (a) the direct performative *(e.g. ‘I refuse’, ‘I decline’)*; (b) definite or actual ‘no’ without any other expression *(e.g. ‘No, no, no)*; (c) negative expressions without the word ‘no’ *(e.g. ‘I can’t’, ‘I won’t, ‘impossible’);* and (d) definite ‘no’ but with some other expressions *(e.g. ‘I don’t need anything from you’, sorry, I can’t accept it’, ‘it’s impossible to accept’).*

4.2 Indirect Refusals

Indirect refusals refer to speech acting methods that speakers use to minimize or soften the illocutionary force of their refusals to save or maintain the favorable face of the listener (Ambele, 2014; Brown & Levinson, 1987). Indeed, it has been discovered that this indirect strategy is used more often than the direct ones (Al-Issa, 1998; Carson, Al Batal & El Bakary, 2002; Nelson, Stevens, 1993). The effect of this strategy on the hearer's emotion is based on their observation that he / she really feels appreciated, loved and happy even when his / her request cannot be granted. Below are discussed the outstanding sub-strategies of this key strategy.

Apologising, giving excuses and postponement

Within this category, the students of the Thai EFL begin by apologizing for their failure to grant the request of the hearer, a finding that supports related research (Al-Issa, 1998; Al-Shalawi, 1997). Here are some instances of how the sub-strategy of apology was used from the data:

- *Unfortunately, I'm too busy now to go home with you.*
- *I'm sorry, my parents didn't tell me to hang around with friends.*
- *Sorry, I can't always be begging on your behalf.*

The learners would offer an excuse as another strategy to soften the rejection closely related to apologizing. It was used to decrease the refusal's illocutionary power by communicating to the hearer that if not for some reason or excuse, the speaker would acknowledge it. Such excuses can be made in detail while others can be made in a vague way. This problem is particularly crucial because in certain cultures such as Japanese (Beebe et al., 1990) and Arabic (Al-Issa, 1998; Al-Shalawi, 1997), as well as Thai (our emphasis), speakers tend to offer vague reasons and excuses when refusing to do so. Speakers, however, tend to be more particular in American society. Data examples demonstrate this:

- *My mom is very sick and is in the hospital.*
- *I really have to be somewhere after work.*
- *I'm really busy now studying.*
- *I forgot the notes at home.*

From apologizing to providing an excuse and later postponing why they refuse to do so. While stating no to someone's request seems to leave that individual bitter and dissatisfied, nevertheless the strategic and linked use of apologizing, giving the students an excuse and future assistance in their discourses is quite interesting.

This sub-strategy was operationalized by Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz's (1990) and Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990) as an avoidance approach used by speakers to divert their listeners' attention from the illocutionary force of their refusals. It seeks to minimize the danger to the favorable face of the interlocutor. It is essential to note, however, that this approach is comparable to, but also distinct from, the promise strategy of future recognition. In postponement, the participant postpones its decision to comply with the request or accepts the offer in the future to some extent (Morkus, 2009). The following examples show this:

- *Can I talk with my mom and sister and get back to you?*
- *I have to think about it.*
- *I'll get back to you next week.*
- *Let me check with her first and hear what she thinks and get back to you.*
- *I have to talk with my roommate before you can come live with us.*
- *Could you give me time to think about it?*
- *But, I'll have to see, I can't give you an answer about this now.*
- *Let's think about it, maybe we can do it another time.*
- *I could do it, um, another time, it's tough now.*
- *I will consider it.*

Giving alternative option

Again, this seems to be another strategy most frequently used to realize the refusal speech act. This strategy is the attempt by the speaker to negotiate the request to minimize the threat to the positive face of the hearer. The objective of the speaker here is to soften the negative's illocutionary force by providing other alternatives to the interlocutor. Beebe et al. (1990) suggests two kinds of this sub-strategy: 1) I can do X instead of Y, and 2) Why are you not doing X instead of Y? (Morkus, 2009, p. 3,). This difference is not provided in the current research, however, as in the following examples:

- *Isn't there someone else you can take the notes from?*
- *You can read the text books from the library and make your own notes.*
- *Can I call you tomorrow and we talk about it over the phone?*
- *After lecture study, we can meet.*
- *I'd be willing to work an extra three hours on a different day.*

Setting conditions for acceptance while giving advice or explanation

In this strategy, the speaker sets conditions for accepting the request while, at the same time, providing advice or explaining something related to his / her request to the listener. It is a new trategy that Morkus (2009) discovered and has not been reported in another research after him. This is what makes this strategy interesting. This sub-strategy shows: 1) if the situation were different, the speaker would be willing to comply, 2) distracting the listener from the impact of the refusal and minimizing the threat to the face of the hearer. In both situations, the speaker assumes a position of someone who feels he / she is entitled to give advice to the hearer or to explain something to him / her about the request. In other refusal surveys such as the' chiding' or' reprimand' (Al-Issa, 1998), similar techniques have been discovered (Stevens 1993). However, because the present research did not concentrate on understanding the participant's intention and whether the interlocutor is providing genuine advice or chiding or reprimanding him / her, Morkus' (2009) definition of this sub-strategy was adopted in this research. This is clarified by the following examples from the data:

- *If you had told me before, it would have been possible, you have to attend classes so that you would be a good person in your life.*
- *If it was yesterday, that would have been possible, at some point, you've got to start copying notes for yourself.*

- *Maybe, if you had let me know beforehand, I would have done something, you have to always attend lectures. I mean, time spent at the university is important, yes, if you don't experience education for yourself, then you've missed a lot. You should try to go to class everyday.*

Lack of empathy

This is the final sub-strategy which has not been discovered in the Egyptian Arabic research of Morkus in 1999. This strategy was not discovered in Beebe et al. (1990). This is interesting as speakers used it to demonstrate that they do not care or sympathize with the listener's issue. Instead of mitigating the illocutionary act of refusal, this strategy aggravates and threatens the positive face of the hearer as it shows that the speaker does not express solidarity with the hearer and does not show that his / her needs and desires are also the hearer. The following are some examples from the data:

- *I have a problem too*
- *That's not my problem.*
- *But I have problems with my girlfriends too.*
- *That's not my fault.*
- *We all, always have problems.*
- *And this is not my problem.*

The following sub-strategies were the most outstanding reported in the data. However, other sub-strategies were also noted in the data, but not so frequently used. They include I the willingness of the speaker to assist his or her hearer but at the same moment his or her failure (wish) to do so; (ii) request the hearer's consideration and comprehension that the speaker cannot comply (consideration of understanding) with the request; (iii) remind the hearer that the speaker is doing his / her utmost and that his / her rejection should not diminish that fact (try to dissuade the hearer).

Conclusion and Implications

This finding favors Al-Kahtani's stance (2005), which states that various cultures take a difference in the expression of refusal. This research examines how Thai EFL university learners in Thailand often say' no.' The impacts of the refusal act on the face of the hearer are also discussed. The influence of age nor any other socio-economic factors in determining the linguistic choice of refusals among these EFL students were not considered in this study. The study shows only two main strategies for refusal (direct refusal, indirect refusal and adjunct refusal): direct and overwhelmingly indirect refusal. The data show that only two have been apparent. That demonstrates that the research only partially confirmed that of Beebe, Uliss-Weltz and Takahashi (1990). Four kinds of direct refusals have also been recognized. These include: (a) direct performative; (b) definitive or real' no' in the absence of any other phrase; (c) adverse phrases with no phrase, and (d) specific' no,' but some other phrases. The result of these strategies in the presence of the listener, whether private or public, is that the listener feels embarrassed, under-respected and humiliated.

In the study, these learners used rejection strategies to reject requests. The two new strategies that were not recorded in Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) refusal classification systems implemented by students in this study are the establishment of conditions for explanation (4.2.3)

and the lack of empathy (4.2.4). The implication of this strategy on the face of the hearer is that he / she really feels appreciated, loved and happy, even if he / she cannot be granted the request. The Thai learners choose not to risk their interpersonal connection or to threaten their interlocutor's face. The speech refusal act is seen as an "a significant intercultural stinking point of ESL / EFL learners'," which could lead to an unintended crime and communication breakdown, according to Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliß-Weltz (1990).

All in all, they seem to mean that distinct cultures, based on their own contextual experiences, have a very special and distinctive way of stating no in English. In this way, it would seem that our learners are ideally compromised to equip our learners with intercultural abilities, understanding and expertise to become interculturally conscious and skilled, in order to safeguard their interlocutors ' favorable face when they say no to their demands. This has some consequences for educating ESL / EFL learners. Within its socio-cultural context, the findings here can contribute to communicative action studies. Previous research suggested the need to teach L2 pragmatics to develop the lexical and grammatical pragmatic knowledge of the student. The findings suggest that foreign language teaching may not promote the students' metalinguistic awareness without this pragmatic focus. Lastly, this study supports the view that, through proper planning of classroom activities, pragmatic ability can actually and indeed be systematically developed.

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Teaching to Test or Communicate

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Abstract
This study addresses the controversial question of which is more effective; teaching to the test, or teaching to communicate. It also highlights the viewpoints of some scholars about tests in different regions of the world; the Middle East and the West. The content of the research embedded in this article shows that there are a number of teachers who still believe in teaching to test following the traditional method, while some others think tests -especially in the elementary phase- cause anxiety, chaos and disappointment, and should be ruled out as a means of assessing students. In the Arab World, tests are still considered the main criterion by which students prove eligible to move to upper classes and get admitted to university programs. To provide the readers with a more concrete grasp of the discussed viewpoints, a questionnaire has been distributed among sixty-five male and female students taking English courses in the Foundation Program at Ibri College of Applied Sciences- the Sultanate of Oman. The results, implications, and applications will be discussed throughout this article while tackling the two major controversial issues: teaching to test or communicate.
Keywords: administration, anxiety, cloze test, communicative approach, curriculum, hinder, impose, old-fashioned, promote, reformation, stimulating

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Introduction

"Testing crushes creativity, narrows the curriculum, doesn't focus on what students actually learned, and leads to unfair evaluation of students, with results that do not predict useful things" (phelan & Phelan, 2013, para.3).

Some decades ago, academic institutions-schools, colleges, and universities- were considered prestigious places, where students and teachers, both, enjoyed and boasted belonging to. Teachers were treated as respectful models and figures in the society. Moreover, they were considered the elite: well-educated, smart, genuine, and -to some extent- played the role of social reformers. Students, on the other hand, were very motivated and industrious.

Students were dedicated, industrious, and hardworking in classrooms, as well as in daily-life activities that depended on skills such as discussion, debates, arguments, and all sorts of communication. This paper highlights a serious, heated and controversial issue: teaching to test, or communicate.

Literature Review

Change and Reformation in an ideal world should lead to good results. They should be viewed as positive signs of a developed and successful society. If a problematic challenge hinders a certain ongoing process of some society, things have to be reconsidered by making some alternations or amendments. One of the most important fields to continuously reconsider is "Education".

The educational system in all countries should constantly be checked, reviewed and be in harmony with the latest technological and revolutionary era. In the past, teaching took place in simple rooms with black boards and white chalk. The syllabus taught was suitable for that time, though lacked technology. Tests, for instance, were written by hand, or by simple typewriters. Nowadays they could be done by utilizing the latest technology, which is a good step on the way of modern innovation in education. Reconsidering the whole educational system includes many fields: materials, methodology, and teachers.

Some teachers feel they are not free enough in performing their jobs in the way they see beneficial and successful, and believe that school administrations play a great role in imposing too many instructions and regulations which, almost always, hinder, rather than facilitate work. On the other side, some teachers feel that they enjoy teaching very much, and have no problems with administrations at all, as they are used to doing whatever they are asked to; pleasing their principals. Should certain criteria be considered upon recruiting teachers?

Some countries do not recruit teachers unless they have a license, and have undergone some tertiary training courses in several areas of teaching, such as evaluation, testing, methodology, etc. Japan, the USA, and the UK, for example, have certain conditions and criteria before recruiting teachers, whereas in some countries teachers don't have to have a license to teach, and as soon as they get their degrees, they stand in the queue for a variety of jobs, including teaching, and -sometimes- with no interviews. These criteria are behind high-caliber, or low-level teachers.

Low-level teachers normally lack educational training in areas related to their careers. They seem -on the surface- dedicated in classrooms, and what they care about much is assuming control of the class, and finishing the material on time, otherwise, they might be accused -by their principals- of wasting time on trivial things throughout the semester, not on teaching. In this case, in order to protect themselves and be in a good shape, they do not think of any innovative ways or activities to teach outside the prescribed curriculum :giving students the opportunity to take part in class discussions, whether in pairs or groups or conducting debates to discuss some issues related to the topic in hand: local or international. What might be said is that education will never get promoted as long as old-fashioned hands resist development and modernization.

Some old-fashioned administrations consider group work in classrooms a waste of time, or dishonesty, or teachers lack assuming control over the class. It is normal to have some noise while having group discussion, but that is really more rewarding and could give students the chance to improve their communication skills in an authentic atmosphere so as to be more capable of coping with the world after school. Teachers who are comfortable to work under old-fashioned administrations are normally good at designing traditional tests, and believe they are the only way to check students' comprehension. Students, on the other hand, spend a lot of time memorizing material, mainly to pass and/or avoid punishment by the teachers, or principals, or both. Learning by heart does not create brilliant and smart people in the society: it's just parroting.

Schools are supposed to be places where children get knowledge, manners, and principles to hone their personalities. They are expected to be useful members in the society and the leaders of tomorrow. So, by exposing them to dialogues, debates, and discussions they could be placed on the right track that goes hand in hand with education. One possible way of teaching is asking questions.

Questioning, stimulating, and eliciting responses work best in the absence of testing environment. There is not much need for prior knowledge to get new life skills, or a certain amount of education about a certain field; it is carried out by utilizing logical questioning (Taylor, (n.d). para. 18).

Moreover, encouraging argumentative analysis, as well as critiquing, give tremendous results. It should be emphasized that doing is a form of sharing; students should be given the chance to conduct seminars, or small meetings (based mainly on asking questions) to ventilate their talents, knowledge, and thoughts, as thinking is the threshold to success. In this stage, an experienced, more patient and open-minded educator should observe their performance and see the nature of questions, answers, and comments -just in case- to help pave the way for them to become successful and sharp-witted future communicators in the society, not only at school. However, if they are threatened by the ghost of tests, things will differ, and this will put them under pressure and anxiety. Teaching in a passive environment normally creates unmotivated students and teachers, as well.

To be fair enough, some teachers are so ambitious and do believe in change, innovation, exploration, re-creation, but they face concrete walls of refusal from their stubborn direct administrations. What about giving teachers more freedom in classrooms?

By freeing teachers, and making students more secure, the evil of tests decreases, or even vanishes. Security leads to exploration, innovation, critical reflection, and more vivid and fruitful participation in open debates. In order to get more healthy educational institutions, the whole educational system should be re-considered, re-judged, and fully customized. Tests will have the priority to be re-judged when it comes to reconsidering the educational process.

The researchers are not utterly against conducting tests; on the contrary, they-tests- may be of great benefit and importance, as are considered among some other criteria to evaluate students' performance, bearing in mind they should be designed in a way to check how well students have acquired throughout the past period of time, and be considered as a guide for future design of courses and curricula.

Good tests provide valuable information and they can and should guide us in designing our courses and our curriculums. When learning goals are clearly defined and reliable assessments are aligned with them, "teaching to the test" is not only good, it is exactly what we should be doing" (Phelan & Phelan, 2013).

Moreover, tests should be valid and reliable. In case some academic problems arise, there should be someone to question, consult, or blame.

In fact some instructors, especially in higher education, bear some of the blame. They seldom enroll in regular and ongoing assessment training courses. What they do is just personal tries. They should work harder on the tests they write for their students; revised, and checked well before approval. Moreover, they should seek the help of more experienced senior colleagues in the same department, as students' benefit is the ultimate priority. President Obama has a viewpoint about school structure.

In the light of some decline in the educational sector in the USA, president Obama has suggested: Let's offer schools a deal. Give them the resources to keep good teachers on the job, and reward the best ones. In return, grant schools flexibility: to teach with creativity and passion; to stop teaching to the test; and to replace teachers who just aren't helping kids learn (Phelan & Phelan, 2013, para. 2).

President Obama has noticed that schools should take the initiative and exert efforts to save whatever possible in re-shaping their structure to be prestigious places as they should be. Could we be more optimistic one day to witness test-free academic institutions?

What if children of elementary stages have no tests at all? Just imagine a spacious hall with hundreds of books on different subjects, stories, videos, teaching aids, games, dancing corners, swings, cooking programs, comfortable chairs and couches, and an attached lounge with soft drinks, snacks, etc. All of that is carried out under the supervision of well-experienced teachers who teach them the basics, and give them enough time to explore their inner personalities and talents by guiding them to the fields of their interest. From time to time, children are asked to exchange information with their classmates, share ideas, and have reciprocal tasks. Later on, they would -with the assistance of their teachers- conduct small debates

and dialogues, tell stories , and discuss matters of interest on/ or related to what they have come across so far. All of that is done without mentioning the word "Test". Gradually, they would be able to discuss particular matters that belong to the local society where they live, and about life issues in advanced stages.

Shouldn't these early grades be a time to discover, play, and explore?"(Asks Los Angeles art teacher Ginger Rose Fox. "We talk all the Time about making our kids 'college and career ready'- even at such a Young age. Let's make them 'life ready' first. But I guess that doesn't fit into our test obsession."(Walker, 2014, para. 4).

This is a sort of innovation in the teaching system, but what about a process conducted the other way around?

Just imagine a school of the same level with the same number of students, but it is test-oriented, where children live under pressure and nightmare of tests; no debates, no discussions, and no in / out-of- class activities. Teachers' ultimate aim is to see their children learn by heart what they get in class. They seem to work like machines, especially in memorizing poetry, or short speeches. It is noticed that in some areas in Jordan many students tear up their books as soon as they finish the academic year, as they were suffering a lot, and considered school-life miserable and hectic. It is likely that they remember little or none of what they had learned throughout the whole year. This shows that what they were taking in classrooms was just indoctrination: just for the sake of tests, not life-long knowledge or skills. What comes to mind now is why some teachers and their students struggle in classrooms?

Sometimes teachers, as well as their students, spend so much time in classrooms struggling to find indirect -referential- answers of some abstract questions on certain subjects. They all sweat to succeed, and when finally get the answer, they no longer refer to that content in the future. What if they had enjoyed that time discussing some issues about what interests them and their society, or people around the world? They would get better knowledge throughout discussions and debates, rather than by tough and rough tests which usually put them under too much pressure and chaos. In Jordan again, as well as many Arab countries, students and their families live under pressure for the whole year when their children have the Public High School Exam. From the society's view point, those who pass are looked at as successful individuals, while those who fail become useless, and considered bad examples, although they might have stunning life skills. Tests do affect negatively students' psychological conditions when they fail. One possible way to offer students independence, security, and more freedom in the classroom would be following the communicative approach.

The communicative approach allows students to share most of the burden of the communication process in classrooms: approximately eighty percent. The teacher plays new roles; teacher, facilitator, counselor, or sometimes parent. He/she raises a certain point, and then students talk, express themselves, and -ultimately- reach a solution. The teacher observes, interferes -if need be-, feels excited to see his/her students deal with the topic enthusiastically. This way aims at encouraging students express themselves in a democratic way that will prepare them for a promising future. Outdated teaching methods do not promote students' communicative skills.

The traditional ways of teaching, especially the Grammar-Translation Method, still exist and the local society, sometimes, plays a conspicuous role in keeping that continue. Some parents believe that it is the best way for their children to get knowledge, as it shows how clever they are at memorizing rules and vocabulary, although they-normally- explain rules of the target language in their first language (L1; mother tongue). This occurs in some remote places in Japan and the Middle East, particularly in the Arab World. Teachers, on the other hand, feel relaxed by seeing their students memorize the rules and explain them in both: target and native languages. Some old-fashioned teachers do the same in classrooms; explaining grammar rules in English and L1. This does them-students- severe harm when they join institutions of higher education.

By just teaching to the test, students become inactive, feel a big gap between the methodology their teachers used, and what they face when joining colleges and universities later on.

We doubt it that students like to see their teachers teach only to the test. They suffer a lot and live under extreme pressure and anxiety, as they have to memorize things before coming to class the next day and answer the teacher's questions. If they don't, they might be punished, sometimes corporally, not only by the teacher, but also by their parents. It is wise to always bear in mind that teaching is a comprehensive process.

The teaching process should be accomplished under the umbrella of co-operation and comprehensiveness; all are responsible for carrying out this mission. When teachers feel they are supported by a strong administration, they do their job without fear or blame. Principals should be trusted and given a considerable range of freedom so as to first free their teachers to become more creative and understanding of what they are doing in class, and second, they -principals- can manage things properly, and work in a healthy environment. Other principals, on the other hand, keep asking their teachers to refer to old tests and stuff, and ask students to memorize and keep in touch with the past experiences.

There are, of course, ways to teach to the test that are bad for kids and that occur now and then in schools. Principals afraid that their scores would look bad, have forced their teachers to go over the same questions from old tests day after day, to prepare for some state assessment. But there is no evidence that this happens often. Strong teachers usually raise a ruckus, administrators back down, and everybody goes back to the traditional lesson reviews that all good teachers use (Mathews, 2006, para.3).

The material taught, as well as tests, should be of a high value and quality, not just simple and naive pieces of information that have no effect on the personality and well-being of students. Consider deeply the following quotation, and see whether it enhances students' knowledge.

We can readily summon facts from lessons drilled into us decades ago. When we were in grade school: Columbus sailed on the Nina, the Pinta, and the Santa Maria. The Civil War ended in 1865, Gregor Mendel was a monk. But does knowing these facts reflect mastery of important concepts and skills? Of course not. (Phelan & Phelan, 2013, para.4).

Teaching should not be limited to only testing; it should be a useful tool for students to communicate, initiate and create. They might become -one day- important figures in their countries: thinkers, life- makers, philosophers, etc. Let teaching have no boundaries and focus on creating brilliant youth who can lead and/or explore the world. Let communication have the ultimate priority in our life so as teaching could become more reliable, respectful, and competitive. "Any teacher who teaches only to the test, or any district that tries limiting its teachers to doing so, is surely misguided. But the occasional or lazy teacher doesn't mean the tests are themselves the problem" (Lineberry, 2012, para. 1).

Gerald (n.d.) believes that some forms of direct test preparation -small doses- is considered quite healthy for students in the classroom, and it may well contribute to providing valid results later on. Certain tests could be tailored according to some students' needs: Cloze Test.

Some prospective students are asked to perform certain tasks in order to know how well they perform certain logical structures. The Cloze Test aims at assessing students' proficiency, mainly those joining US institutions. This kind of tests shows how creative and thoughtful students are. It helps them think logically before inserting the missing words into the spaces "The cloze procedure is one of a variety of test formats frequently used today to assess the language proficiency of foreign students studying in the United States" (Hinofotis, 1987.p. 412). Co-operation between native and non-native teachers of English should be reflected in the academic domain in order to have a wide variety of vocabulary and expressions to use when exposed to Cloze-Test exams.

Native and non-native teachers should work hard and take training courses on teaching methodology. This gives them power and skill for answering some questions raised by some distinguished students in classrooms. For non-native teachers, exposing to English native speakers and mixing with them in their daily-life activities gives them not only a good chance to know more about cultural things, but also academic issues. With the spread of technology, things have become easier and more flexible; one can talk with people in English speaking countries via Skype, etc. (Arntsen (n.d.). p. 6).

> Can all tests give a clear-cut sign of students' level? Some educators believe in conducting valid tests to check students' comprehension of the material they have been taught, and believe that test results measure learning and comprehending the material given in class. They, on the other hand, think that students become confused and dissatisfied with any sort of tests that have been written haphazardly.

Ideally, scores and grades reflect a student's learning of a particular body of content, content we intended them to learn. Assessments (e.g., tests, quizzes, projects, and presentations) that are haphazardly constructed, even if unintentionally, can result in scores and grades that misrepresent the true extent of students' knowledge and leave students confused about what they should have been learning. (Ramsay & Raynak, 2016, para.1).

Teaching is a marvelous and enjoyable career; it should be carried out by willing, brilliant, open-minded, understanding, licensed, well and highly qualified teachers. It is not just having

children in a premises called "school" with an image called "teacher". Teachers should be able to cope with the latest academic training: attending workshops, seminars, symposia, lectures, etc. They should adopt and follow diverse ways of teaching that help students communicate, not memorize. They should think that constructive "Change" in any field does really count. Let teachers not indoctrinate and be more flexible and innovative, and encourage students to explore, in / and out-of- classroom experiences. Fanselow (1987), urges teachers all over the world to follow new and different ways to carry out this process; teaching. He urges teachers to break the rules if that gives positive results. It is not how much time spent on exercises that tires students; it is the quality of knowledge they get. Too many drills do kill the desire and will to learning. "Over-reliance on 'drill and kill' and test-preparation materials is not only unethical in the long-term but ineffective in the short term" (Gerald, (n.d.). para.26).

Teachers, especially at colleges or/ and universities understand the negative effect of exams on their students' psychological conditions. To avoid that, some of them –teachers- ask students to write essays instead, or sometimes conduct open-book exams. By doing so, students would avoid the anxiety of exams. The exam phobia has made some countries rethink and reconsider their teaching systems and evaluate them in a better way. They strongly believe that their development will not proceed without a powerful educational system. Finland, for example, has followed a very astonishing model in teaching.

Finland seems to have adopted a more logical and economical strategy in the teaching system, particularly testing. "Finland doesn't waste time or money on low-quality mass standardized testing. Instead, children are assessed every day, through direct observation, check-ins and quizzes by the highest-quality "personalized learning device" ever created - flesh-and-blood teachers*" (*Doyle, 2016, para. 7*).*

Students in Finnish schools enjoy their time very much; they don't have to worry about tests or punishment or any kind of stress. "In classrooms Finnish children behave naturally, and feel no much difference between homes and schools, and expected not to have school phobia. They can enjoy their time freely, although the teaching day is relatively short" Doyle, (2016, para.8).

Finnish programmes highlight the psychological side of students, particularly children and give them time to live their natural childhood. Doyle (2016, para.8) concludes:

In class, children are allowed to have fun, giggle and daydream from time to time. Finns put into practice the cultural mantras I heard over and over: "Let children be children", "The work of a child is to play," and "Children learn best through play".

The Finnish experience in teaching has become amusing and entertaining. An American professor from Harvard University admires the educational system Finland adopts and advises Americans openly to take it as a model. This witness comes from the top of the academic hierarchy. If this professor hadn't studied the Finnish experience deeply and critically, he wouldn't have given his precious piece of advice to his nation. "Learn from Finland, which has the most effective schools and which does just about the opposite of what we are doing in the United States." (Doyle, 2016, para. 1).

Children in Finland are well-taken care of; Schools do offer some outdoor physical exercises and training almost hourly; this is beneficial for refreshment of the brain, body, and spirit. The following quotation gives the difference between American and Finnish schools.

> Unlike in the United States, where many schools are slashing recess, schoolchildren in Finland have a mandatory 15-minute outdoor free-play break every hour of every day. Fresh air, nature and regular physical activity breaks are considered engines of learning. According to one Finnish maxim, there is no bad weather. Only inadequate clothing."(Doyle, 2016, para.5).

It seems that the success of Finnish schools is due to the ultimate support from the government and society. In addition, schools have prestigious status and work independently; they allow nobody to interfere with their job, unlike many schools in the Arab world.

Methodology and Procedures

In order to get a clear idea about what is taking place in classrooms -teaching to test or communicate-, the researchers have conducted a survey. The participants are students at Ibri College of Applied Sciences- the Sultanate of Oman.

Ibri College of Applied Sciences is one of six colleges that belong to the Ministry of Higher Education in the Sultanate of Oman; a peaceful Arab country on the Arabian Gulf. It is a specialized college with Information Technology (IT), Design, and Business majors. Students admitted are all locals -Omanis- and come from diverse regions of the vast country, while a small number comes from the Comoros in the light of cultural cooperation. In General, they are of high GPAs. Their L1 is Arabic. Before they join their majors, they all have to take a placement test, and those who meet the College requirements directly join their majors, but those who do not, have to take a remedial course for one semester, two, or more; depending on their results in the placement test.

In the Remedial Course, or as it is called here the Foundation Year Program (FY), students take the four skills (reading, writing, listening, and speaking), and as they move into their majors, they also take two more advanced courses of English with a strong and condensed dose, as English is the medium of instruction in classrooms for all majors. This College is co-educational, and the majority of students are female. Teachers come from different countries in the world, and use English as Lingua Franca.

Results and Discussion

The aim of this study is to highlight two academic controversial matters; teaching to test or communicate. Moreover, it attempts to find out the differences and similarities between them. The following section sheds some light on the findings as appeared from a questionnaire done by students at a government college in the Sultanate of Oman. The study deals with three main topics; methodology, textbook, and assessment. This section represents the findings.

The population of the study consists of (65) students who belong to different regions in the Sultanate of Oman. They are all in the Foundation Year-FY- and between 18-19 years of age. All

were briefed about the questionnaire in detail and told it is voluntary.

Table 1: *Shows students' responses in the Methodology part*.

Q	yes	No
1	16	49
2	53	12
3	49	16
4	48	17
5_A	53	12
5_B	57	8
5_C	42	23
6	56	9
7	58	7
8	10	55

Table 1 shows students' responses to the first part- methodology- that consists of eight questions (shown in the questionnaire).It is clear that 16 out of 65 say that the teacher teaches them only for the test, whereas 49 say they are taught for promoting their communication skills. This shows that the teacher does care about students' communicative skills, as well as preparing them for the test. The second question that combines both: teaching for the test and practicing communication skills reflects students' internal wish to gain both altogether; test and communication.

How far do students feel they become under pressure if they are taught only for the test?

This is clear in the third question of the Methodology part-Table 1- that 49 admit they suffer from chaos and anxiety when they are taught just for the test; 75 % of the total.

What if students are free to choose the method of testing? Which would they prefer?

In fact, while conducting the study, students were told to be as frank as possible, and their answers will be top confidential. Question seven -Table 1-shows almost the reality inside themselves; 58(89.23%) out of 65, not only prefer, but would love to have a test-free system. Moreover, in Table 1, it seems there is full harmony between students' responses to both questions: 7 and 8 in the way they look at tests. 84.61 %(55) refuse to have courses that focus only on tests for evaluation. West (2018, para. 7) clarifies this as follows:

Learning based on memorization and recall may improve student performance on tests, but fails to develop higher-level thinking skills. Furthermore, teaching to the test often prioritizes linguistic and mathematical intelligence at the expense of well-rounded education that fosters creative, research, and public speaking skills.

Table 1.2: *Shows percentage of students' responses in the Methodology part.*

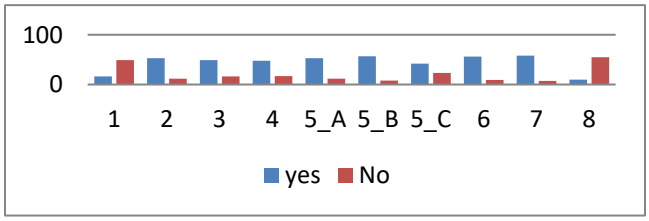

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Table 2: Shows students' responses in the part of the textbook they study.

Q	yes	No
1	36	29
2	49	16
3	42	23
4	52	13
5	41	24

There is a triangle that covers the educational process; student, text-book, and teacher. The Following-table 2- sheds some light on the role of the textbook in this field.

Question 1-table 2- asks about whether the textbook is challenging and meets with students' ambitions. Just 36 (almost half) of the total number (65) say it really is. To be honest, as teachers who have been teaching this book for many years, we dare say that it is a strong one that encourages students to practice the four skills, and was chosen carefully.

It seems there is some contradiction in the student's responses regarding the textbook. Question 4 checks the effect of the textbook on their academic life skills and experience, as well as individual development. It seems that 52 praise it and agree that it has a positive effect on their life-long skills; 52(80%), whereas their response in question 1 was (36); 55.38%.

In fact students take 20 contact hours of English per week; 10 as general English, and 10 as academic. They are taught the four skills in the general English, while they take an essay writing in academic English. Depending on this, question 5 asks whether the number of contact hours is in harmony with the material covered per academic semester.

As shown in table 2, 41 students chose (yes), while 24 chose (no), which means that they have different perceptions regarding textbook.

Table 2. 1: *Shows the percentage of students' responses in the textbook they study.*

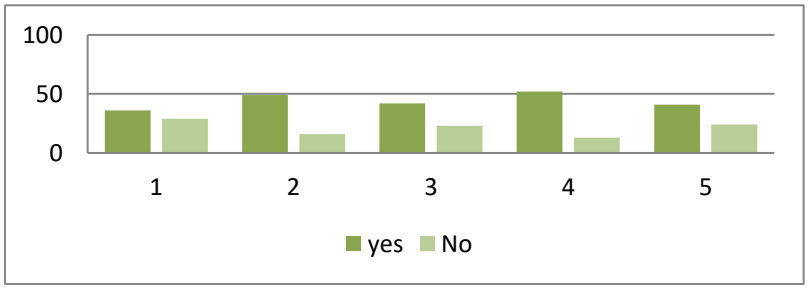


Table 3: *Shows students' responses to questions three through six in the assessment part.*

Q	yes	No
3	59	6
4	62	3
5	59	6
6	58	7

Table 3 covers questions 3 through 6 of the Assessment part. Question 3 asks whether students perform better in a free-test situation. The answers are amazing; 59 out of 65 answered positively, while 6 only answered negatively.
From a psychological view point, failing tests severely affects students' mood and attitude towards learning, which is clear in question 4.

Question 5 supports the theme of this paper: *Teaching to Test or Communicate*, which is reflected in their answers. They advocate debates, class discussion, conducting seminars and conferences which lead to self-confidence and self-esteem.

If the authors were free, they would exempt students from sitting for tests and teach via pure discussions and debates. Students, by nature, hate living under stress and anxiety; they prefer exchanging ideas, discussing issues that are authentic and related to daily life issues.

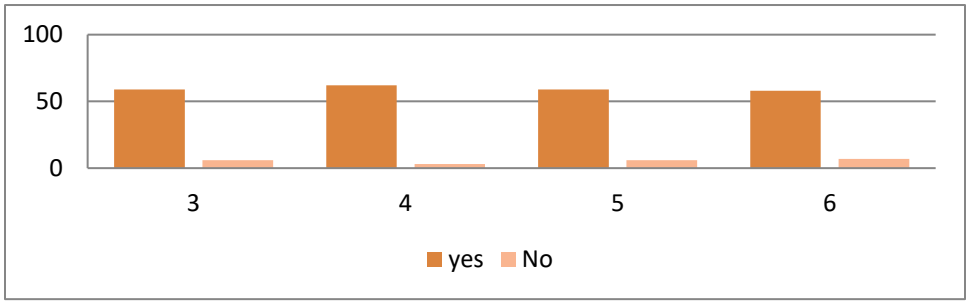
Table 3.1: *Shows students' responses to questions 1 and 2 of the assessment part.*

60	92.30%
63	96.92%

Question 1 asks clearly and openly about students' choices whether to be taught with the traditional or communicative method. It is surprising; 60 chose the communicative method, while only 5 chose the traditional one. Question 3 is also impressing; it promotes the communicative method almost unanimously: 63 preferred the communicative method to the traditional in the way they gain life-long skills.

Kennedy (2016, para. 4) concludes: "In CLT classrooms- communicative language teaching- students are grouped in cooperative structures and must take a much more active role than in more traditional methods. The teacher becomes more of a mentor and facilitator than a direct instructor".

Table 3.2: *Shows the percentage of students' responses to questions three through six in the assessment part*



Debates, class discussions, seminars, and conferences are normally conducted depending on speech, which means using the communicative approach, not the traditional. Students' responses support this in question 5 of the Assessment part. 59 responses are for the Communicative Method. Moreover, in question 6, 58 are for the communicative method, as well.

Table 3.3: *Shows students' responses to questions 1 & 2 regarding the two teaching methods: Traditional and Communicative in the assessment part.*

Q	Traditional Method	Communicative Method
1	5	60
2	2	63

Recommendations

In the light of this article, there should be some hints to consider:

-teachers should initiate a forum in the classroom for students to talk and express themselves freely and openly.

-students should not be put under the pressure and anxiety of exams, and if possible, exams should be cancelled in the primary phase, at least.

-teachers may try open-book exams, or writing research papers, instead.

-teachers should let their students feel secure, so as to exchange ideas with their classmates. Moreover, there viewpoints should be respected and accepted.

-in order to live in and practice an authentic atmosphere, students should have field visits to places and subjects mentioned in their textbooks-once a week, at least- to see things naturally - away from the hectic classroom routine.

- old-fashioned administrations should be given courses in modern administration and technology.

-good communication and encouragement achieve goals and good results.

-teachers should be selected carefully, especially for the elementary phase; as it is the base of creativity.

-for the senior phases, tests should be designed by expert teachers and psychologists.

Conclusion

This study dealt with two groups of academic viewpoints: teaching to test or communicate. Both are of great importance provided that students get the ultimate benefit. Exams are important and should not be underestimated, especially at the end of high school. They are considered a sign of legibility of joining higher education institutions. It should be emphasized that the aim of exams does not mean imposing more work or burden; they are essential in some cases, as they represent one major way of evaluating students' performance, without which, things get mixed up. I recommend that exams should be reduced in the elementary phases, and allocate much time for discussion and exchanging ideas, and conducting debates in classrooms.

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Appendices

Questionnaire

The purpose of this questionnaire is to collect information for an article titled "Teaching to Test, or Communicate".

This information will not be misused and you will not be identified.

Thank you for your co-operation.

ال هدف م ن هذه الاسئلة هو جمع معلومات قبل قيام "التدريس لاجل الاختبار، ام لاجل التواصل".

لن يتم استخدام هذه المعلومات بطريقة غير لائقة.
ملاحظة: لا يسمح لأي شخص بالاطلاع على هذه الاستبانة سواك".
يرجى وضع علامة (√) في المربع المناسب
Male ( ) ذكر Female ( ) أنثى
City ( ) مدينة Remote village ( ) قرية نائية

1. *Methodology*

Please tick the right answer:

1. The teacher teaches us to prepare for the test, not communicate.
المعلم يدرسنا من أجل الاختبار وليس لتطوير قدراتنا التواصلية.

Yes	
No	

2. The teacher teaches us both: for the test and to improve our communication.
المعلم يدرسنا من أجل الاختبار وتطوير قدراتنا التواصلية معاً.

Yes	
No	

3. Teaching only to test puts students under pressure and causes anxiety.
التدريس من أجل الاختبار فقط يجعل الطلاب تحت ضغط كبير ويسبب لهم القلق.

Yes	
No	

4. The teacher uses any methodology in the classroom: traditional, direct, grammar translation, eclectic (mixed methodology), communicative, etc.
يستخدم المعلم في الفصل أساليب تدريس مختلفة مثل: الأسلوب التقليدي، الترجمة للغة الأم، الأسلوب الانتقائي، التواصلي وغيرها.

Yes	
No	

5. The teacher plays different roles in the classroom:
يقوم المعلم في الفصل بعدة أدوار مثل:

-teacher مدرس

Yes	
No	

-facilitator ميسر للأمور يوضح للطلبة المطلوب منهم

Yes	
No	

-counselor مرشد للطلبة

Yes	
No	

-others? (Please mention)…….
..... اي دور آخر للمدرس؟ اذكره من فضلك

6. Teaching to communicate, not to test, makes learning more enjoyable.
التدريس للتواصل والتواصل، وليس لاغراض الامتحان يجعل التعلم عملية ممتعة.

Yes	
No	

7. If I were to choose, I would choose a test-free system
لو طلب مني الاختيار، لاخترت نظاما دراسيا بدون امتحانات

Yes	
No	

8. If I were to choose, I would choose a test-oriented system
لو طلب مني الاختيار، لاخترت نظاما دراسيا يركز على الامتحانات

Yes	
No	

2. *The Textbook* الكتاب

1. The textbook is challenging, attractive, effective, and meets students' ambitions.
الكتاب قوي، يجذب الانتباه ويلبي طموحات الطلاب

Yes	
No	

2. The textbook is designed mainly to fulfil the communicative approach activities i.e., group and pair work, miming, etc.
تم تصميم الكتاب بشكل رئيسي ليلبي نشاطات التواصل للطريقة التواصلية في مجموعات داخل الصف.

Yes	
No	

3. Students are tested on the material they learn in the classroom.
يتم اختبار الطلاب في المادة التي يدرسونها في قاعة الدرس.

Yes	
No	

4. The textbook enhances students' academic and daily life skills and experience, as well as individual development.
الكتاب الدراسي يعزز المهارات الأكاديمية والحياتية والخبرات الحياتية، بالاضافة الى التطور والتنمية الفردية.

Yes	
No	

5. The number of classes is in harmony with the material covered per-semester.
يتناسب عدد الحصص الدراسية مع المادة المغطاة في الفصل الدراسي.

Yes	
No	

6. The textbook has no offensive material or any items considered against local traditions.
الكتاب لا يحتوي على مواد مسيئة او مشينة تتعارض مع العادات والتقاليد المحلية

3. Assessment

1. Students can be effective and successful communicators if taught with

يعتقد الطلبة انهم يتعلمون اكثر عندما يدرسهم المعلمون بطريقة:

Traditional methods الاسلوب التقليدي	
Communicative methods الاسلوب التواصلي والتفاعلي	

2. Students gain long-life skills if taught with

يعتقد الطلبة انهم يكتسبون مهارات حياتية اكثر عندما يدرسهم المعلمون بطريقة:

Traditional methods الاسلوب التقليدي	
Communicative methods الاسلوب التواصلي والتفاعلي	

3. Students perform much better in a test-free environment

يعتقد الطلبة انهم يبدعون اكثر في جو خال من الامتحانات

Yes	
No	

4. Failing tests negatively affects the students' psychological attitude towards learning.

يعتقد الطلبة ان الرسوب في الامتحانات يؤثر سلبيا على حالتهم النفسية تجاه التعلم

yes	
No	

5. Debates, class discussions, seminars, and conferences promote students' self-confidence.

يعتقد الطلبة ان المناظرات، النقاشات الصفية، الندوات، والمؤتمرات تعزز ثقتهم بانفسهم

Yes	
No	

6. Debates, class discussions, seminars, and conferences promote the students' global awareness.

يعتقد الطلبة ان المناظرات، النقاشات الصفية، الندوات، والمؤتمرات تعزز ادراك الطلبة لدورهم العالمي

Yes	
No	

This is quotation is not more than 40 words. It should not be block quotations. APA

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The Importance of Pedagogical Empiricism for Sensitizing University English Language Teachers in Arab Context

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Abstract
There is a significant psychological aversion to English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia. General weakness among learners opting for English majors and undergraduate learners of the English language is noted. Different learners are unaware of learning styles most suited to them. This research discussed the necessity for sensitizing university teachers towards the contributing factors in the success or failure of teaching and learning the English Language in Saudi Arabia. Teaching-learning processes would be fruitful if the syllabus designers, teachers, and learners become aware of important factors like teacher's characteristics, learners' characteristics, teaching materials, and educational institutions. This study aimed to emphasize the role of the English language teacher in facilitating learning processes, through conducting active research of English language learners at Wadi Ad-Dawasir in Saudi Arabia. This research enhances the prospects of pedagogical studies of different language learning and teaching.

***Keywords*:** English language teachers, language learners, pedagogical empiricism, sensitizing university, Saudi Arabia
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Introduction

The sole foreign language used in Saudi Arabia is English (Alrashidi & Phan 2015). The use of this language is employed throughout the various sectors in Saudi Arabia (Al-Seghayer 2014). For this reason, a great number of Saudi citizens learn English as a way of enhancing their prospects (Moskovsky & Alrabai 2009). Furthermore, English is utilized as a mode of communication in Saudi Arabia's education sector (Liton 2013). Therefore, it is clear that the acquisition of the English language is significant for Saudi citizens.

However, a significant psychological aversion is noted to English as a language strictly in the context of Wadi Ad-Dawasir and similar locale in Saudi Arabia, based on the first-hand experience. Additionally, there is a general weakness among Saudi English learners about reading and writing this language with ease, as evidenced by recent literature (Liton 2013). Therefore, there is an urgent need to sensitize teachers in Saudi Arabia towards the factors that contribute to the success or failure of teaching or learning the English language. Here, 'sensitizing' refers to drawing the teachers' attention towards effective communication and teaching and is efficiently based on various models of classroom action research (Zepke 2015).

Thus, this study proposed and investigated the role of a teacher in making radical changes in the current environment of English learning and teaching. Specifically, the characteristics of such a teacher have been discussed through relying on scientific and empirical evidence based on effective teaching practices, various learning cultures and a review of fabricated pedagogical cultures. Therefore, the empirically proved contributing factors of success and failure in the Saudi context would be implemented, utilized and recommended for suitable teaching and learning processes according to the learning situation, learners' characteristics, the opted level of learners, the allotted time for teaching, available facilities and aims of teaching syllabus. The influencing elements of the learning process are conveniently classified into learners, teachers, teaching materials, and administrative factors. Accordingly, the teachers will be sensitized to the appropriate acts of teaching and cautioned towards the inappropriate ones.

Theoretical Grounds for Research

The center of the Empiricism states that one's knowledge of the world is based on one's sensory experiences. According to empiricists such as Alston (1989), Barnes & Henry (1996) and Longino (2002), learning is based on individual observation and perception. Experiential learning indicates the process of acquiring, implementing knowledge, skills and feels in the immediate appropriate context by learners. It is more pragmatic and encompassing of learner difficulties as compared to merely theorizing about the phenomena. This type of learning is institutionalized and professionalized for training programs. Experiential learning was first devised by Kolb (1984), who was interested in individual and social change, career development and executive and professional education. The repetitive model devised by Kolb & Fry (1975) is comprised of four cyclically arranged elements, as follows: (1) concrete experience (2) observation and experience (3) forming abstract concepts, and (4) testing in new situations. The model contends that successful learning requires the following capabilities: (1) concrete experience abilities (2) reflective observation abilities (3) abstract conceptualization abilities, and (4) active experimentation abilities. Kolb and Fry (1975) assert that the learning cycle could start and continue as a spiral process at any one of these points. Accordingly, they developed a learning

style inventory. Smith (2001, 2010) presents the following table for teaching activities that support different aspects of the learning cycle.

Table 1. *Experiential Learning Cycle*

Concrete experience	**Reflective observation**	**Abstract conceptualization**	**Active experimentation**
Readings	Logs	Lecture	Project
Examples	Journals	Papers	Fieldwork
Fieldwork	Discussion	Projects	Homework
Laboratories	Brainstorming	Analogies	Laboratory
Problem sets	Thought questions	Model building	Case study
Trigger films	Rhetorical questions		Simulation
Observations			
Observations			
Simulations/games			
text Reading			

Importance of English in KSA

The English language holds great importance in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA), due to the emergence of this nation as an economical, religious and political global leader. The use of this language is required for diplomatic, political and commercial engagements with non-Arab countries. Given the turbulence in and around the Middle East, KSA has a decisive role to play in geopolitical prospects. Moreover, this region is the site for umrah and annual Hajj pilgrimages, performed by Muslims hailing from different parts of the world and speaking different languages. Additionally, Saudi Arabia is host to a migrant population of seven million. A majority of Saudi scientific research centers and many annual scientific, political, religious, economic conferences are conducted in English or are translated to English. Therefore, learning the English language is necessary for Saudi researchers, so that they may keep abreast of new scientific theories, technological development and pursue higher education.

Furthermore, English is taught in all levels of education within Saudi Arabia. Therefore, Saudi people need to acquire a good understanding of this language to be able to communicate their ideologies, culture, and perceptions with the rest of the world. KSA dispatches a large number of students to renowned colleges and universities all over the world. These students need to have an adequate understanding of English to understand and discuss highly technical topics about their courses. This necessitates qualified English teachers, excellent teaching materials, a precise aim, and competent administrative staff. However, only a few English learners enjoy these necessary characteristics. It is of urgency that the quality of teaching and learning be improved while disregarding interfering factors such as learners' quality and the environment. Therefore, the focus here is on the teacher's quality, experience, efforts, enthusiasm and awareness about the appropriate theories.

Teaching university-level English to local students in a growing city like Wadi is a satisfying, yet demanding job. A combination of specific skills, knowledge, and experiences are required to excel in the profession. Before deciding to embark on this career path in the Arab

context in general and Wadi Ad-Dawasir and similar locale in particular, self-assessment should be done to determine one's ability to tackle learner-specific difficulties.

Teachers' Skills and Knowledge

Teachers need excellent communication skills to be able to explain the material in the curriculum in a variety of ways to students with diverse learning styles, limited vocabulary and the habit of relying on their mother tongue for comprehension. They also require superior interpersonal skills such as patience and the ability to remain calm in stressful situations. Collaborative skills enable them to work productively with their colleagues. Group and team learning have always been more constructive than individual efforts whether on the part of teachers or learners (Barkley et al., 2014). Additionally, creativity and presentation skills are essential for capturing the attention of students. Basic technological skills are needed for audio-visual presentations and reporting and taking attendance electronically. English teachers additionally need to demonstrate competent leadership to maintain order and monitor disruptive student behavior. As seen in Wadi Ad-Dawasir, learners were used to a free atmosphere at different education levels as there was strong classroom management by the teacher. After establishing classroom discipline, the teacher shifted to slide-based teaching through rote memorizations and repetitive actions. This is an interim process which was followed by more advanced processes characterized by critical thinking and problem-solving.

Teachers need to have a firm grasp of the subject they are teaching in addition to relevant skills. University-level English teachers must have a sound basic knowledge of language teaching skills, linguistics, literature, and English language teaching, in addition to a thorough knowledge of the area of specialty. University teachers, who usually specialize in only one or two subject areas, must have a thorough understanding of their area of specialty and elementary knowledge in all the relevant specialization fields. Teachers should also be acquainted with different methods of learning used by different learners and the expectations in development for children of different ages. They also need to know a variety of teaching strategies and disciplinary techniques and be able to learn, understand, select and use teaching strategies appropriate to the level, ability, and interests of the students in the class. They should remain updated with current trends in educational research through reading, experimenting and modifying existing ideas.

Teachers' Personal and Professional Experiences

Most teachers are initially drawn to the profession due to positive learning experiences faced early in their lives. They might have had a favorite teacher who was instrumental in helping them fulfill their potential or any opportunity they had to teach someone, such as a younger sibling or a friend. These experiences help potential teachers understand the dynamic of transmitting information from teacher to learner. Other experiences, such as being a camp counselor, scout leader or sports coach also contribute to increased awareness of how to interact with learners and inspire them.

Within the purview of professional experiences, teachers must possess sufficient sensory functions to develop and maintain awareness of all students in the classroom and sufficient motor function to move about the classroom, manage, supplies and demonstration materials and supervise classroom activities. An essential component of teachers' college programs is practice teaching, which should occur early in the teachers' program. Only by preparing lectures and

delivering them, teachers can determine which methods they are most comfortable with and which ones are more likely to ensure student success. The teaching method should be chosen per learners' characteristics, the surrounding, learner level, allotted time and aims of the teaching and learning program, rather than with which the teacher is most comfortable. A teacher might use different methods. These include: the direct method given ample time; the grammar-translation method to give the meaning of abstract word; the audio-lingual method to teach the pronunciation of a word or linguistic structure; Silent Way if learners are to be encouraged to produce language as much as possible, or; the cognitive code approach if grammar rules are to be taught. All these methods can be used in one setting. An experienced teacher will be able to choose suitable methods for learners according to their ways of learning.

Learning Approaches

To understand different ways that people learn best, scientists and psychologists have developed many different models. One popular theory is the VARK model, in which Fleming and Mills (1992) suggest four modalities that reflect the experiences of the students and teachers (Prithishkumar & Michael, 2014). VARK stands for visual, aural, read/write and kinesthetic sensory modalities that are used for learning information about the identification of four primary types of learners. This perceptual mode describes four learning methods, with each learning method responding best to a different method of teaching. For instance, auditory/aural learners will remember information best after hearing it from the speaker. This learner category learns best from pair or group discussions, lectures, television/radio, mobile phones, speaking, web-chatting, talking and non-formal language or setting. Learners of this category favor oral classification and organization accordingly. Visual learner's best respond to concrete depicted matters such as flow charts, labeled diagrams, maps, spider diagrams, tree diagrams, charts, graphs arrows, circles, hierarchies, and other demonstration devices. Whereas, read/write learners learn best from written material. This mode is favored by many learners. They rely on reading and writing and written texts such as manuals, reports, essays, and assignments. People who prefer this modality are often addicted to PowerPoint, the Internet, lists, diaries, dictionaries, thesauri, quotations and words. Note that most PowerPoint presentations and the Internet, Google and Wikipedia are primarily suited to those with this preference as there is seldom an auditory channel or a presentation that uses visual symbols. Additionally, kinesthetic learners prefer hands-on experience and practice, whether simulated or real.

Hence, a teacher has to be understood by all these varieties of addressees, through varying his/her presentations according to the four learning styles. There are two types of learners; these are active learners who are willing to be involved in the discussions and the passive learners who remain undesirably detached. An excellent teacher can evoke a high level of interest, involvement and desired learner-response through employing the carrot and stick policy; the students are to be reminded of the repercussions of not learning regularly. The teacher should ensure the student's level of lecture preparation, class participation, and assignment completion, in addition to ascertaining learner attentiveness. This can be guaranteed by a teacher through different approaches. Although it is the responsibility of students to be receptive to instruction and study regularly, a teacher must confirm that learners understand the instruction through active communication.

A teacher has to befriend learners, care for them and extend help at every step to ensure ease of learning. The ethical values of care include compassion, gratitude, acceptance, forgiveness, interest, and insight for developing students' potential. Teachers express their commitment to students' well-being and learning by offering positive influence, professional judgment, and empathy in practice. Teachers must, therefore, possess the cognitive, communicative, sensory/motor, and emotional/ social/ interactional abilities necessary for these complex classroom activities. They must discharge their duties promptly, conduct tests, student assessments, and referrals formulate written plans for teaching, provide student worksheets and assignments reports on student progress and facilitate communications with parents. A responsible teacher should act with self-discipline, be aware of the consequences of his actions and be consistent. He must display emotional, social and interactional abilities that are necessary for full exploitation of intellectual abilities and develop a rapport with his learners and society to promote public trust and confidence in the teaching profession. He should act with integrity, honesty, keep his promises with consistency and demonstrate loyalty to those not present.

Generally, students treat teachers as role models and wish to follow into their footsteps. Therefore, the teacher should monitor and act the role model appropriately. A competent teacher has a flair and passion for the subject that drives students to learn for themselves actively. Great teaching seems to have less to do with knowledge and skills and more to do with attitudes toward our students and the subject. Mutual respect between teachers and students provides a supportive and collaborative learning environment.

The clarity in the presentation of ideas is mandatory for a successful teacher. He should present the same ideas in different patterns of language. A teacher should be aware of professional demands and adopt appropriate ethical codes; this is necessary to inspire learners who consider this as the emblem of a teachers' portrait. Ethical values for the teaching profession signify a vision of the professional practice. At the heart of a strong and effective teaching profession is a commitment to students and their learning. The aims and objectives of the ethical values for the teaching profession are to inspire members to replicate and maintain the honor and dignity of the teaching profession and to identify the ethical accountabilities and commitments in the teaching process.

Specific need learners

The Wadi-Ad-Dawasir learners are first-generation learners with specific qualities, cultures and learning mannerisms. Therefore, they demand a specific kind of learning from their first-generation teacher. The characteristics of a first-generation English teacher include many traits, values, and features. He has to be a good model holding himself to the same expectations and standards as he holds his students. His actions should not contradict his teaching; for instance, it is impossible for a teacher to have double standards. Therefore, it is clear that accountability is the first characteristic of any successful teacher.

It is believed that a successful and learner-friendly teacher is the one who provides entertainment and maintains joyful relationship with the learners but not at the cost of the necessary hard work from the English first generation learner, both inside and outside the class. A first-generation teacher has to work hard to evolve and improve himself and his learners

continuously. The author observed that a majority of mediocre teachers do the bare minimum while preparing lectures; they restrict their reading to the course book and do not have any passion for teaching. Teaching needs drive, passion, compassion, warmth, enthusiasm, love for learning, cooperation with learners and administration that helps students with their issues both inside and outside the class. A good teacher should give due importance and respect to the learners, create a sense of community and homogony among learners and himself and be easily adaptable to different situations. A first-generation English teacher has to be creative, dedicated, engaging, dynamic and determined to overcome all difficulties to achieve the objective. He should be able to create a vivid picture in the minds of his learners about the different elements of the discussed topics to change students' conceptual values into permanent behavioral practices.

A capable teacher and syllabus designer must contextualize his presentation taking into his cognizance the needs of his learners which will enable them to perform their duty competently, effectively and skillfully. He should help his learners to develop strategies to take care of specific needs learners and engage his learners in critical thinking, to facilitate problem-solving. Brookfield (2017) suggested that facilitating learners to be critical thinkers was strongly contingent upon respecting the learners, supporting and paying attention to them, encouraging them to participate in the classroom setting actively and challenging preconceived notions. Most importantly, Brookfield suggested that it was important for teachers to build trust with their learners by encouraging them to point out their flaws and then making respective changes in their behavior. It was argued that one of the most significant cognitive skill sets to be mastered by a critically thinking teacher was to evaluate assumptions and preconceived notions in the light of alternatives, and to impart this knowledge to learners (Hamby 2015). An additional study by Abrami et al., (2015) suggest exposing learners to simulated problems and utilizing role-playing techniques as a way to stimulate critical thinking. Therefore, a teacher with good critical thinking skills should vary his presentation methods and individualize his strategies, through the use of role-playing lectures that incorporate activities of translation and interpretation, paragraph-writing and discussions. He should use different channels to impart knowledge, such as lectures, handouts, videos, case studies, personal experiences, and discussion. He should use different intelligences to reach his objectives; for example, logical and linguistic intelligences are used in traditional academic settings considerably. This was responsible for high scores in academic achievement tests.

Since the environment for English is limited in the context of Wadi-Ad-Dawasir and the overall Arab World, and Arabic is the preferred language for all these learners' activities; consequently, a first-generation teacher should emphasize the use of language in all written and spoken forms for different functions as well as in personal interactions. Learning styles play an essential role in the number of learning processes. Learning styles are only different approaches or ways of learning. Through appropriate learning styles, first-generation learners could learn a more significant amount of information in a shorter time and retain it in a better way. Therefore, a teacher should know the different learning styles approached by his learners and expose them to appropriate and alternative learning styles. For instance, a teacher must ensure an appropriate learning style for poor learners struggling in the learning process.

Therefore, a teacher must evoke interests in his learners and improve his communicative skills according to the needs and benefit of the learners. However, while interacting with their

students in Wadi Ad-Dawasir, the author discovered that a majority of learners are reluctant to think critically and work collaboratively. The kind of instruction imparted by elementary, preparatory and secondary teachers inculcated in them a type of learning which is based on rote memorization and negates the use of analytical thinking and reasoning. Consequently, they found it very difficult to be taught and examined using non-familiar approaches. Therefore, it is imperative for undergraduate teachers to compensate for this lacuna and develop the necessary skills needed for analyses, synthesis, and reasoning in their learners.

While learning styles are unique and have distinctive characteristics, it is important for them to be coherently blended to offer advantages. Still, a valid argument might be that the capacity and style of learning vary radically from one learner to the other and so it is practically impossible to cater to the conflicting and varying styles of learning. However, a teacher can sense the accepted styles used by a majority of learners and treat the exceptions separately. A qualified teacher has to make equilibrium among different interfering factors. An experienced teacher will be capable of acting, interacting and involving in an "ongoing process of diagnosis, with self and with learners, including observation, questioning, obtaining evaluative feedback, and critical reflection" (Nuckles 2000, p. 6). This was collaborated by Heimlich & Norland (2002), who states that "each teacher is unique and can use his or her style to be as effective an educator as possible." (p.23)

Motivation is another important factor that a teacher can depend on to improve his quality of teaching and extract a higher degree of response from students. It is the power that derives, selects, orients and continues behavior towards a goal. A teacher has to employ an eclectic approach to effectively motivate learners to integrate the use of intrinsic and extrinsic strategies as per choice; dealing with motivational principles and strategies depends on many issues such as syllabus, learners' characteristics, and others. It can be done in many different ways depending on the motivated learner. However, common ones are the type of teaching material, a task which should be socially comprehensive and fine-tuned, beginning by queries to arouse the curiosity of learners and encouraging students to perform at their best capacities. The highest nature of performance still leaves space for improvement. Concretizing abstract ideas, that is, exemplifying the abstract by concrete means such as the use of morphemes and allomorphs in teaching morphology, is concretized by the man with different realizations.

First-generation learners with specific needs and limitations should be given clear and specific objectives for their step-to-step performance. In other words, teachers have to utilize the strategy of Sheltered Instruction Observation Protocol (SIOP) to facilitate subject matter concepts for this type of learners. This strategy is assumed and widely believed to be effective in the quoted context of learning. Learners will face frustration if there are no clear and unambiguous steps for learning since most of their learning depends on memorization. Accordingly, both content and language objectives have to be specified and achieved by learners under the direct practical supervision of a teacher. A teacher should ensure that learners are working to meet objectives because a majority of learners are not mature enough to carry on the instructions unless they are forced to work. It is mandatory for a teacher to think about objectives content and language objective.

The former covers what the learner should know in a lecture to be able to perform a particular task and the latter is to develop the linguistic skills necessary to communicate the acquired knowledge. For example, at the end of the lecture in content objectives, the learners will be able to identify, solve, investigate, distinguish, hypothesize, create, select and draw conclusions about sensitizing university teachers, whereas, language objectives encompass the patterns of language used to express this idea. They include objectives such as 'Listen for,' 'Retell,' 'Define,' 'Find the main idea,' 'Compare,' 'Summarize,' 'Rehearse,' 'Persuade' and 'Write.'

Verbs for Writing Content and Language Objectives based on Bloom's Taxonomy and the 4 Domains of Language

Experimental teaching that assumes critical or reflective thinking and learning is one of the best means of successful teaching. This type of teaching proved to be effective in the Wadi Ad-Dawasir learning scenario. Through prompting learners' reflective thinking, a teacher would be able to accelerate thinking, learning, and metacognitive strategies of the learning process intellectually and emotionally. This shapes their thought processes, identifies their learned information and modifies it accordingly. Therefore, a teacher has to create an appropriate learning environment in which learners are encouraged to reflect on their learning. This can be done through the direct involvement and participation of learners in the analytical process of a problem and his gradual solving. This view was stated by Brookfield (2017), who commented upon the power of self-monitoring and reflection in a student's learning process. Reflective or critical thinking helps students develop higher-order thinking skills. Learners are aware of and control their learning by actively participating in reflective thinking – assessing what they know, what they need to know, and how they bridge that gap – during learning situations.

Another important dimension of the teaching and learning process facet is related to the pre-teaching and post-teaching evaluating strategies and plans. A teacher should set his reasons or a logical basis for a course of action or a particular belief on which basis he/she is going to proceed in his teaching in a classroom and evaluating his learners. This includes outlining a clear plan for teaching, identifying ways for measuring learner's progress and fairness of evaluation. His tests and exams should be reliable, dependable, and valid. This is one of the most important post teaching steps, which enlighten him about the success or failure of the teaching-learning process.

Verbs for Content Objectives

With respect to knowledge, the verbs include options such as 'list', 'identify', 'locate', 'memorize', 'review', 'label', 'describe', 'define', 'name' and 'match'. For comprehension, the verbs are inclusive of 'recall', 'reproduce', 'summarize', 'explain', 'demonstrate', 'translate' and 'rephrase'. Regarding application, the verbs include options such as 'predict', 'compare', 'contrast', 'solve', 'classify', 'categorize', 'show', 'apply', 'make' and 'build a replica. With respect to synthesis, verbs such as 'build a model', 'combine', 'compile', 'compose', 'construct', 'create', 'design', 'elaborate', 'test', 'infer', 'predict', 'hypothesize', 'invent' and 'design' are used. Finally, for evaluation, the verbs include 'choose', 'decide', 'recommend', 'select', 'justify', 'defend' and 'support'.

Verbs for Language Objectives

With respect to listening, the verbs include 'tell', 'role play', 'identify', 'review', 'label', 'describe', 'define', 'name', 'match', 'listen', 'recognize', 'pint', 'show' and 'follow'. For comprehension, the verbs are 'recall', 'reproduce', 'summarize', 'directions' 'explain', 'demonstrate', 'translate' and 'rephrase'. Regarding speaking, verbs such as 'name', 'discuss' and 'rephrase' are used. With respect to application, verbs include 'predict', 'compare', 'contrast', 'ask', 'answer', 'predict', 'say' 'steps in a solve', 'classify', 'categorize', 'show', 'apply', 'process', 'pronounce', 'repeat', 'respond', 'make', 'build a replica state', 'summarize', 'explain', 'tell' and 'use'. Similarly, for synthesis, the verbs include 'build a model', 'combine' and 'compile'. Regarding reading, the verbs are 'preview', 'read aloud', 'find', 'compose', 'construct', 'create', 'design', 'elaborate', 'specific information', 'identify', 'skim', 'test', 'infer', 'predict', 'hypothesize', 'invent', 'design' and 'explore'. Coming to evaluation, this includes verbs such as 'choose', 'decide', 'recommend' and 'select'. For writing, verbs such as 'list', 'summarize', 'ask and justify', 'defend', 'support answer questions', 'create sentences', 'state and justify opinions', 'write', 'contrast', 'classify' and 'record' are used. Lastly, the verbs for vocabulary development include 'define isolated words', 'define words in context' and 'find words and construct meaning'.

Practical Approach to Teaching

It is believed that teaching experience in different contexts, institutions, and different learners' characteristics would empower a teacher with the necessary skills to make appropriate decisions at appropriate times with different learners. His local and international experience will help learners to benefit from his way of instructions and the material selected. Teachers' roles in simplifying the language complex structures and solving their enigmas contribute greatly in facilitating learning and processing information. However, one should not forget that teachers play a major role in internalizing the abstract knowledge into learners' minds, through the actual experienced behavior, especially where the learners depend entirely on their teachers and teaching materials as the main source of their language input. Teachers' encouragement of their learners is a very determinative and affective factor in the learning process. Their extrinsic motivation, such as high grades or praise, might contribute to the learning process. This kind of supportive learning process from teachers could enthuse and energize the learning faculty in the learners and create a conducive learning environment which is also one of the affective factors of learning.

A teacher could have a major role in altering the learners' attitude towards target language. For instance, students with anxiety would greatly benefit from teachers that understand and accommodate them. Since anxiety affects the mental processing of language (Azher et al., 2010), it is highly important for a good teacher to consider this factor when teaching. A teacher should play the role of an advisor, a teacher, and a friend and represent good values for his learners to gain the trust of his learners. Learners should feel that they are not alone to do the task; this especially includes first-generation learners such as in Wadi Ad-Dawasir, who receive no assistance from their families. A teacher should make his learners believe that he is accessible for them in terms of aid, assistance, and guidance. This may eradicate the apprehension created as a result of anxiety. Consequently, their fear will be changed into a positive force; that is, their anxiety will lead to action. Learners should be assured of the ease in learning languages and that it simply depends on perseverance, practice, and involvement. A teacher, of course, may not be able to play with or change internal factors that a learner is attributed with, such as age experience,

cognition, and native language, but he/she could positively influence external factors such as teaching materials, clear and coherent instruction, culture and status, extrinsic motivation and access to native speakers. These factors play a heavily significant role in the teaching and learning process and are entirely under the control of an experienced and competent teacher. Teaching materials should be sequentially presented according to the principles of cause and effect and logic. A teacher should take care of the language of the text of teaching materials from the words, phrases, clauses, and sentences. He/she should juxtapose the problematic words and phrases with synonymous words and phrases, and anomalous structures and patterns with simple and easily understood ones between practices. In this way, a learner will be able to understand the ideas, be exposed to intricate patterns and enrich his vocabulary. The teacher should train his learners to simplify the structures of complex sentences because a learner cannot understand very long sentences. One of the ways of helping the learner understand a very long sentence is to show him how to identify the three fundamental pillars of the sentence. Namely, the subject, verb and the object should be identified, and the rest of the elements should then be added to their respective modified heads of the phrases. For example, the following sentence is very long: "Tall regal and intelligent, Benazir Bhutto, prime minister of Pakistan and "Daughter of the East," as she titled her autobiography, will land in Washington next week to begin an official visit to the United States." This statement can be simplified as follows.

Firstly, the author made the learners identify the subject, verb, and complement of the main clause. For instance, 'Benazir Bhutto' is the Subject, 'land' is a Verb and 'in Washington' is an adverb phrase/complement. This was done because many sentences could contain many clauses, which sometimes confused the learners and made them take the elements of subordinate clauses for the main clause, thereby distorting the meaning.

After identifying the important elements, a learner should add the premodifier of the nouns. Concerning this statement, the premodifiers are 'tall,' 'regal' and 'intelligent.' The post modifiers of the noun should also be added; these are 'prime minister of Pakistan' and 'Daughter of the East', as she titled her autobiography. Of course, this sentence is easier than sentences containing more subordinate clauses. For example, many learners take 'she used to be present with her mother' as the main clause in the following sentence: "In a highly attended civilian court, the size of the faculty of art and science, where she used to be present with her mother, she displayed an outrageous pimpled check towards the jury, who were enraged by her behavior."

In this sentence, the main elements are 'she displayed face.' If a learner identifies them and following this, adds the related elements in their appropriate place and sequence, then, he would be able to comprehend the sentence easily and correctly.

Culturally speaking, the English speaker or writer will delay the most important message to the end of the sentence, whereas the Arabic speaker initiates the sentence with the most important information or the main clause. For example, the Arabic speaker will sequence the information in the above sentence as follows: "She displayed an outrageous pimpled check towards the jury, who were enraged by her behavior…" One may ask why a teacher does not simplify the text to his learner instead of juxtaposing the authentic words, phrases, and patterns with the simplified ones. The answer is that the learner has to be exposed to authentic texts because

simplification is an intermediate temporary dependent stage in being transferred to a more independent stage simultaneously. Access to native speakers' natural language is a critical input of second language acquisition, which is of the determinative affective factors.

Teachers should be aware of the significance of the input in enhancing second language acquisition because learners rely on the input provided to them by their teachers for their learning process. They should expose their learners to different comprehensive texts which are rich in vocabulary. This was corroborated by Krashen (1985, 1989), who opined that input is highly important for second language acquisition. In the opinion of the author of the present research, this proved to be completely true. Throughout the process of learning and thirty years of teaching English as a foreign language, it was found that the various and comprehensive inputs that are well prepared by teachers would create an encouraging learning process. Here, the word input is not limited to language learning only, but to all the courses that are learned by learners, whether they were language courses, linguistics courses, literature courses, English Language Teaching (ELT) courses or any courses that are taught in BA English.

Student interaction is vital for language acquisition and comprehension of information. For example, the interaction was used by the researcher for teaching a course titled 'Language Acquisition.' It was found that learners comprehend information far better when discussing the subject with each other, as compared to when simply listening to teacher explanation alone. This was affirmed by Genesee (2014), who emphasized the role of student interactions in facilitating second language acquisition. For example, a language acquisition teacher who is cognizant of his contribution to students' English language development would create scenarios demanding student interactions.

Second language teachers should not restrict themselves to the role of facilitating the information of a particular course only, but they should facilitate the language as well. They should try to create an English environment in the classroom to integrate the information of the courses they teach in addition to the language skills. This can be achieved by the cooperative learning and interaction of learners themselves alongside the supervision, guidance, and assistance of the teacher. For example, in any course taught by the researcher, learners are instructed to follow this instruction.

It is mandatory for learners to acquaint themselves with the teaching materials that will be delivered in the next lecture, interact with the instructor and classmates during the delivery and make post teaching study. In this way, learners contribute to the teaching-learning process and gain mutual benefit. This process enables learners to build confidence in themselves, enhances their expressivity and consolidates their linguistic and subject knowledge. This is very important for language acquisition and learners studying any courses in a non-native language. In this way, learners interact with the input, deeply negotiate meaning, imprint language structures and improve their retention ability, memorability and vividness of concepts; this is necessary because foreign language learners need comprehensible input as well as repetitive reinforcement. This corrects and increases the internal representation of learners, which reflexes external linguistic realities. All these highlights the importance of the interaction for the production.

It is clear that learners will be able to avoid native language interference, second language over-generalization and the temptation of simplification, given more exposure and repetitive reading of the same patterns and structure. Therefore, a teacher should emphasize preparation, learner interaction, repetitive reading of teaching materials, clarify ambiguity and simplify any complex or unusual structures. A majority of learners are ready to work hard, but they are unsure of how to accomplish their aims. Consequently, they are frustrated when they unable to perform as required. A teacher should make it clear that foreign language acquisition is not difficult, given adequate time and effort. The type of learners the author dealt with over the past ten years were unaware of their interests in the subject and had lackadaisical attitudes, due to which they needed pursuance, and repetitive follow up. It was proved that many learners do very well if coerced to work. In order to avoid seasonal studies of students, it is necessary to introduce six mid-term examinations; consequently, learners were forced to read continuously to be able to take the exams.

A well-known fact is that the practice of English language teaching is unseparated from the use of appropriate learning materials and methods of facilitation. Syllabus designers and teachers should devise new methods and tasks, and increase awareness about existing ones, to facilitate learning. One of the most conspicuous technologies that can expedite language teaching and learning is the use of all the types of potential tasks such as text completion, guessing meaning from contexts, matching related meaning and information, ability of identifying, collocating words, illustrating ideas, enumerating points and filling the blanks from available or missing ones. In this context, the verbs for writing content and language objectives based on Bloom's taxonomy and the four domains of language are of great help in this respect. In other words, foreign language teachers should be creative, flexible, knowledgeable, assiduous, and patient, offer without limits and take great care of teaching materials; these are necessary to ensure comprehensible output. Teaching materials bridge the gap between what the learner wants to say and what he says. The experience says that learner's expressivity is hindered by the lack of expressions and enriched by comprehensive teaching materials.

One of the major roles of language teachers is neutralizing and marginalizing the negative affective factors involved in the process of language learning. For example, the connection of a learner to the second language community may contribute negatively or positively to the learning process. Therefore, the role of a good teacher is to try and eradicate erroneous concepts in the mind of his learners as far as possible. For instance, political and religious leanings play a great role in influencing learner attitudes towards the target language. However, teachers can easily neutralize these learners' attitudes, especially if they command the respect and confidence of their learners.

Conclusion

This article highlighted the purpose of sensitizing concepts for facilitating the teaching success of English Language teachers in Saudi Arabia. A teacher has to use every relevant approach to facilitate optimal learning effectively. He should be acquainted with different types of learners, different styles, knowledge, and type of learning and the method, approaches, and techniques for teaching every type of learner. A qualified teacher is well-endowed with critical thinking that enables him to manage and organize knowledge and make it accessible in a variety of forms. Good

classroom management and teaching skills, in addition to subject knowledge are very important for a qualified teacher. Similarly, the use of an engaging personality and teaching style, clear objectives for both teachers and learners and effective disciplinary skills, could contribute to the advancement of teaching and learning process. Preparation of comprehensive teaching materials, formal academic training, course planning and coherently organizing the teaching elements are basic characteristics of a qualified teacher that would be capable of creating a change in the targeted category of learners. Developing a tolerance for disruptive learners, handling them with equity, establishing trusting relationships with them, respecting them and accepting them as they are, creates a sense of community and belonging in the classroom. The teacher should be warm, accessible, enthusiastic, caring and flexible. He should explore new technologies for facilitating the teaching-learning process according to the needs of the situation. He should maintain professionalism in all areas of his presence. Furthermore, continuous collaboration with peers is mandatory for a good teacher and institution.

It was additionally seen that learning styles play an important role in the learning process. The majority of first-generation learners do not know of appropriate learning styles that are suited to them. Therefore, the first-generation teacher should train his learners by acquainting them with the appropriate methods of learning according to predispositions. Active learners who are willing to be involved in classroom discussions should be encouraged further by teachers to achieve excellence. Passive learners with a withdrawal syndrome and undesirable reticence should be guided by the teacher so that they may come out of their shells.

University teachers should develop analytical, synthetic and organizational faculties in their learners to prepare them for any potential difficulties. Teaching and learning styles are different, and their correspondence would enhance the teaching and learning process. Accordingly, a teacher should harmonize his teaching style with different learning entities. An excellent teacher should use different kinds of motivation to trigger the desired response from learners. A teacher has to articulate the objective of his lecture. He should not assume that his learners will be able to identify the objective of their own since they are university learners, especially in the context of Wadi Ad-Dawasir. Summarily, the teacher should be an emblem of ethical values and maintain the dignity of the teaching profession. The present research advocates for the benefit of the consanguinity between learning styles and teaching styles for developing conducive learning and teaching conditions; however, the research acknowledges that this consanguinity would not guarantee a successful learning achievement

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Readability of Reading Passages in English Textbooks and the Thai National Education English Test: A Comparative Study

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Abstract

Readability has long been regarded as a significant aspect in English language teaching as it provides the overall picture of a text's difficulty level, especially in the context of teaching and testing. Readability is a practical consideration when making decisions on materials to match a text with target readers' proficiency. However, few studies have compared the readability levels of teaching and testing materials in terms of the difficulty of passages. The present study, therefore, aims to explore the readability levels and the linguistic characteristics of reading passages in English textbooks and the Thai National Education English Test based on three readability formulas and eight aspects of linguistic characteristics as provided by the Coh-Metrix computational tool. Two sets of corpora were generated and analyzed by using Coh-Metrix as the main instrument. The obtained data from the reading passages compiled in the English textbooks and the Thai national education English test were compared to explore the significant differences. The results revealed a mismatch in the readability levels and linguistic characteristics. Passages from the English textbooks are easier than those used in the English test. It is recommended that all stakeholders in both teaching and testing administration be aware of the different levels of readability between reading passages. More considerations should be made when preparing the teaching and testing materials because a suitable difficulty level will ensure that students receive the most benefit from the materials. Moreover, an incongruity could affect students' learning and testing performance.

***Keywords**:* Coh-Metrix, English tests, English textbooks, readability, reading passages

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Introduction

In readability research, the ultimate goal is generally focused on making sure that a text or reading passages matches the target readers' proficiency. It is believed that matching the difficulty level and readers' proficiency will support language learning and development (Adams, 2009; Mesmer, 2005; Moje, 2006). Most studies in this area, therefore, focus on estimating the difficulty level of reading materials to make a suitable match with the target readers. However, reading passages are not only found in teaching materials. In a testing context, reading passages are mainly used in reading comprehension tests, and their linguistic characteristics are regarded as a neglected area (Solnyshkina, Harkova, & Kiselnikov, 2014). Relatively few studies have been published in the field of language testing, especially those focusing on a comparison of the readability levels of teaching and testing materials. The present study, therefore, aims to fill this gap by comparing the readability levels of reading passages comprised in teaching and testing materials. Using the Coh-Metrix computational tool, three types of readability formulas were employed: Flesch Reading Ease, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability. On top of that, eight linguistic characteristics proposed by McNamara, Grasser, McCarthy, and Cai (2014), namely, narrativity, syntactic simplicity, word concreteness, referential cohesion, deep cohesion, verb cohesion, connectivity, and temporality, were included in the analysis. It is believed that the findings would be beneficial to all parties involved in teaching and testing contexts.

Literature review

Readability can be defined as a measure to predict text difficulty using different kinds of readability formulas (Davies, 1995). Klare (1963) and Pikulski (2002) define readability as an indicator or a measure of the ease or difficulty of text comprehension. Alderson and Urquhart (1984) expand the definition by indicating that the level of ease or difficulty of texts is determined through the analysis of the features or various aspects of a text. Nuttall (2005) views that these features originate from both structural and lexical features.

Readability research involves studies related to the prediction of text difficulty level through the analysis of the text's features that might facilitate or obstruct the comprehension of the text. Many scholars have tried to develop and try out readability formulas in order to find the most suitable way to predict text readability level.

Readability is generally measured by using readability formulas. Flesch Reading Ease and Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level are the two most common and practical methods used in estimating difficulty level (Solnyshkina et al.: 2014). These two formulas assess the difficulty level based on the word and sentence length in the target reading text (Flesch, 1948). The assumption is that texts consisting of longer words and lengthy sentences tend to require more time to process, making them more challenging to understand (Graesser et al., 2001). These two formulas are very popular among educators due to their practicality and the evidence that they employ objective criteria in assessing the difficulty level (Zamanian & Heydari, 2012). However, there are some critics. Kirkwood and Wolfe (1980) claim that the variables behind the formulas are based on the surface level of the text, which can possibly be invalid. A text with jumbled sentences can be easy to read because it consists of familiar words, and it is short. Schriver (1989) and Dreyer (1984) also argue that the formulas disregard the whole text aspects and ignore the flow of ideas throughout a reading text. Apart from using readability formulas to estimate the difficulty level, a tool needs to be

developed that could assess the challenges of a reading text at the word, sentence, and deeper levels of language. Toward the end, Crossley, Salsbury, McCarthy, and McNamara (2008) developed a unidimensional readability formula called the Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula, which incorporates a deeper analysis of the cohesion between sentences into the formula. This formula is claimed to produce the more valid and objective results, which not only describe the superficial characteristics of a text but also deeper levels of discourse in the algorithm.

Meanwhile, the Coh-Metrix Easability Components provide a better picture of text difficulty based on the linguistic characteristics of the reading text, which are narrativity, syntactic simplicity, word concreteness, referential cohesion, deep cohesion, verb cohesion, connectivity, and temporality (McNamara et al., 2014).

The narrative features are the characteristics of a reading text that focus on telling a story via characters, events, and places. They are closely related to word familiarity, world knowledge and everyday oral language. Narrative text is easier to comprehend than informational text (Graesser, Olde, & Klettke, 2002)

Syntactic simplicity reflects the degree of words per sentence, and the familiarity and simplicity of the syntactic structures of the sentence. Sentences that contain more words and complex structures are more challenging to process (McNamara, Graesser, McCarthy, & Cai, 2004).

Word concreteness analyzes the characteristic of words included in a text. A text that contains a higher number of concrete and meaningful words will enhance comprehension. Concrete words are better at evoking mental image than abstract words, making texts with a greater number of abstract words more difficult to comprehend (McNamara et al., 2014)

Referential cohesion reflects the overlapping of words and ideas across sentences and the entire text, forming explicit connections throughout a text and making it more cohesive. A highly cohesive text is typically less challenging to read because of the explicit connections between ideas (McNamara & Graesser, 2012).

Deep cohesion refers to the degree to which a text has causal and intentional connectives. These types of connectives can make causal and logical relationships more explicit, enabling readers to better understand the meaning of a text. A text that contains more explicit connectives is easier to process since it can reduce the need for inference while reading (McNamara et al., 2014).

Verb cohesion refers to the analysis of overlapping verbs in a reading text. These repeated verbs, usually found in narrative texts and texts for young readers, make a text more coherent, which facilitates situation model understanding (McNamara, Graesser, & Louwerse, 2012).

Connectivity reflects the explicit use of adversative, additive, and comparative connectives in a reading text. The use of connective words can make the logical connections in a text more explicit, facilitating reading comprehension (McNamara et al., 2014).

Temporality shows the consistency of tense and aspect used in a reading text. The more consistent the text is, the easier it is for readers to process and understand (McNamara et al., 2014).

Incorporating these linguistic characteristics with traditional readability formulas using Coh-Metrix allows for better prediction of text difficulty and a more accurate picture of readability level since they cover both the surface and deep levels of text analysis.

Research questions

1. What are the readability levels of reading passages in English textbooks (CPET) and the Thai National Education English Test (CONET)?
2. What are the linguistic characteristics of reading passages in English textbooks (CPET) and the Thai National Education English Test (CONET)?

Research methodology

Two sets of corpora were built for data analysis. The first corpus was a collection of 155 reading passages in English textbooks prescribed and certified by the Office of Basic Education Commission. These textbooks are used as the main teaching resources and materials for the English subject in M.6 (Grade 12). The second corpus was a collection of 20 reading passages in seven Thai National Education English Tests.

Each passage included in the corpora was computationally analyzed using Coh-Metrix (http://tool.cohmetrix.com/). The results were then calculated to find the average percentages of the two sets of corpora. To answer the first research question, three types of readability formulas were selected: Flesch Reading Ease, Flesh-Kincaid Grade Level, and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability. For the second research question, eight linguistic characteristics (narrativity, syntactic simplicity, word concreteness, referential cohesion, deep cohesion, verb cohesion, connectivity, and temporality) were analyzed. The results were averaged to obtain the mean values and then further analyzed using t-test to find out the significantly different aspects of the linguistic characteristics.

Results

Research Question 1

To answer the first research question, "What are the readability levels of reading passages used in the English textbooks (CPET) and the Thai National Education English Test (CONET)?", three indices of the Coh-Metrix concerned with readability formulas were used as tools: Flesch Reading Ease, Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level, and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability. In interpreting the values for Flesch Reading Ease and Coh-Metrix L2 Readability, a higher value represented a less difficult reading passage whereas a lower value indicated a more difficult reading passage. For the Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level formula, a higher value represented more difficult reading passages, which are probably used in a higher grade level; meanwhile, a lower value indicated less difficult reading passages, which are used in a lower grade level. The following table illustrates a comparison of the average readability levels obtained from the three readability formulas.

Table 1. *Comparison of the average readability levels of passages from CPET and CONET: Means (M) and Standard Deviation (SD)*

Index	CPET		CONET	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Flesch Reading Ease	**70.684**	12.070	***60.189***	13.935
Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level	**6.889**	2.255	***8.696***	2.416
Coh-Metrix L2 Readability	**16.476**	6.076	***10.932***	3.339

Table 1 displays the average readability levels obtained from the two corpora (CPET and CONET). As can be seen, all three readability formulas yielded congruent results. The results showed that the readability level of the reading passages in CPET was easier for the readers than those of CONET.

The average readability values from the Flesch Reading Ease formula (M=70.684 SD=12.070 > M=60.189 SD=13.936) showed that the mean value of CPET was higher than that of CONET, indicating that the reading passages from CPET are easier than CONET. The values from Coh-Metrix L2 Readability formula yielded the same results, indicating that CPET is easier than CONET (M=16.476 SD=6.076 > M=10.932 SD=3.339). The results were in line with the ones obtained from Flesch-Kincaid Grade Level formula, indicating that the reading passages in CPET are easier, at the approximate level of grade 6, whereas the passages in CONET are at grade 8 (M=6.889 SD=2.255 < M=8.696 SD=2.416).

Research Question 2

Coh-Metrix was also used as the main instrument to answer the second research question "What are the linguistic characteristics of reading passages used in English textbooks (CPET) and the Thai National Education English Test (CONET)?" The results were analyzed to find the significantly different values using a t-test. The following table displays the results.

Table 2. *The Linguistic Characteristics of CPET and CONET: Means (M) and Standard Deviation (SD)*

Linguistic characteristics	CPET		CONET			RESULTS	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	t	CPET easier	CONET easier
Narrativity	**57.585**	29.427	33.753	21.859	-4.390*	✓	
Syntactic simplicity	45.929	23.676	47.716	45.930	0.706	-	-
Word concreteness	67.781	27.180	**72.446**	23.725	0.732*		✓

Referential cohesion	**30.554**	26.621	19.294	26.087	-1.784*	✓	
Deep cohesion	56.079	32.383	**64.668**	24.000	1.440*		✓
Verb cohesion	45.988	29.735	43.713	28.198	-0.324	-	-
Connectivity	10.115	19.127	**25.629**	28.694	2.351*		✓
Temporality	**58.798**	32.383	45.670	29.131	-1.724*	✓	-

Note: * = significantly different value

As illustrated in Table 2, the six aspects of linguistic characteristics that were found to be significantly different between CPET and CONET were narrativity, word concreteness, referential cohesion, deep cohesion, connectivity, and temporality. However, the mean values obtained from the other two aspects, namely, syntactic simplicity and verb cohesion, were not significantly different.

In interpreting the results shown in Table 2, the higher values represented a lower difficulty level. As can be seen in the table, three linguistic characteristics showed that the passages in CPET have a lower readability level than those of CONET: narrativity (M = 57.585 SD = 29.427 > M =33.753 SD = 21.859), referential cohesion (M=30.554 SD = 26.621 >M = 19.294 SD = 26.087), and temporality (M = 58.798 SD = 32.383 > M = 45.670 SD = 29.131). Meanwhile, CONET contained three linguistic characteristics that support ease in comprehension: word concreteness (M = 72.466 SD = 23.725 > M = 67.781 SD = 27.180), deep cohesion (M = 64.668 SD = 24.000 > M =56.079 SD = 32.383), and connectivity (M = 25.629 SD = 28.694 > M = 10.115 SD = 19.127).

Discussion

Research question 1

The results indicate incongruent readability levels between the teaching and testing materials. It seems that the teaching materials that Thai students are exposed to are easier than the reading passages on the tests, which might have an effect on the test results. In the view of Shohamy (1993) and Hughes (2013), test results can have crucial consequences for various stakeholders, such as students, teachers, and the schools. The most important stakeholders are the students as they are directly affected by test results (Pan & Newfields, 2012). It seems more than a little bit unfair for students to take achievement tests that are more difficult than the material they have been taught at their grade level. This disparity between readability levels may be a cause of anxiety, which Aydin (2009) claims has a significant effect on students' learning and testing performance. A study conducted by Lunrasri (2014) on the perceptions of students toward the national English test (O-NET) showed that most students fear getting a low score. Additionally, the students stated that the content on the test was more difficult than what they were taught in class, especially the vocabulary part. Some students reported that there were words they had never seen or had never been taught before. This may encourage students to resort to tutoring schools in order to prepare for the national test, raising questions about fairness since tutoring is less affordable for those with lower incomes. This concern is given credence by Goodman (2017), who found that urban students in Thailand were likely to score higher on tests than rural students

because they may have more access to educational technology and private tutoring. Messick (1996) also discussed the social consequences of testing, contending that 'consequential validity' can be part of the broader concept of test validity.

Teachers can also be affected due to pressure from schools, students' parents, or even students themselves. In the view of Alderson and Wall (1993, p.117), tests may force teachers to do what "they would not otherwise necessarily do", potentially impacting their teaching practice. For example, teachers may be tempted to forego the prescribed teaching materials and use previous tests or mock tests as teaching materials (Cheng, 2003). Lunrasri (2014) found that some Thai teachers reported negative washback from high-stakes tests on their teaching practices, claiming they had to spend more time preparing students for the test rather than teaching the content prescribed by the curriculum. This may rob students of the chance to improve their language skills and overall proficiency.

The schools or institutions might also be affected by the discrepancy in the difficulty levels of the teaching and testing materials. According to the standards set by the Office for National Education Standards and Quality Assessment (ONESQA), the O-NET results are used as one of the twelve criteria for the evaluation of a school's quality. The results of this high-stakes test may thus have a great impact on the teaching and learning practices in schools, as well as the school administration. According to Goodman (2017), many of the stakeholders, specifically the principals, view O-NET scores as the most important criterion. Low O-NET scores can cause a school to fail the quality evaluation, damaging its reputation. School principals therefore put great effort toward improving students' scores. Negative effects from high-stakes testing are not limited to Thailand. A study conducted by Sundayana, Meekaeo, Purnawarman, and Sukyadi (2018) found that schools in Thailand and Indonesia set up special test preparation programs to enhance students' test-taking skills before the actual test. Further evidence was obtained in the study of Lunrasri (2014), who determined that school principals in one province of Thailand directed teachers to conduct special classes to go over old test exams, as well as tutor and train students to cope with the actual test.

Research question 2

Apart from the incongruent readability levels in the CPET and CONET, some differences were also discovered in the linguistic characteristics of the reading passages. Specifically, the narrativity scores indicate that the CPET is easier in terms of the genre of reading passages. This suggests that the CPET contains more passages that have the characteristics of narrative text than those found in CONET. According to McNamara et al. (2014), a text with high narrativity tends to have more familiar oral language that is easier to understand. Moreover, Ismail and Yusof (2016) concluded that passages containing more characteristics of narrativity are likely to be easier to process than reading materials that are more informational, especially for younger readers.

In addition, there is more evidence of referential cohesion in CPET than in CONET, with the passages in the former containing more overlapping words and ideas across the sentences. As a result, the concepts and content are more explicit, which can support the comprehension process and make the passages in CPET less challenging. This explicit coreference enables readers to

make connections and understand the relationships between propositions, clauses, and sentences across the whole passages (Halliday & Hasan, 1976; McNamara & Kintsch, 1996). On the contrary, texts with low referential cohesion can be problematic and cause frustration for readers who read independently (Isamail & Yusof, 2016).

Further evidence that CPET contains features that aid in the comprehension of reading passages is provided by the high scores on 'temporality,' which reveals the cues of the time used in the passages. Cues of time are related to the genre of narrativity because stories are likely to be narrated through time sequences. Moreover, the high temporality scores also suggest consistency with respect to tense and aspect within the reading passages. This facilitates the comprehension process since the readers do not have to worry very much about tense while processing the reading passages.

Based on the six indices of the Text Easability Component scores, CONET has three features that are found more in less difficult reading passages. The first one is 'word concreteness'. Passages in CONET have a higher number of concrete words, which means the words are more meaningful than those found in CPET. This may facilitate readers as concrete words evoke mental images and enable them to create a situation model in the reading process. Passages containing words that are more concrete also give readers more time to use their working memory to process and comprehend what they read (Perfetti, 2007). Moreover, Silfhout (2014) contends that texts containing many concrete words are more interesting, and this can better facilitate comprehension than abstract words. The higher word concreteness in CONET seems sensible because students have to take the test by themselves without any support from others within a limited period of time. In contrast, reading passages in classroom teaching materials may contain a higher number of abstract words because students can ask for clarification from their teachers.

There is also greater evidence of deep cohesion in CONET, which means the reading passages contain more causal and intentional connectives. This makes the logical relationships in the passages clearer for the readers, possibly enabling them to infer the meaning of a text. Reading passages with explicit relationships and global cohesion are easier for readers to comprehend because the logical relationships between ideas in the text are made explicitly via connective words. (McNamara et al, 2014). Thus, students do not have to make many inferences.

CONET also features greater 'connectivity,' which refers to the use of adversative, additive, and comparative connections. The use of explicit connective words can reduce the need to make inferences in the comprehension process, potentially supporting the ease of reading**.** Graesser, McNamara, Louwerse, and Cai (2004) state that texts which are high in connectives can aid in the process of making connections between the concepts presented in a text and readers' existing knowledge, resulting in a clearer and more coherent mental representation. Silfhout, Evers-Vermeul, and Sanders (2015) also determined that reading a text with explicit connective words could lead to a higher performance in comprehension tasks than reading implicit or non-connective texts. The evidence suggests greater use of connective words in the reading passages in CONET. Graesser, McNamara, and Louwerse (2003) found that some cohesive devices have a distinctive role in presenting the rhetorical structure of the passages. The uses of adversative, additive, and comparative connectives show that the passages in CONET are mainly focused on

giving information, indicating that the reading passages are more expository than narrative, in contrast to CPET.

No significant differences were found with respect to the other two linguistic characteristics, syntactic simplicity and verb cohesion. Syntactic simplicity refers to the number of words per sentence and the syntactic structure of the sentences in the passages. The insignificant differences found between the passages used in teaching and testing may have resulted from the limitation of passage length. It is common to see similarity in terms of sentence complexity and length in the reading passages contained in teaching and testing materials. The results showed that CPET and CONET are not different in terms of syntactic simplicity. For verb cohesion, which reflects the degree of overlapping verbs in the reading passages, the results also showed insignificant differences between CPET and CONET. According to McNamara et al. (2014), this feature is less related to the ease of the text.

Besides providing evidence on ease in reading comprehension, the linguistic characteristics found in CPET and CONET also bring to light the outstanding characteristics of the reading passages. In CPET, the higher incidences of narrativity and temporality are relevant, as this suggests that the reading passages in English textbooks are usually narrative. The higher values in 'referential cohesion' also support the narrative features of the reading passages. The use of overlapping words, especially those related to content words and noun and pronoun references, can support the narrative features since they show how the story and ideas relate to each other throughout the reading text. It can be briefly summarized that the linguistic characteristics found in CPET provide strong evidence that the reading passages in English textbooks are narrative.

Meanwhile, the analysis of the linguistic characteristics in CONET revealed higher values in terms of deep cohesion and connectivity, two aspects that are related to the evidence of the use of explicit connectives in the reading passages. The types of connective words can illustrate the genre of reading passages. For example, CONET has connective words, which show causal, logical, additive, and comparative relationships of ideas throughout the reading passages. It can be inferred that the passages in CONET are more informational whereas CPET has more narrative texts.

In sum, both CPET and CONET contain linguistic characteristics that support the ease in comprehension process. Moreover, the linguistic characteristics found in both corpora illustrate the distinctive features of the reading passages used for teaching and testing materials. However, more narrative texts are employed in a teaching context, whereas texts that are more informational are used as test materials.

Implications

The results of the study provided strong evidence of incongruent readability levels between the reading passages used in teaching materials (CPET) and testing materials (CONET). As the latter, in this context, is designed to be an achievement test, it should accurately assess students' mastery of course content and their depth of learning. Flateby (2014) concludes that if a test reflects the content and the level of cognitive demand, valid and reliable results on students' achievement should be obtained; on the other hand, if a test is far more challenging than the material students

have been taught in class, the test results may be less valid. Therefore, more consideration needs to be given to the process of materials selection.

In order to construct a valid test, the designers need to conduct an in-depth review of the aims of the core curriculum and the content provided in the teaching materials. The revision might employ a tool to check both the readability levels of the materials and the outstanding linguistic characteristics of the main teaching resources. The results obtained from this investigation will provide insight into the teaching materials used in courses, which can serve as the basis for designing a national achievement test that matches the content to be assessed. The test results would provide an accurate assessment of the actual performance of the students, enhancing the validity of the test.

Limitation

The present study focused on analyzing the readability levels of the reading passages used in teaching (CPET) and testing (CONET) contexts. However, when estimating the difficulty level of the reading texts, other fundamental considerations, such as the readers and the reading tasks or activities, should be taken into account. The interaction of the readers and the target reading texts in terms of reading proficiency levels, motivation, and reading purposes has an effect on the comprehension process. Moreover, the requirements of the reading tasks also influence how readers tackle a text. These factors were beyond the scope of the present study. Therefore, interpretation or generalization of the results of the present study should be undertaken with careful consideration as it aimed to estimate the difficulty level of the reading texts by considering only one fundamental factor: the text.

Conclusion

The study aimed to analyze the readability of the reading passages using three readability formulas and eight linguistic characteristics as the main instruments. The results revealed incongruent readability levels between the two corpora. Moreover, the passages used in each corpus also had distinctive linguistic characteristics that facilitated reading comprehension. Based on the results of the study, it is recommended that test developers take the readability level and the unique linguistic characteristics of reading passages into consideration when designing a high-stakes test.

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English Language Teaching: Historical Overview, Current Issues and Suggestions for Enhancing Speaking Proficiency in EFL Contexts

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Abstract
The history of English Language Teaching (ELT) and learning in English as a Second and Foreign Language (ESL and EFL) contexts has gone through different practices. The role of memorization and repetition of English language structures has always been a dominant teaching attitude. This attitude has revealed unsuccessful results in promoting speaking proficiency among English language learners when communicating in real-world situations beyond the classroom context. Therefore, it is essential to address such practices and shed light on some of the issues that hinder English Language Learners (ELLs) from effectively using English in real-world communicative situations. This review paper focuses on ELT practices that have been unsuccessful in promoting English language learners' speaking proficiency. Additionally, it provides implications for classroom teaching instructions that integrate authentic tasks and materials. Implementing meaningful tasks that represent real-world situations could be a promising solution for enhancing ELLs' language competencies to enable them to transfer the language they learn to real-life situations beyond school settings. Some practical suggestions and recommendations are provided to enhance ELT in EFL contexts.

Keywords: *Authentic tasks and materials, communication skills, EFL, pronunciation, speaking proficiency*
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1. Introduction

Throughout the history of teaching English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL), instructors mainly required that learners learn the language through memorization and repetition of the second language (L2) structures without exposing them to real-life situations. These practices were unsuccessful in promoting English language learners' (ELLs) capacity when communicating in different life situations using the target language (TL). However, it is essential to incorporate new trends in ELT through integrating meaningful materials and authentic tasks that represent real-world situations and thus promote ELLs' competencies to transfer the language they are learning to situations beyond the classroom.

Research in the field of Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition has an essential role in constructing and modifying different approaches and methods for ELT for the purpose of guiding language learners to communicate effectively in the new language (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011) mention three terms related to language teaching: Approach, method, and strategy. The term approach refers to fundamental philosophies and theories about the nature of language, the way it is learned and acquired, and how it is delivered. A teaching method is the practical application of an approach, which includes a set of strategies and techniques for delivering classroom instructions using different materials and activities. Teaching strategies are subsets of a method, which are formed by sequences of techniques (activities) that teachers use when designing their lesson plan to accomplish certain goals (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011; Wright, 2010).

Raising English language teachers' awareness of how these approaches and methods have evolved over history would facilitate their ability to make the best-informed teaching decisions. This paper provides an overview of ELT practices, approaches, methods, and strategies that have been used in ELT contexts. Furthermore, it suggests effective language-teaching practices; these integrate authentic tasks and materials to promote language learners' autonomy when they communicate in English more effectively and meaningfully, particularly in EFL contexts. Focus is on modern teaching practices that English language teachers should utilize to promote ELLs' speaking proficiency. Finally, this paper provides recommendations for effective teaching practices that could enhance language-learning capacities in the 21st Century.

2. The History of ELT Approaches, Methods and Materials

The history of ELT shows the development of different types of approaches and methods as a response to meet the demands of English language teaching and learning (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Throughout this history, the emergence and development of different theories in Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition have influenced the types of methods used in ELT. That is, ELT has moved its practices from general theories related to the nature of languages and language learning to more specific theories that reinforce the importance of language that language learners receive. Consequently, modern ELT methods have replaced traditional and old-fashioned methods to resolve issues that hinder successful language learning and application. That is, old instructional methods that emphasized the role of translation and memorization of the L2 language rules and patterns failed to achieve the ultimate purpose, which is language communication. These have shifted to modern methods that promote students' capacities to communicate the language in real-life situations (Richards & Rodgers, 2014; Wright, 2010).

ELT has experienced three phases of instructional approaches and methods: the traditional methods phase, the modern approach phase, and the post-method phase. The first phase was based on multiple instructional approaches and methods, which include the Grammar-Translation Method, the Direct Method (also called the Natural Method), the Audio-Lingual Method, the Community Language Teaching Approach, and the Total Physical Response Approach (also called the Comprehension Approach). Each of these has emerged subsequently as a reaction to a previously unsuccessful method as well as a way to meet and fulfill particular demands regarding language teaching and learning (Celce-Murcia, 2014). The second phase brought a modern approach to meet current ELT demands and to help language learners communicate the classroom language they learn and effectively use it in real situations beyond the classroom settings. This approach is known as the Communicative Approach and has two versions in ELT: the weak version that teaches English through content subjects (known as Content-Based Language Teaching), and the strong version that teaches English through tasks (known as Task-Based Language Teaching) (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

The third phase is known as the post-method era, which was developed as a criticism to the notion of methods that some are superior to others. Building on such a consensus, Prabhu (1990) explains that the answer to the question, "Why is there is no best method" has three possible answers: different teaching and learning settings require different methods; some validity and truth do exist in all methods, and there is no good or bad method (as cited in Celce-Murcia, 2014, 10). However, it has been argued that the best classroom instructions should be designed based on a "well-established" language teaching and learning principles (Celce-Murcia, 2014, p. 10). Such principles were proposed by Kumaravadivelu (1994) and are summarized as following: "Maximize learning opportunity, facilitate negotiated interaction, minimize perceptual mismatches, activate intuitive heuristics, foster language awareness, contextualize linguistic input, integrate language skills, promote learner autonomy, raise cultural consciousness, ensure social relevance" (Celce-Murcia, 2014, pp. 10, 11). Implementation of these principles are essential in today's classroom instruction and practices and should receive attention from English language teachers, especially in EFL contexts where TL interaction outside the classroom is very limited.

3. Current ELT Issues in EFL Contexts

English language teachers around the world, particularly in EFL contexts, are still in favor of using traditional teaching practices that make language learners analyze, memorize, and translate structures and chunks of the English language rather than allowing them to learn the language for the purpose of communication (Celce-Murcia, 2014). Such practices greatly emphasize the role of memorization of vocabulary items and language forms in abstract and passive manners instead of integrating them into meaningful tasks. In such contexts, teachers rely solely on language-related materials (textbooks) that actually should only be used as references for printed language exposure to facilitate language instructions and learning. Such textbooks, alone, have never been enough to guide ELLs to effectively acquire and authentically apply the language they learn in the classroom to real-world communicative situations. Moreover, those teachers put more emphasis on classroom instruction that focuses on memorization of vocabulary items and grammatical rules and structures of the TL, but they do not emphasize instruction that teaches how to use and connect these language forms with their actual meaning and when to apply them successfully in real-life situations.

Consequently, such practices have not succeeded in meeting the demands that ELLs should be able to communicate in the TL in situations beyond the classroom context. Furthermore, such ELT practices result in passive language learners who at least have mastered the linguistic rules through memorization but still lack other essential language-related competencies including communicative, sociolinguistic, strategic, and discourse competencies (Duff, 2014).

Because the ultimate goal of language learning is communication, not memorization, language teaching should aim to meet this goal. Consequently, great emphasis should be given, not exclusively to abstract linguistic structures, but also to a variety of tangible linguistic content that is carried out through use of meaningful methods and materials to make language learning more useful and applicable in current real-life communicative situations. Additionally, teachers should use a variety of contextualized language input—the language that is carried out through content and meaningful situations—inside the classroom to give their students a better chance to internalize and use a variety of language structures. That is, teachers should present the language through meaningful (authentic) materials and hands-on classroom activities (tasks). Additionally, the different language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) should not be dealt with in isolation, but should be integrated during the classroom instruction and activities (Celce-Murcia, 2014). Instructors should consider these principles when teaching L2 learners in order to promote not only their speaking proficiency, but also their proficiency in all language skills.

Another essential issue to mention is classroom language exposure. Focusing merely on the language textbook is not enough in promoting oral communicative skills. Thus, teachers should expose their students to meaningful language patterns used in everyday life by native speakers through audio and audiovisual materials followed by practical activities and tasks to reinforce the language being used. For example, when teachers aim to teach their students how to make a shopping list or place an order from a restaurant, they should represent the actual situation through authentic and concrete materials and have the students practice the targeted language forms within such tasks.

4. Integrating Authentic-Based Materials and Tasks

The idea of using authentic-based materials and tasks is to represent real-world situations. Such materials and tasks should represent realistic and current (local and global) issues, examples of such issues might be found in corpora (mainly spoken corpora) of the TL (see McCarthy & Carter, 2006). It is essential to present real-world and current issues that reflect our current, everyday life, such as social, health, political, economic, and environmental issues. These are examples of local and global themes that L2 learners need to add to their language learning capacity. Students should be the center of language learning where the teacher's responsibility is to create interactive tasks and the students' role is to initiate relevant discussions about these issues. Such tasks should be incorporated with authentic materials (See Appendix A for a list of online resources) for better language exposure to develop students' awareness when applying the language they gain to such interactive tasks. Using tasks that focus only on limited issues related to students' social and cultural norms might limit their language capacity when they need to communicate globally. Consequently, a variety of tasks incorporating different local and global issues help to fulfill the demands and expectations that students need in order to survive in this increasingly interconnected world.

Engaging students to work collaboratively, for example, in problem-solving tasks of current global issues, creates an active learning environment and contributes in promoting their critical and creative thinking skills. According to Larsen-Freeman and Anderson (2011), it is important to design such tasks in a way that that provides practice of unrehearsed language patterns in order to foster their autonomy in delivering creative and new language patterns during classroom interactions and beyond.

The term "real-world tasks" was defined as "the hundred and one things people do in everyday life, at work, at play and in between" (Nunan, 2014, p. 458). For example, students should learn how to make a reservation at a hotel, negotiate how to arrange a meeting or plan a weekend activity, invite friends to a party, meet someone for the first time, have an appointment/visit with a doctor, and so forth. This list could go on; however, teachers need to consider which tasks to use with students at what times.

An important aim of using of authentic tasks and materials is to motivate students to learn the language. Therefore, teachers should discuss with their students the tasks that meet their interests. Just as important, such tasks should be adapted to meet students' age and proficiency levels. By having these properties in mind, such tasks and materials will stimulate students to use a variety of communication and linguistic skills. In addition, students will use their ability to connect knowledge of these skills to language functions and meaning, which further contributes in promoting their communicative competence (Nunan, 2014).

5. Types of Authentic Tasks

Nunan (2014) mentions two types of tasks: Targeted tasks (the use of language in real-world situations like household chores) and pedagogical tasks (tasks that teachers design for students to do in the classroom to acquire language). Both types of tasks have different meanings, but they are still connected to each other and are essential in classroom planning and arrangement (Nunan, 2014). Teachers might integrate both types of tasks into a one-fixed task that includes an example of a real-world issue and the targeted forms of the language. For example, teachers might teach the use of past tense forms through story-telling or the use of present tense forms through talking about daily routines in their lives.

5.1 Classroom Applications of Authentic Tasks and Materials

Classroom instruction and knowledge of language learning processes should apply some features to achieve the goals of authentic tasks and materials. First, the role of teachers is to share with their students the expectations that they need to meet. Teachers need to work as facilitators of learning, not only deliverers of content, and their function is to provide students with feedback that is preferably immediate while they are communicating during classroom tasks. Teachers might engage in classroom communications by establishing a situation or further prompts that are likely to keep communications constant. Second, students need to acquire communication skills—those that they need to know when interacting in a given task, for example, "stating opinions, agreeing or disagreeing, interrupting and clarifying" (Lazaraton, 2014, p. 112). Third, based on the nature of the tasks, students may work individually (for example, to present an issue), in pairs or in groups (for example, to exchange meanings). Finally, tasks should have three main characteristics in order

to facilitate development of communicative skills: Information gap, choice, and feedback (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

5.2 Information Gap

Information gap is one of the main features that a learning task should incorporate to make communication more effective and meaningful. Students are motivated to fill such a gap by using the language in a collaborative situation (Ellis, 2003). The idea is to have students work in pairs, or small groups, on a task where each one has information that is different from that of his partner so they can both have an opportunity to exchange meaning (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). For example, two students may do some oral communication to arrange a meeting with two of their friends during the weekend (see Figure 1). Each one has a schedule, which is divided into multiple slots. Each one has some of these slots containing information regarding what his friends are doing during the weekend; the other slots are left blank. The role of each student is to ask the others questions or give appropriate prompts so they can exchange information to fill in all the missing gaps until they decide which day at what time they can meet and who can or cannot join the meeting (Nunan, 2014). The goal of such an activity is to promote students' awareness in using appropriate language to negotiate plans in the future.

Student A Worksheet

	Friday evening	Saturday evening	Sunday evening
Student 1	late work	…….	family meeting
Student 2	…….	free	…….

	Friday evening	Saturday evening	Sunday evening
Students 1	…….	have a meeting	…….
Students 2	doing house	……..	free

Figure 1 Information Gap Task: Meeting Arrangement (adapted from Nunan, 2014)

This activity might be modified in a particular way that meets students' proficiency level; for example, providing students with oral prompts instead of written, especially for beginner language learners. In addition, teachers might manipulate the task function in a way where students can use a particular language structure to negotiate meaning, for example, present or past activities. This will give students an opportunity to apply linguistic skills with communication skills in authentic situations to promote their communicative proficiency and accuracy.

5.3 Choice

The second feature that classroom tasks should have in order to facilitate development of real-life communication ability is giving the students the opportunity and freedom to choose what they want to say and how to say it. Otherwise, if students are provided with controlled tasks that limit them to conveying meaning in one way, the interaction is thus neither communicative, nor authentic. So, in order for real communication to occur, students should be given the chance to choose whatever possible structure and meaning (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011).

5.4 Feedback

The third necessary feature of tasks is to encourage interlocutors to provide feedback to each other during classroom communication activities. Real communication has a purpose in which an interlocutor should be able to use the message s/he receives from the listener to decide whether his/her message has been successfully received (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Receiving incomprehensible input from either of the interlocutors, however, prevents the communication from continuing, unless students negotiate meaning by employing strategies such as clarifying, asking questions, using synonyms or drawing, etc. Therefore, arranging for classroom conversations among students is a good activity in promoting their communication skills. Teachers might assign their students any controversial issue and ask each two students to prepare at home by reading about the issue. The next day, each pair of students stand in front of their classmates to carry on a conversation about the issue where each one should have a position that disputes the other.

Teachers might also encourage their students to do classroom presentations to promote their self-confidence in using the language. Such presentations might be assigned as individually prepared work or as group-based work, depending on the number of the students. Students, with their teacher's assistance, can choose their topic based on their interest. Classroom presentations usually, especially with young learners, improve students' self-confidence when using the language in front of an audience. Teachers will have the opportunity to assess their students' progress and provide feedback instantly. They may video-record their students' presentations, so they can refer back to them when targeting a particular language feature or communication skill. One possible textbook reference of presentation tasks is one of the Present Yourself book series by Gershon (2008) as they involve a variety of topics targeted for students at earlier stages of language development (Lazaraton, 2014).

6. Focus on Language Forms, Functions, and Meaning

Language forms and their functions are essential for conveying accurate meaning during classroom communication (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011) and beyond. Leading students toward achieving such competence requires teachers to differentiate tasks in a way that prompts students to use a variety of forms while communicating meaning. For example, when doing an information-gap task, students would most appropriately communicate the meaning using future forms. Hence, students' knowledge of forms, meanings, and functions as well as social issues is an essential aspect to successful communication.

The idea of classroom communication has been interpreted as having two sets: the strong interpretation and the weak interpretation. Advocates of the strong interpretation believe that

"communicative engagement in tasks provides the necessary and sufficient condition for SLA" (Nunan, 2014, p. 460). In contrast, advocates of the weak interpretation believe that "a systematic focus on language system is also healthy for language acquisition" (Nunan, 2014, p. 460). However, more emphasis should be given to language functions over forms using a functional syllabus. A functional syllabus includes general topics that aim to elicit particular use of speech practices, for example, greeting, inviting, meeting, and complaining that are presented within a social context (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). A good resource that teachers might use is Grammar Practice Activities (Ur, 2009), which provides fruitful exercises and tasks that address both communications and functions.

When teaching a particular language form and its function, instructors will be more helpful to low-proficiency students by starting with simple and meaningful language examples. However, high-proficiency level students might learn language forms and their functions through more complex language examples. For example, a teacher might teach his low-proficiency level students that some verbs require an –s ending when talking about a third-person. A good activity in this case is to use interactive tasks that require students to practice asking and answering questions that describe a family member's daily routines on a given weekday. In this activity, the teacher first gives an example of his/her own daily routines while focusing the attention to the form s/he used when talking about him/herself. Then, make another example by describing someone of his/her family member's daily routine while students' attention is directed to the new form being used. To do such an activity, the teacher should bring a chart that includes pictures of different daily-life activities to show students the possible vocabulary items needed to achieve the task. Then, each student receives a card (see Figure 2) to fill in with activities of their family members' daily routine, on Saturday as an example. After that, the teacher divides students into pairs to do the task. Finally, each one will ask a question and the other will give an answer using the information on the card. For example:

Student 1 might say: What does <u>your brother</u> do on Saturday <u>night</u>?
Student 2 may reply: He <u>meets</u> his friends.

What does (*<u>someone</u>*) do on Saturday (*<u>specific time</u>*)?

Specific Time	Daily routine activity
Morning	……
Afternoon	……
Evening	……
Night	……

Figure 2 Interaction Task: Daily Routine Activities (adapted from Ur, 2009)

A modification of the previous task allows students to practice a variety of complex language forms and their functions. For example, teachers might design tasks that help students to

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learn how, when, and in what situations to modify action verbs. This could be applied by creating a variety of targeted situations where students practice asking each others, for example, about actions that take place at the time of speaking (adding –ing to an action verb) or about situations that took place in the past (adding –ed to an action verb). Doing so promotes students' awareness of 1) communicating meaning and 2) mastering a variety of language forms and their functions (linguistic competence) simultaneously and authentically.

Another activity to promote students communicative, linguistic, and sociocultural competence is to have students do role-plays. Lazaraton (2014) mentions an excellent reference, Speaking Naturally (see Tillitt & Bruder, 1985) that includes a variety of role-play activities to promote students' demonstrations of sociocultural speech acts. Teachers might ask their students to perform a role-play activity, for example, by training them how to place an order at a restaurant, make a flight reservation, communicate with a doctor about their health problems, and so forth. That is, a student role is to be the service representative and the other's role is to be the customer or client. These activities are authentic in that they reflect tasks that students actually need when using the language in similar situations beyond the classroom. In addition, these activities promote students' awareness of using the language interactively (O'Malley & Pierce, 1996).

Natural spoken language (the language spoken by native speakers) should be taught with particular classroom instruction and activities different from those used when teaching other skills like reading and writing. The reason is because the structure of spoken language is different from the structure of printed language. . For example, some features of the spoken language are constructions of chunks and phrases that are joined with simple linking words like (and and but) (Lazaraton, 2014). Therefore, it is essential to expose language learners to and promote their awareness of a variety of structures of spoken language (Lazaraton, 2014).

Additionally, compared to the written structures of the English language, spoken English is not considered grammatical or appropriate (that is, if it were written). A few examples of English spoken language include: I'm gonna or I hadda go instead of saying I am going to or I had to go, and trimmed forms like uni for university. Additionally, English spoken language uses "hesitation markers like (um, uh, sorta, y'know, well, and like) and discourse markers (like cuz and oh) that are ubiquitous" and are not used in writing, "nor do they show up in many scripted dialogues presented in ESL/EFL teaching materials" (Lazaraton, 2014, p. 108). Because of these characteristics, language teachers should address these variations when designing speaking activities.

7. Promoting English Speaking Skill in EFL Contexts

The skill of speaking is an important part in language learning, but it has been underestimated in EFL contexts. Classroom instruction has focused on having students listen to and repeat conversations written in language textbooks (Kayi, 2012). In contrast, teaching the L2 speaking skill should aim to promote ELLs' communicative skills and their ability to interact in a variety of topics. Doing so requires the ELT to achieve six objectives when teaching English language speaking. First, ELLs should be able to produce speech sounds and patterns effectively and accurately. Second, ELLs must be able to use word stress and sentence intonation and rhythm effectively. Third, they need to identify proper vocabulary, phrases, and sentences that meet

particular demands, including social contexts, audience, and content. Fourth, they should be able to arrange and organize their ideas meaningfully and logically. Fifth, they should be able to show that they can use the language they are learning as a tool to express beliefs and decisions. Finally, they should be able to demonstrate fluency and confidence when using the language in natural situations (Kayi, 2012).

Besides the aforementioned speaking objectives, research has shown four main factors that contribute to the development of EFL speaking competence: Fluency, accuracy, appropriacy, and authenticity (Lazaraton, 2014). In terms of fluency and accuracy, Edge and Garton defined both terms by referring to accuracy as "conforming to the language system," whereas fluency is "operating the [language] system quickly" (as cited in Lazaraton, 2014, p. 107). Lazaraton (2014) further discussed that the extent to which teachers should focus on accuracy or fluency depends on the context in which students are learning English (whether it is an ESL or EFL). Students who learn English in an ESL context have the privilege of a variety of language exposure resources outside the classroom where they can do more practice to increase their language fluency. In this case, classroom activities should be dedicated to language accuracy. Conversely, students learning the language in an EFL context should receive language instruction that is devoted to fluency and focused on meaning (Lazaraton, 2014). Furthermore, according to Mumford (2008), knowledge of spoken grammar of English can improve students' speech fluency and appropriacy (Lazaraton, 2014). Therefore, it is essential to include forms of English spoken grammar when designing tasks and activities for teaching listening and speaking. Lazaraton (2014) mentions some examples of textbooks that include a variety of English spoken grammar that are found in the Touchstone series (McCarthy, McCarten, & Sandiford, 2005; 2006).

Another consideration is the appropriacy factor, which represents, to a great extent, the sociocultural context or pragmatics of the TL (Lazaraton, 2014). Social and cultural competencies are two important aspects that ELLs should achieve beside accuracy and fluency. According to Lazaraton (2014), learners of other languages should be able to understand several etiquettes during communications like directness, politeness, and formality and other features like "what not to say at all and what to communicate nonverbally" (p. 107). Therefore, students should receive explicit instruction in interpreting and practicing different (formal and informal) speech acts of the target language. Teachers might find such forms of speech acts in movies and radio broadcasts.

In terms of pedagogical materials, Lazaraton (2014) mentions that authenticity may not have as much benefit for L2 adults who already have received exposure to real situations in the target language culture. However, pedagogical materials that incorporate authenticity then might work best for teaching ELLs in countries where students have limited or no direct exposure to the target language. Teachers, therefore, consider these four should bear in mind that spoken language should not be dealt with in terms of written language norms and use a great deal of the spoken grammar of English when teaching spoken language. It is best to teach those grammar aspects explicitly. Pronunciation, as another important aspect of speaking proficiency, seems to be neglected during classroom language instructions.

8. Teaching Pronunciation through Authentic Materials

ELLs who have already developed a rigid awareness of their L1 sound system, especially adults, need more focus and practice with the speech-sound system and sound patterns of the English language. The reason is that sometimes there are differences between the speech-sound system and sound patterns of the L1 and the L2. Such differences might result in pronunciation interference with some patterns of the speech-sound system in English language due to variations of such patterns between the two languages (Smith, 2001). Furthermore, because good quality in pronunciation always aids good quality in speaking and meaning transmission, teachers should integrate pronunciation activities during their classroom instructions. This is to allow students to practice the sound system of the English language and to bridge the gap between students' L1 and the L2 sound variations.

Some teachers overlook the importance of pronunciation in many classroom contexts and focus on other skills like memorization of language rules and vocabulary items (Celaya, 2012). Thus, it is extremely important to emphasize pronunciation when designing focused tasks in order to promote students' L2 pronunciation skills and reduce their heavy accent affected by a long term shaping of their L1 accent. Heavy L2 accents might negatively influence language communication.

Exposing students, of any age group, to comprehensible authentic language that is produced by native speakers of the target language may increase students' awareness of how particular language chunks and phrases are pronounced. Sometimes nonnative English teachers neglect teaching pronunciation due to their lack of confidence to exemplify authentic pronunciation of the target language. In such situations it would be ideal to use samples of authentic language produced by native speakers of the target language, which might be accessible through a variety of resources, for example, YouTube videos, TV programs, radio broadcasts, and so forth. Technology innovations have brought a variety of facilitative features in controlling many of these visual displays. For instance, teachers and their students have may use the option of displaying subtitles of the spoken language in video clips. This feature allows language learners to see while listening to the language at the same time. They also have an option to pause and replay any portion of the video clip, as well as another option to increase or decrease the speed level of the spoken language. All these options provide opportunities to practice with a variety of models.

Another effective technique, especially when teaching low-proficiency students, is to show them how and where a particular sound is produced. For example, teachers can bring a chart that illustrates the speech organs and teach their students explicitly the manners and places of articulation for consonants and vowels and how they are uttered as individual sounds and when found in words and sentences. Later, teachers may use another activity named record, play, and match as an activity to teach pronunciation through authentic materials. Teachers might assign to their students different samples of short video clips by native speakers on any issue (a weather broadcast, for example) to work on at home. Then, students are required to listen to a portion of the clip and record (using a smart phone or any recording device) themselves repeating that portion. Next, students can play their recording and compare it with the original portion. They can drill themselves on this task at home until they achieve a target-like pronunciation patterns.

8. Conclusion

This paper reviewed the history of and current issues in ELT practices. In addition, it has reviewed some classroom activities, and practical solutions for effective ELT in the EFL context using an approach that implements authentic-based tasks and materials in order to promote ELLs' speaking proficiency. In a best-case scenario, English language teachers will consider such practices in order to promote their students' English language speaking proficiency. Ultimately, teachers should understand that L2 speaking skills should be developed to meet particular demands that are related to language learners and that go beyond the classroom context, so L2 learners can effectively apply classroom learning to real-life situations. Such implications require language teachers to focus on appropriate materials that really reflect the naturally-spoken language of native speakers of the L2 in real-life situations. EFL teachers in different contexts around the world can greatly promote their students' speaking proficiency by implementing these practices and activities—and meet the demands of our time.

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Appendix A
Selected Websites for Classroom Authentic Materials

Title or Description	Website
With this flourishing online community, teachers may view, share, and learn varied techniques to improve students' learning.	www.teachingchannel.org
This website includes a variety of authentic language presented in real-world videos.	www.FluentU.com
Here, you are exposed to a vast number of strategies and activities that help you to develop K-12 instruction.	www.edutopia.org
This is a wonderful online platform specifically for English language teachers to find materials across language skills.	www.busyteacher.org
FLTeach Foreign Language Teaching Forum is an international forum on which teachers from all around the world post questions, responses, and findings.	www.cortland.edu/flteach/
American Council on Teaching Foreign Languages is the site for the US national organization for professional development, publications, resources, etc.	www.actfl.org
StarTalk provides materials for teacher development, use of authentic materials, and assessment.	www.larcstartalk.wikispaces.com/STARTALK www.startalk.umd.edu/materials/
The Annenburg Foundation provides access to teacher development materials such as *Teaching Foreign Languages K-12: A Library of Practices* and *A Workshop for Teachers.*	www.learner.org
TESOL International Association reports recent research findings, professional development events, publications, and other resources.	www.tesol.org
Ohio Department of Education World Languages site has numerous samples of authentic materials and assessment for all grades, including units featuring Integrated Performance Assessment.	www.education.ohio.gov/

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Functioning of Emotive-Evaluative Vocabulary in a Political Text

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Abstract
This paper is aimed at highlighting the problem of the use of emotive-evaluative vocabulary in the English-language mass media political discourse, which is a relevant topic since the scope of media texts in English is widespread in the information community and the media language is the basic means for communication, phrasing, conveying and storing information.
Political discourse is a popular area of research of linguistics, as it covers all aspects of modern life and society. Being mainly broadcasted by the politicians, it is considered a complex linguistic phenomenon, whose objectives, direct or indirect, are aimed at disseminating, implementing political authorities and obtaining the majority of votes during the election campaigns. The article is devoted to the evaluation categories, which refer to the semantic and pragmatic categories and can be one of the strongest tools of influence on the public. Within the framework of our research 29 English articles, posted on the Internet, concerning the political leaders of the United States and Great Britain, attributing the personal characteristics to them, were analysed. Using the continuous sampling method there was found 214 examples of English emotive-evaluative vocabulary. During the study, the methods of compilation, interpretation, and descriptive methods were used.

Keywords: discourse, political discourse, media text, linguistic means, emotive-evaluative vocabulary, linguistic manipulation.

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Introduction

Effective and persuasive speech of a politician is characterised by many factors, one of which is the speaker's ability to use the relevant language that can lead to the creation of interpersonal relationships between the speaker and the targeted audiences. Language and politics are intertwined. Language is the method to transfer one's political ideas to the community (Harris, 1984). Vocabulary in politics is a powerful weapon, as it can prove the political actions to be either effective or ineffective. The use of emotive-evaluated vocabulary can influence the emotions of the audience. Due to the right choice of words a politician can draw the audience's attention and invoke the appropriate feelings from the listeners: a speaker can convince the audience in his/her ideas or can trigger the feelings of disagreement. Thus, a competent politician should know how to implement necessary lexical means in his/her speech and he/she should be aware of how to do it successfully. That is why a language is a key element of political discourse, as well as an important tool in convincing the target audience, since the ability of a politician to choose the appropriate forms of linguistic means to achieve the desired objectives can contribute to his/her failure or success.

The study represents a linguistic analysis of the impact of emotive-evaluative vocabulary of political language based on the media English texts. The attempt is made to identify the similarities and differences in the use of linguistic means. Communication can be considered as the basis of politics, because it helps to conduct political processes within the country and the world in general. The establishment of political ties helps the policy makers to establish a certain influence on society, makes their work complete, which becomes especially true during the election campaigns, when the future of the country depends on the votes of the citizens of the country. It is believed that nowadays political discourse is constantly changing, it became faster, clearer and tougher (Fitzwater, 2016, p. 6) that can be explained by the widespread use of media, social media and social networks. Politicians become personality-oriented, which means that the use of aggressive strategies of negative evaluation has increased in the description of their opponents.

To achieve its goals, a politician usually uses a wide range of tools and strategies, among which there are effective tools for shaping public opinion and broadcasting hidden policy goals. The purpose of this article is to conduct a comprehensive linguistic analysis of the use of emotional and evaluative vocabulary in political discourse, which plays an important role in political speech, as it refers to lexical means that transmit emotions of persuasion, evaluation, judgement and recognition within the framework of the Theory of Assessment (Martin & White, 2005). Attention is also paid to metaphorical expressions, which constitute an essential part of political communication and can indirectly influence political actions. All this makes the topic of our research relevant.

Literature review

As it was mentioned above the study is based on the analysis of English language political media texts. The term "media text" appeared at the end of the 20th century in the English-language scientific literature, in the works of Bell (1998), Montgomery (1996), Fairclough (1995) & Fowler (1991), Yuzhakova et al. (2018, p. 465). The research is performed in the frame of critical discourse analysis, which purpose is to study the political language in terms of conveying political

power, abuse of authority or dominance (van Dijk, 1997, p. 11). Political discourse-analysis contributes not only to the study of discourse and political science, but also to other social sciences (van Dijk, 1997, p. 12). The focus of linguists is on characteristics of rhetoric of political communication (Schaffner, 1995). According to Van Dyck, the analyses of political discourse "should not be limited to the structural peculiarities of a text only, but also include a systemic account of the context and its relations to discursive structures" (van Dijk, 1997, p. 15).

Political discourse is not only the discourse of politicians (van Dijk, 1997, p. 12), but a complex linguistic phenomenon that is directly or indirectly aimed at the dissemination and implementation of political power (Sheigal, 2000) and at political decision-making as well. Politicians are not the only participants of political discourse. The recipients of political information, the public, citizens and voters should also be included in the analysis of discourse (van Dijk, 1997, p. 13). In this case, political discourse becomes public. Moreover, political discourse is the institutional type of discourse, as the speaker is not an ordinary official, but is the representative of a political party, country or a government (Karasik, 2004, p. 281). It is believed that political discourse is characterized by a high degree of manipulation. In this aspect, the interest in its study is determined, firstly, by finding the best ways of influence used by politicians on the audience and, secondly, by the need to find out the genuine intentions of the speaker and the hidden mechanisms of manipulation on the audience (Sheigal, 2000, p. 45).

Political discourse is a form of political activity and political process in politics (van Dijk, 1997, p. 14). During the election campaign all the members of society are involved in this process that leads to their ideological promotion. In this case, the categories of evaluation and emotiveness draw particular attention to further analysis. If these linguistic notions are included in the political text, the audience's attention can be attracted to either some parts of the text or a speech, and thus, the manipulation of the audience can be achieved.

In recent decades, linguistic studies have been focused on discussing the problem of culture, language and consciousness interrelation due to interdisciplinary scientific knowledge integration (Zalavina et al., 2019, p. 184). The phenomenon of evaluation is a common area of linguistic researches and refers to the anthropocentric approach, which means that it reflects the human nature and depends on the person’s values and axiological norms. The notion of evaluation was investigated within the frame of communicative linguistics in respect of linguistic personality (Karasik, 2004) within the function of lexical component in the study of connotative meaning and semantic contents (Sinclair, 2004) in the field of stylistic analysis (Short and Semino, 2008); within pragmatics in the use of various assessment tools to impact the recipient and achieve the desired effect (Fraser, 1996); in establishing the interaction between values and emotions (Mulligan, 1998) and the foundations of the evaluation situation (Zhabotynska, 2013), in the field of cognitive linguistics in the study of ideology and semantics of evaluation (Malrieu, 1999).

According to the definition of Ahmanova, emotionally-evaluative vocabulary is the lexical units (single words or expressions), which have the potential to cause particular stylistic impact regardless of the context, as the meaning of such words conveys not only the subject-logic information (about the subject indicated), but also the additional information, i.e. connotations (Ahmanova, 2004, p. 310). Arnold defines such vocabulary as stylistically marked words which,

together with the denotative meaning, indicating the subject of the speech, possess connotative meaning, which is comprised of emotional, expressive, stylistic and functional evaluation components (Arnold, 2002, p. 153).

There are three types of evaluation depending upon the method of implementation of estimation of lexical units:

1) functional evaluation, it occurs when the evaluated seme of denotation is presented (for example: *bad, useful, horror, to despise*);

2) connotative evaluation, it is acquired in neutral lexical units only in a particular context (for example: in Russian language*, Red-Brown* (in negative connotation denoting political forces advocating Communist and ultra-nationalist ideology), *transparent* (positive characteristics)); in our view, such evaluation approach, can be called "*contextual*";

3) pragmatic evaluation is explained by the specificity of its denotation (e.g.: *aider*, *terrorism*) (Markelova 1995, p. 77).

The category of evaluation is one of the main features of political discourse, which has a widespread use in the political texts of the mass media (Polyakova & Yuzhakova, 2018, p.137).

Discussion

Since the purpose of our research is the identification and analysis of emotive-evaluative vocabulary used in political media texts, we are to find linguistic and pragmatic means contributing to the conveyed connotations. So the main method of the study is the method of pragmatic analysis implicating identification the addressee's intentions and presuppositions (Oualif, 2017). Supplementary methods are: discourse analysis method, the contextual analysis method, the cultural interpretation method, the component semantic analysis method, the stylistic analysis method. In other words, the methodological basis of our study is the complex of linguistic analytical methods. Here we cannot but refer to the works in the field of pragmalinguistics by Grice (1985), Leech (1983), Lakoff (1973), and Brown & Levinson (1987), Yuzhakova et al. (2018, p.476).

Within the framework of our research 29 English articles, posted on the Internet, concerning the political leaders of the United States and Great Britain, attributing the personal characteristics to them, were analysed. Using the continuous sampling method there was found 214 examples of English emotive-evaluative vocabulary.

The analysis of English political speeches shows the presence of several kinds of verbal means in achieving the expressiveness of the text. First of all, they are the linguistic means denoting evaluation which are usually expressed by the evaluative vocabulary, like the units lovely or wonderful in the following example: "*And I watched the way you talk now about how lovely everything is and how wonderful you are*" (https://singjupost.com/full-transcript-presidential-debate-september-26–2016-donald-trump-vs-hillary-clinton/2/?singlepage=1).

Another way to demonstrate of use of emotionally-evaluative vocabulary and to show the category of evaluation is the use of widespread connotations. Thus, the following quote has a positive connotation due to the units achievements and social justice: "*Some of our biggest achievements — including the introduction of same-sex marriage and taking the lowest-paid out of income tax altogether — they've been all about the pursuit of social justice*" (https://www.independent.co.uk/news/uk/politics/theresa-mays-tory-leadership-launch-statement-full-text-a7111026.html). The expression social justice denotes the universal value, which contributes to the impact on the audience, which consists in the formation of a positive image of the speaker.

The second group consists of stylistically-coloured vocabulary, the use of which is aimed at developing the desired political assessments and emotional responses from the audience. For example, this effect has the unit hell, referring to the lower layer of vocabulary: "*He's done a hell of a job as your A. G. and you've got to get him with us*" (https://www.realclearpolitics.com/video/2018/08/21/watch_live_trump_rally_in_west_virginia.html); "*you put up one hell of a fight, thank you, Evan*" (https://www.realclearpolitics.com/video/2018/08/21/watch_live_trump_rally_in_west_virginia.html).

The third group includes a variety of stylistic techniques. At the syntactic level, these techniques are mainly represented by the numerous repetitions in the text, which allow the addressee to emphasize the semantically meaningful parts of the text, thus provoking the audience to the appropriate intellectual or emotional reactions: "*Doesn't deserve a mention. Doesn't deserve a headline*" (https://www.realclearpolitics.com/video/2018/08/21/watch_live_trump_rally_in_west_virginia.html).

Any person, as a conscious being, is forced routinely to make conclusions consciously or unconsciously in terms of linguistic or everyday situation (Suvorova & Polyakova, 2018, p. 295). That is why, at the lexical level, the linguistic techniques are aimed at forming vivid images in the minds of the recipients, which should be followed by the necessary assessments and political responses. For example, a metaphorical epithet "*puppet*" in the part of the text "*the building of a puppet government*" (https://singjupost.com/full-transcript-presidential-debate-september-26–2016-donald-trump-vs-hillary-clinton/2/?singlepage=1) generates the image with the negative connotation.

According to the findings of the research the main purpose of the expressive-evaluative language means in political rhetoric is to fulfil the pragmatic functions of the text, which consists of achieving the manipulative influence on the audience and the provoking it to the desired intellectual or emotional response.

Regarding the choice of vocabulary, within the framework of the analyzed material, the political speeches can be divided into two groups with. The first group of words comprises the political vocabulary; the second one consists of common lexis. The approaches to the study of the

common lexis vary, that is why, when analyzing the political speeches, the author's emotive vocabulary, the elements of conversational vocabulary, the author's imagery, the use of expressive idioms, and other linguists devices, can be discussed. Connotatively marked political words, having affective meanings, are of a special interest. Such words as *freedom, justice, independence, social progress, compassion traditionally* are connotatively charged, as they express collective emotions. Politically affective words are often used as catchwords or key words in political texts. They acquire their expressive or affective connotation both in the stylistic and certain political contexts, where a speaker and a listener are the participants. In this case, their belonging to a particular ideology, a culture, a political situation in the country or the world, is reflected.

For instance, speaking about such world events as the fall of the Berlin Wall and the Soviet Union's collapse, the American president Bill Clinton uses a cliché "*revolutionary times*" which gets an expressive and affective connotation in his speech. It results from a special political background, i.e. the speaker's and listener's belonging to the American culture. The desire for changes is one of the main values of the American society. The representatives of the American culture consider any changes to be a positive stimulus for development, growth, progress and improvement. The notion "*revolution*" is closely connected with the notion "*changes*", that results in expressive, affective and evaluative connotation in the phrase "*revolutionary times"*: *You are living in revolutionary times (B. Clinton)* (https://usa.usembassy.de/etexts/ga6-940712.htm).

Stylistic devices, which convey frustrated expectations, which occurs when the continuity and linearity of speech is broken due to the introduction of some unpredicted information, are also interesting. Thus, the device transfers ideologeme *freedom* into the class of affective words, as in an example *And as we and our coalition partners are doing in Afganistan, we will bring to the Iraqi people food and medicine and supplies – and freedom (G. Bush)* (https://www.theguardian.com/world/2001/sep/21/september11.usa13). These words are emotionally and expressively charged and demonstrate pragmatic power and strength.

It's necessary to make an emphasis on the assessment that plays a very important role in the political communication. The criterion of the assessment is an ideological position of the speech agent. Any political phenomenon can become the object of the political assessment, nevertheless, a political leader, his/her ideological position, as well as a political party or a group, are more common subjects for an assessment. As a rule, a political speech focuses on the assessment transfer not the genuine interpretation of facts, data or certain information, as the public figures strive to demonstrate their view on the social and political structure, the organization of the state institutions, their system of values, as being positive, whereas showing the ideas of their ideological opponents being negative (O'Neill, 1994). Being mainly neutral, political vocabulary acquires its positive or negative evaluation in a certain political context.

Thus, a lexeme *regime* has the following meanings: *mode of rule or management; form of government; period of rule.* None of these has an evaluative seme. In the remark, taken from the speech of the British prime-minister T. Blair, this lexical unit with the collocation of such evaluative words as *shackle, brutal, victim* gets the connotation of a negative evaluation. *Compare: And how risible would be the claims that these were wars on Muslims if the world could see these Muslim nations still Muslim, but with some hope for the future, not shackled by brutal regimes*

whose principal victims were the very Muslims they pretended to protect? (T. Blair) (http://ammanmessage.com/the-full-text-of-tony-blairs-speech-to-the-islam-and-muslims-in-the-world-today-conference/).

Thus, one can conclude that the layer of political nomination is of a great interest especially in the framework of the anthropocentric approach to the communication as it allows interpreting the purpose and the ploys of the pragmatic speech impact.

Conclusion

The use of the emotional evaluative lexis is one of the main peculiarities of the political discourse. The political discourse is not aimed at informing by force, but is focused on forming either a positive, or a negative attitude among the addressees, changing their world views, influencing their way of thinking. Thus, a political discourse acquires the function of an impact, which can be achieved by the use of certain linguistic means, i.e. emotively-evaluated vocabulary. Nevertheless, it should be noted that the choice of emotional and evaluative lexis is attributed to the peculiarities of the author's individual style of presentation.

The linguistic researches offer a variety of definitions of political rhetoric, but all of them stress the importance of pragmatic functions of the text. Considering the analysed material, the following features of political discourse can be highlighted: the manipulation technique, which is aimed at the address to the feelings and emotions of the audience; the argumentative technique, the purpose of which is to appeal to the mind of the recipient; the address to the existing values of the community. Obviously, all these factors are aimed at achieving the pragmatic function of the text: they are designed to arouse a certain impact from the recipients with the desired respond.

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Understanding of Reading among Teachers and Learners: A Descriptive Study of Pre-university English Language Teaching /Learning in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract

This study assesses pre-university teachers' perception about reading comprehension in English as a foreign language (EFL) in Saudi context. It also identifies the difficulties faced by the students in their reading comprehension classes to have a holistic view of learning process. The main aim of the study is to explore the issues related to teaching reading, both from teachers as well as learners' perspectives, so that the best teaching strategies can be adopted to achieve the desired outcomes. It assesses the ongoing prevalent scenario of learning to read in English as foreign language and observes that the learners' difficulties are not addressed properly because the teachers/instructors are not trained well or pay less attention to reading skill. A descriptive approach has been used on a sample of instructors from various non-native English-speaking nationalities (n=60) and Saudi learners (n=146). Responses revealed that teachers' poor awareness of teaching strategies cause poor learning outcomes. Their responses also reveals that their strategies do not take into account learners' difficulties which somewhere cause learners' helplessness in getting desired outcome. The results of the study elaborate how the culture and contextual knowledge play significant roles. These are the bases of teaching reading skills along with learners' needs so that more robust teaching strategies can be followed to truly meet the desired learning outcomes. This will definitely help the teacher-educators as well as the instructors in improvising their teaching practices that suit their classrooms well.

Keywords: comprehension, EFL instructors, EFL reading, reading strategies, Saudi learners

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1. Introduction

English as a Foreign Language/English as a Second Language (EFL/ESL, hereafter) instructors are responsible for developing all the four language skills among the learners wherein reading and writing are found to be overlooked in most of the teaching environments. In Saudi Arabia, writing and reading skills are very much debated in the recent studies as learners exhibit surprising lack in these skills at the later stages of their university education (Al Qahtani, 2010; Al Roomy, 2013). ESL teachers are guided by their knowledge of reading process while performing the teaching task. Though they are aware of the stages and various elements of teaching process, they are unable to practically make the learners learn the desired strategies (Hager et al., 2005; Chappell et al., 2005a, b). When the learners are fully aware of various strategies to improve their reading skills, they are bound to evolve as fluent readers. It has been noticed that the teachers are not well aware of their roles and the related tasks in terms of reading comprehension. They unintentionally follow ineffective tasks that may not be very helpful for the learners which result in their poor understanding of the texts. Poor comprehends are unable to effectively construct and understand the meanings implied in the texts. Comprehension as defined in various dictionaries as mental capacity to know the message communicated and reading means comprehending the written symbols. Here in this activity readers construct the meanings communicated from the written text and interpret the message based on their prior knowledge and background information.

Moreover, mostly the ESL/EFL teachers fail to understand that reading is not limited to classroom activity but comprehension of the message in general in any contexts (Masadeh, 2015; Wooly, 2011; McKeown & Beck, 2001). Most of the studies have acknowledged comprehension as the end result of reading in general. Comprehension is the end result of result in successfully decode the all the elements of message or information communication within the text and similar context in general. To successfully implement this, the instructors need to stimulate the readers to read the text in order to reflect effective results by comprehending all the elements well. This may include infer, synthesize and analyse the events and information wherein the readers should be able to discriminate the realities of the events from their real-life experience. There are four features of a classroom activity (Koleva, 2008). First is the time limit which expects the learners to perform various other language related activities along with reading. Second is the materials used are not necessarily suits learners' interest as the text may vary in terms of their difficulty as well as their taste. Third is that the learners are expected to not only read the specified text but they also have to show their understanding of the text and the fourth one is that they are compelled to work on the prescribed text. Reading is an activity wherein the readers need to comprehend, infer, analyse and evaluate the text. Learners do infer the meanings beyond the word level and evaluate the overall message in the text which requires them to integrate all the fractions into a big picture.

It is well acknowledged that readers' prior knowledge plays a crucial role in reading comprehension (Adams, 1990; Grabe, 1991; Ulijin & Salager-Mayer, 1998). Eskey (1986) introduced the ideas of 'knowledge of form' and 'knowledge of substance'. The first one refers to the linguistic competence of the learners to identify the symbols at lexical as well as syntactic/semantic levels whereas the second one refers to the cultural and pragmatic aspects of the text encoded in the linguistic formal symbols. Therefore, the learners do use their prior

knowledge based on their personal experience, be it learnt from the surrounding or the reading the materials in their mother tongue or their first language. Recent researches have indicated that the affective factors do influence learners' academic achievement and behaviour (Alvermann & Guthrie, 1993). Furthermore, this implications entails that the readers tend to read more and found to be highly motivated which is resulted in their better reading achievement (Foertsch, 1992). Negative emotions about reading discourage the learners from getting actively involved in the activity which fail the whole teaching and learning process. The resent study aims to ascertain the teachers as well as the learners' perception about the reading activity so that desired outcomes are achieved. ESL/EFL learning in Saudi Arabia has not yet been able to demonstrate desired results and the learners with poor language skills, especially reading, fail to meet the demands as they move further in their academic experience. This has raised doubts about the teachers' own language skills which somewhere limit them from desired performance. At the same time, the learners do have to assess their own motivation level so that the teachers can assess their expectations which in turn help them to improvise their instructional strategies.

1.1 Importance of the study

First of all, it serves as an eye-opener for the instructors to communicate the importance of reading to learners so that they can access variety of resources to know what all going around them (Liang & Dole, 2006). As evident a teacher not prepared well can never yield desired outcomes, likewise less motivated learners would also not learn skills. Without knowing learners' expectations, it is quite impossible to meet language course objectives. Therefore, the present study aims to find out answers to the following questions:

a. What are the best ways to teach comprehension and enhance the readers' understanding skill?
b. What are learners' attitudes and expectations and their own roles in the learning process?
c. What are the strategies adopted in order to help the poor readers?

1.2 Objectives of the study

The present study aims to investigate the teachers' perception on their concerns related to teaching reading at foundation level or pre-university stage. Furthermore, this will also assess learners' perception about how they feel about themselves as readers. The relationship between the two will be evaluated so as to see whether learners' perception is somewhere properly addressed by the teachers as well. The study will seek to answer the following questions:

a. How much the teachers give importance to reading their classes?
b. How much teachers' are aware of teaching reading strategies to be followed in their pedagogical process?
c. What are the learners' roles in the improvement of their reading skill?
d. What is the status of learners' understanding of reading skill?

2. Literature review

Reading related EFL research and pedagogy is highly governed by cognitive, educational theories, as well as socio-pragmatic aspects. Approaches from various fields of study have contributed

highly to research in reading in the recent past. Moreover, researches on learners' perspectives have suggested that students' interest in reading enhances their achievement as well (Chiu & McBride-Chang, 2006; Brozko, Shiel, & Topping, 2008; Wigfield et al., 2008). Motivation is directly proportionate to achievement as verified in various individual tasks (Anmarkrud & Braten, 2009; Munns & Woodward, 2006). Guthrie & Wigfield's (2000) 'engagement model' prescribes extensive reading wherein motivation plays a significant role to have the desired output (Guthrie, 2006; Morgan & Fuchs, 2007). It has been noted that motivation towards reading is not the same in non-native learners as the native ones (Jang & Meyer, 2012; Neugebauer, 2013). But, the factors related to this have not been explored well. Earlier researches focussed on teachers' perception on the difficulties faced by the learners in their reading classes (Quirk et al., 2010; Unrau et al., 2015) and researches related to students' motivation have mostly been empirical studies wherein students have marked their preferences on Likert-type surveys (Coddington & Guthrie, 2009; Wigfield et al., 2008). However more recent studies have witnessed a change in approach wherein teachers' perception and belief have been assessed related to motivational factors. And, teachers' response show that efficacy, importance of reading, skill development as motivating factors for the students. To this, Unrau, Ragusa & Browers (2015) added relationship building with the peers could also be a motivating factor which I doubt does have any relevance in monolingual society as Saudi Arabia where Arabic is the only language spoken in almost all domains of life. Learners are exposed to English only in the classroom as learners from other ethnicities do not join public schools here. It has also been found that teachers do not perceive motivated and unmotivated students well (Protacio, 2012, 2013; Taboada & Buehl, 2012). Though motivation plays a significant role in reading comprehension, there are other factors which affect learners' involvement in reading classes (Protacio & Jang, 2016). In EFL setting, the learners are exposed to target language in very limited domains of life, which hinders their growth of language skills. Lack of reinforcement is a crucial factor in poor language development. The present study aims to set a balance of understanding between the teachers understanding of reading comprehension as well as the learners' difficulties, to find a way forward in the direction of better learning experience.

Many studies have shown the effective strategies to enhance learners' reading experience and text comprehension in general. Each study has tried to develop a microscopic view of the elements involved in reading comprehension process and the factors affect this process. Broughton (1981) points out that a reader first of all identify the written symbols form words and phrases and then try to correlate them with the meanings. In this process, reading aloud focuses on the effective performance of learners in properly identifying the written sounds. However, reading comprehension is a process wherein more importance or so to say the main objective of the activity is to understand the text and the learner should be able to skim through the text to answer all the related questions. Later, Mckeown and Beck (1992) stress on the reading process and recommended that a strategic reader would see first the purpose of the text and then identify the general character and features of the text. A reader would skim, evaluate and scan the text to know the author's purpose as well. He may use his prior knowledge, his background information about the context and various other related knowledge to develop a comprehensive view that is based on compare and contrast the sequence of events, infer the other parts of whole message, and finally conclusion wherein his opinions require frame the structure. Pang et al (2003) proposes that there is a relation between teachers' fears and readers' comprehension input. It means the teachers focus more on the output of comprehension learning process, rather than the strategies or the methods

readers do follow while reading. However, readers' perceptions about the reading process and their thoughts while reading is found to be closely related (Konare, 1994). Pang et al (2003) found that the readers need to identify the written symbols and relate those with the meanings so they need to make sense of words, sentences and the interconnectedness of the text. Readers do use background knowledge, grammatical knowledge to know the text. That is why the second or foreign language learners are expected to know the cultural and social aspects of the target language.

Earlier studies recognize reading as a decoding process (Norris, 1994) and as a process that is not explicitly visible so it cannot be observed (Singhal, 1998). However, Alyousef (2005) finds reading as an interactive process wherein the reader interacts with the text and tries to decode the intended meanings as communicated in the text from the written symbols. It is quite evident that teacher can't see inside the readers' mind what's going on while reading but he can definitely make him aware of linguistic, cultural background of the text.

3. Methodology

The present study followed a descriptive approach to assess the participants' views through questionnaire. This involved surveys and interviews to gather information. The study was conducted on 60 English instructors employed at the pre university level in Saudi University in the academic year 2017-2018. All the teachers (with 3-22 years of teaching experience) were engaged in level 1 and 2 English Language skills courses for the pre university or foundation year learners in the northern region of Saudi Arabia. The teachers were mostly very dynamic in the sense that they had very different educational and ethnic backgrounds. All the teachers learnt English as second or foreign language in their native countries (see table 1).

Table 1. *Distribution of the participants as per their experience Years of experience*

*Distribution of the participants as per their experience*Years of experience	Male	Female	Total
Group A (3 – 9 years)	14	13	27
Group B (10 – 22 Years)	19	14	33
Total	33	27	60

3.1 Study Instruments

A questionnaire was prepared to assess the teachers' belief in reading and the steps followed while teaching reading. In interviews, the teachers were asked to further elaborate on the following questions:

a. What are the main stages in reading comprehension?
b. What activities do they carry out for each stage in their respective classrooms?
c. How do they differentiate between the questions to be asked to test and the questions to be formed for teaching reading comprehension?
d. What types of questions do they think are most appropriate to form in a reading lesson?

Experts involved in teachers' education and also actively involved in ESL/EFL teaching process were consulted to assess the appropriateness of the study instruments. Three were university professors employed at various other universities in the kingdom. The other two were ESL instructors with very rich teaching background. They checked the suitability of all the items and gave very useful remarks. Based on their feedbacks, the questionnaires were modified and sent back to all of them for their consent.

In the second part of the study, a survey of students' (n=146) responses on reading comprehension was conducted to assess the difficulty and its nature. They were asked four questions related to their difficulties while their reading activities. Markedly, their responses yielded insights into the whole learning process. Therefore, both the prime stakeholders' views have been assessed in Saudi context. Learners' ranked responses were analyzed using *Multiple Rule for Probability & Expected Value of a Discrete Random Variable* since SPSS and Minitab were not enough to analyze ranked responses (Adopted from Lin, 2002).

3.2 Hypotheses

H1 = There is no significant differences between the teachers' perception on own abilities related to teaching reading due to gender and the years of teaching experience.

H2 = Teachers' knowledge or awareness of stages in teaching reading is weak

H3 = *Learning to read* is somewhere govern the whole learning-teaching process rather than *reading to learn*

4. Data Elicitation and Generalization of the Results

4.1 Teachers' perspective

The data on teachers' belief on reading as an essential component of reading comprehension process, determines the fruitful effects of learning reading comprehension.

Table 2. *Teachers' belief in Reading Comprehension*

Questions	Male		Female	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Is reading comprehension important?	95	05	93	07
Is it exciting?	91	09	100	00
Is it more important than other language skills?	72	23	79	21

The responses indicated that the more than 90 percent teachers believed reading as an important factor in language learning. Both male and female teachers responded that they found it exciting and very interesting for the learners to be involved in. Even it's quite interesting for the teachers as well to teach the learners. The data in table 1 suggest that more than 70 percent teachers, both male and female, felt reading should be given preference over the other language skills. Though they responded in favour of reading as an important language skill, but they were found to be not prepared well or lack desired skills of reading teaching. It was clear from their class observation during the term; once they were informed about observation in advance and another time they were not informed about the visit. In both the visits they were found less aware of the skills needed for teaching reading comprehension. This was further justified when they were asked to fill out questionnaire related to their awareness of components related to teaching reading comprehension. The table 2 below show their responses.

Table 3. *Teachers' awareness of teaching reading comprehension*

Components of teaching reading comprehension	Male		Female	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Learners should be encouraged to use dictionary?	93	7	91	9
Aim of the text is important	67	33	71	29
Authors' feeling and temperament is important to be taught	43	57	49	51
Details in the text need to be explained	100	0	92	8
Decoding the meaning from the context	43	57	55	45
Difference between bottom-up and top-down approach	2	98	7	93
Learners should be set free to decode the sub-ideas of the text	47	53	57	43
Learners should be set free to decode the main idea of the text	6	37	68	32
Do you know how do you introduce vocabulary related to the text?	2	98	8	92
Average	47	53	52	48

The results in table 3 indicated that 47 percent male and 57 percent teachers are aware of the components of teaching reading comprehension in a classroom situation. It is evident from the fact that 93 percent and 91percent of male and female teachers or instructors respectively do encourage the use of dictionary so as to enhance their vocabulary. Almost 100 percent male and 92 percent female teachers felt that the details of the text need to be explained to the learners but around 32 to 37 percent teachers didn't feel that the main idea of the text should be explained to the learners. It is quite surprising that almost 40 to 50 percent of the teachers couldn't differentiate between the two approaches. However, most of the teachers do encourage the learners to elicit the ideas of the text themselves but relatively good number of teachers didn't feel the same. Poor language skills in English could be a possible reason that the teachers didn't feel the need for that. The table 4 shows how teachers responded to a lesson plan showed to them to follow in their teaching experience. They were given a month time to experience their teaching following standardized lesson plans (downloaded from www.teachingenglish.org.uk, www.tesol.org, www.ibo.org etc.). After following a structured lesson plan for their reading classes, they responded the following (see table 4).

Table 4. *Views on proposed lesson plan*

Questions related to proposed lesson plan	Male		Female	
	Yes	No	Yes	No
Easy to follow	98	2	97	3
New to you	84	16	82	18
Helpful for students	91	9	93	7
Interesting	100	0	100	0
Helpful in your teaching	100	0	100	0
Enhance learners' achievement	94	6	95	5

Helpful in having a more controlled teaching environment	92	8	89	11
Helpful in finding relevant vocabulary from the text	81	19	79	21
Helpful in dealing with teaching stress	92	8	91	9
Can be followed further as well	100	0	100	0

The results indicated that almost all the teachers found a structured lesson plan was easy to follow and very helpful in teaching reading comprehension. Moreover, it helped in dealing with the stressful situations while teaching so they showed their wiliness to follow this further as well. Very few numbers of teachers couldn't find the lesson plans helpful in finding the relevant vocabulary to initiate the learners' interest in the text to be dealt in the class. Very few teachers felt as well that the proposed lesson plans were not new to them but mostly found them new. It means that most of the teachers were not aware of the steps to be followed for teaching reading. They might be focussing more on words decoding where the learners didn't have autonomy to freely elicit the meaning and developing their own understanding of the text.

4.2 Learners' perspectives

The students were asked four questions and were asked to rank their difficulties. The following was the first question:

Question 1

What are the factors that you feel cause more difficulties in reading comprehension?

Table 5. *Learners' responses about their difficulties*

Options	EFL learners (*n*= 146)		
	Expected value	Relative frequencies	Ranks
Vocabulary	3.31	0.47	1
Grammatical rules	1.70	0.22	2
Unknown content	0.49	0.09	5
Background knowledge	0.77	0.12	4
Long sentences	1.52	0.20	3
Other, if any	0.08	0.01	6
Total	7.87	1.11	

Learners' responses in table 5 show that vocabulary was found to be the most crucial factor for their poor reading comprehension skill. Grammatical rules and long sentences were the other important factors that hamper their reading skills. Unfamiliar content and the background knowledge of the text were found to be the least difficulty causing factor.

Question 2

What are the other factors that may cause difficulty in comprehending a text without any unknown words?

Table 6. *Learners' responses about their difficulties other than vocabulary*

Options	EFL learners (*n*= 146)		
	Expected value	Relative frequencies	Ranks
Decoding the sense of words	1.52	0.20	3
Idioms	0.77	0.12	4
Content	1.70	0.22	2
Background knowledge	3.31	0.47	1
Long sentences	0.49	0.09	5
Other, if any	0.08	0.01	6
Total	7.87	1.11	

If not vocabulary, then the learners found background or prior knowledge of the text as the most important factor in reading comprehension. However, they found it less difficult to decode the meaning of the words from the context. Provided they have little background of the text, they could decode the overall idea about the text with less effort. It might be possible that they didn't come across much idioms and complex grammatical constructions in their EFL reading comprehension sessions. That is why they did not find it too difficult to count as such.

Question 3
What are the psychological factors you think affect reading comprehension?

Table 7. *Learners' responses about their difficulties caused by other factors*

Options	EFL learners (*n* = 146)		
	Expected value	Relative frequencies	Ranks
Nervousness	0.01	0.00	4
Uninteresting content	2.53	0.41	1
Time limit	1.51	0.27	3
Background knowledge	2.31	0.38	2
Other, if any	0.00	0.00	5
Total	6.36	1.06	

Table 7 shows that boring content and lack of prior knowledge are the most important factors that affect learners' reading comprehension. Time limit is also a factor that somewhere is felt as a dominant factor. This could be the situation because of poor reading skill of the students as they find themselves limited to finish the activity within the stipulated time limit. So, the socio-cultural background of text and the text related to the interests of the students would be a necessary component for reading comprehension activities.

Question 4
What are factors responsible for easy comprehensibility of a new sentence you are reading for the first time?

Table 8. *Learners' responses about their difficulties caused while reading an easy sentence*

Options	EFL learners (n = 146)		
	Expected value	Relative frequencies	Ranks
No new words	2.76	0.31	2
Simple sentence formation	2.59	0.28	3
Content	3.37	0.34	1
Background knowledge	0.99	0.10	4
Other, if any	0.34	0.06	5
Total	10.05	1.09	

Table 4 shows that learners find content as well as the familiar words to understand the text comfortably as the most important factors in reading comprehension. Easy/simple or less complex sentence also play a significant role in comprehension. It means the learners can follow the text easily if they are exposed to the background of the text as well as the related vocabulary in advance. Eventually, this will facilitate their learning process.

5. Discussion & Implications

The survey conducted on the students give a fair picture of the learners' expectation from the teachers as well as the reading comprehension courses. Most of the learners do feel that background knowledge and content of the text plays an important role in enhancing learners' motivation and their achievement in a reading comprehension activity. Though vocabulary also plays a significant role or so to say prime role in making the learners comfortable as well as creating a background for the proposed text, the other factor such as nervousness of any sort of psychological issues are not observed as a cause for their poor learning. It entails the fact that the learning environment is quite conducive for the learners and the teachers follow learner-centric approach in their teaching.

If we use vocabulary range as an index, EFL learners at pre-university level are expected to know 3000-6000 words (ECS, 1992, 1993), learners' responses in table 1 show that they find vocabulary as the most significant factor in reading comprehension. Their responses might have been governed by various factors; either they have not acquired the desired word stock or the content is unfamiliar to them in most of the cases. But, it is for sure that they do lack desired vocabulary level. Since the structural features of language learning is focussed at the lower level and at pre-university level the learners are expected to be familiar with the basic grammatical formations, so as they move up in their academic level, they are already exposed to enough amount of language learning which requires them to focus more on conceptual and socio-cultural aspects. Because, even if the learners find any sentence easy to follow, they find the content and their prior knowledge as crucial to decode the intended meaning of the text. Similar study in Chinese context found that learners' preference and difficulties change as they move up in the academic level (Lin,

2002). Therefore, a similar study would be encouraging to assess learners' preferences over their self assessment parameters at the primary, middle, secondary, university levels of education. Even the preferences could be also assessed at the level of students involved in various majors as well.

In the second perspective, it can be observed that vocabulary and background knowledge of the text are necessary components to be focussed in reading classes which Pang et al. (2003) also found pertinent in his study. By having a little discussion on what the text is about would definitely reinforce their comprehension skill. Questioning regarding factual information and then more analytical questions to find answers using their prior knowledge would improve their comprehension skill. These structured practices are somewhat missing in Saudi context where more interactive situation needs to be creative in classroom so that the learners can enjoy better reading experience. It's not in Saudi context only but in almost all reading classes standard practices are overlooked in most of EFL context (Scott, 2009). Standard procedures are often missed by the reading teachers. Sheng (2000) stresses that the teachers need to focus on both surface as well as deep structures. While the former is related to the linguistic structure whereas latter is related to the overall cognitive understanding of the content. Vocabulary, content and background knowledge are found to be the most required tools for better comprehension. Linguistic structures might be the foremost requirement for the learners at school level but at pre-university level, average learners are aware of basic structure and they are cognitively aware of processes to approach a text or content where they need familiar vocabulary and content to make out the sense of a text. Moreover background information will definitely reinforce their comprehension skill.

Conclusion

English language instructors are strongly recommended to take various factors including learners' difficulties before adopting strategies to have impressive learning outcomes from their reading classes. Latest technological advancements have impacted teaching and learning experience for both teachers and learners. Teachers need to understand that learning never ends and keep track of latest and most effective teaching strategies would help them implement and make use of the most effective methods where the learners can have more gain with less effort. And, at the same time learning experience should be as enriching as possible. The data suggests that teachers are not aware of how to introduce related vocabulary and do not believe that learners' autonomy is necessary to make out sense of the text on their own which are considered as wrong practices. It is considered to be a severe issue when the teachers don't see any difference in top-down or bottom-up approach. And, a fair number of teachers believe that the teaching the aim of the text is not important but texts should be explained in detail to the readers. Learners' responses encourage the teachers to better understand their issues and make use of their L1 information to create background for the text. Lin (2002) rightly puts that reading comprehension is both a matter of language and matter of reading. It may not be matter of reading for beginners' level learners but it matters a lot for the learners who would start their university education wherein more complex structures as well as ideas they might get exposed to.

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Student-Teacher Responsibilities in English Studies: An Empirical Analysis of Arab Student and English Faculty Perceptions

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Abstract
Given the vast research on the existence of distinctive student-teacher expectations about their roles in the classroom and their significance in shaping prospective actions, there is a scarcity of studies that examine Arab student expectations and contrast them with their teachers' expectancies. Realizing this research gap, this study aims to analyze Gulf Arab, Non-Gulf Arab and English Faculty expectations about their roles in English studies. The objectives of the study were to answer four research questions: Do student-faculty expectations about their classroom roles correspond on nine given items; where do the differentiations lie; what are the classroom implications of these dissimilarities; and how teachers and students can share and meet each other's expectations. Using a mixed methods research design, quantitative data were collected from students and faculty through an online bilingual survey followed by individual interviews for further exploration. The data analysis revealed that mismatches exist in teacher-student expectations and these dissimilar beliefs can influence student-teacher relationship. Five out of nine given items were found statistically significant between English faculty and Gulf and Non-Gulf Arab students where students had higher expectations about their responsibilities; however, Gulf Arab and Non-Gulf Arab student expectations differed only on three items. In addition to other practical suggestions for sharing and aligning divergent expectations, the study proposes employing a teacher-student learning contract to augment student and faculty cognizance of their academic and social obligations as well as assist the school administration in catering for their perspectives.

Keywords: Arab student expectations, faculty-student responsibility, culture and expectations

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1. Introduction

Research into second language acquisition (SLA) has pointed to teacher and learner expectations as one of the variables that can influence the learning process (Nhapulo, 2013). The significance of these expectations in the development of faculty-student relationship and their implications in academics are greatly debated by many researchers. It is widely argued that students and teachers hold their distinctive expectations about each other and the learning process, which can impact on their cooperation and collaboration (Javid, Farooq, & Gulzar, 2012; Rubie-Davies, Peterson, Irving, & Widdowson, 2010; Sherry, Bhatt, Beaver, & Ling, 2004). In other words, the presence of these idiosyncratic expectations may beget a lack of student-faculty partnerships that could pose a great challenge to successful language and literacy acquisition.

One way to increase the chances of success in a language program is to enhance better understanding between the English faculty and the students studying English by investigating the expectations both groups hold about their roles in language development. Many research studies have tried to investigate these views in different contexts (Nhapulo, 2013; Sherry et al., 2004; Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2010). However, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, this will be the first study of its kind that will evaluate 1) Gulf Arab-a student that comes from any of the six Gulf Cooperation Council (GCC) countries: Saudi Arabia, United Arab Emirates, Qatar, Kuwait, Bahrain and Oman; 2) Non-Gulf Arab-a student that comes from a country that is an Arab state but is not included in the GCC countries; and 3) English Faculty expectations about their responsibilities towards English studies at a Middle Eastern university.

Since students and teachers are expected to play specific role(s) in a classroom for a successful learning process-successful instructions, modifications in teaching methodologies, collaboration with each other, participation in the learning process, and attendance (e.g., see Parris & Block; and Stronge, 2007), this paper aims to conduct an expectations analysis by comparing student-teacher expectations about their 'duties' towards English literacy and suggests ways to align the differing expectations.

The analysis presented in this paper will help cultivate mutual understanding as well as assist in designing productive literacy instructions (Godley & Escher, 2012) that reflect the perspectives of the teachers and the students. Literacy educators in different settings may also benefit from doing a similar analysis to evaluate the differing expectations of the students and the faculty so that the relationship between the two can be ameliorated in terms of academic and non-academic coordination. The study also raises questions about the roots of these beliefs that shall be investigated in future research.

In specific, the study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. What are the differences and similarities in the expectations of Gulf Arab students, Non-Gulf Arab students and the English faculty of student responsibility in English studies at a Middle Eastern university?
2. Where do the differences lie if there is a mismatch in expectations?
3. How can these differences manifest themselves in classroom practices?

4. What can be done to enable English Faculty, Gulf, and Non-Gulf Arab students to meet each other's expectations?

2. Literature Review

2.1 Challenges in English language teaching in the GCC countries

Javid et al. (2012) argue "A growing mass of research suggests that English language teaching (ELT) in the Arab world has not produced the desired results" (p. 56). They note that despite spending huge amount of money and hiring international faculties to teach English, the results are unimpressive. Among the many causes of this disturbing situation reported by researchers, lack of collaboration with the native speakers of English, student motivation, and cultural differences (Sonleitner & Khelifa, 2005) are worth mentioning.

Though the GCC universities attract many English teachers (Ali, 2009), not many of them share the culture of their students. For instance, the teaching demographic in the Foundation Program comes from different nations and beliefs. Since language and culture are distinctive but connected areas, their relationship becomes important when a faculty works with students from a dissimilar culture. For example, Sonleitner and Khelifa (2005) investigated the challenges Western-educated faculty face in a gulf classroom and concluded that faculty-student cultural differences lead to frustration. They further argue that a conflict between foreign faculty expectations about teaching and learning and student attitude towards education can result in misinterpretation of the local cultural context, which can hinder the education process in the classroom. However, the results can be different if the actions are informed by a solid understanding of the cultural and historical perspectives of each other's practices (Gutierrez & Rogoff, 2003).

2.2 Challenges in English language teaching in Qatar

The history of ELT in Qatar dates back to its introduction in the Qatari education in 1949 and to the adoption of the "Crescent English Course" in 1970s that was used by the Qatari schools to teach communicative language skills. Al-Buainain (1988) describes the course as "an attempt to present four aspects of language use which characterize in particular the learning of languages when this is done successfully in a 'natural' situation" (p. 5). Since then, the field of ELT in Qatar has gone through several changes to adapt modern language teaching techniques, train the faculty, and develop students' language skills. Among the many challenges ELT in Qatar encounters are the struggle to create a balance between language and identity (Romanowski, Cherif, Al-Ammari, & Al-Attiyah, 2013), 'typical teaching behaviors' (Al-Thani, 1993), and inexperienced and unqualified faculty, unsuitable instructions, poor teacher training, and incongruous assessments (Al-Khwaiter, 2001).

3. Context of the Study

According to Hofstede (1991), culture is "the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another" (p. 5). Though people share certain socio-cultural practices (heroes, symbols, rituals and values), Hofstede opines that they also carry certain 'layers of culture' at group and/or individual levels, which may lack harmony and are exposed to internal conflicts, leading to differing behavioral patterns.

Abu El-Haj (2008) furthers Hofstede's definition when she challenges the notion of treating culture as a static entity and classifying different groups of Arabs and Muslims under similar ideologies. For instance, categorizing all the diverse Arab communities as one 'culture' and defining it as a unilateral way of being, doing and acting merely because of a shared language-Arabic-does not serve the purpose because they "are highly diverse in terms of religion, socioeconomic class, national origin, and migration patterns" (p. 177). This explains the existence of multiculturalism within the Arab world, and cautions against overgeneralizing the traits of one group over the other in academia (Raza, 2018).

For example, Gutierrez and Rogoff (2003) disapprove the practice of teaching strategies that are informed by the categorization of individuals on the assumption that they share similar expectations, abilities and interests. They provide a description of cultural regularities through a comparison of the immigrated children of rural Mexican and European families and the way these children perceive adult assistance in task completion. They believe that such descriptions allow us to understand literacy development and that "it is more useful to consider differences in the children's, their families', and their communities' histories of engaging in particular endeavors organized in contrasting manners" (p. 22).

This informs the division of Arab students into Gulf and Non-Gulf Arabs in this paper based upon their cultural regularities, socio-economic situation, and educational backgrounds to understand their distinctive expectations on English literacy. Similarly, it also helps us understand why an expectation analysis of these two sub-divisions of student population and English faculty is essential.

During transculturation, different cultures intersect with each other in places that Pratt (1996) calls "contact zones" to establish a society that is aware of the ideas and perspectives of its members. The discussions that take place in this new social setting result in sharing distinct expectations and producing new meanings. However, this interaction does not result in coalescence of different cultures; rather a social structure comes into existence "in which very distinct cultural systems coexist in a space and interact with each other" (p. 3). Thus, differences in thinking, feeling and acting of people can result in producing different expectations about their roles in education.

4. Methodology

4.1 Research methodology

The research design chosen for this study was sequential explanatory mixed methods. This design consists of two dissimilar stages where qualitative is preceded by quantitative (Ivankova, Cresswell, & Stick, 2006). Quantitative data, collected and analyzed in the first stage, is further explored with the help of qualitative data. Since quantitative and qualitative methods are not without limitations and cannot fully solve the complexity of human behavior, a combination of the two, as in this study, helps explore the statistical findings in detail by involving participant in-depth views (Miles, Huberman & Saldana, 2014).

The motivation for choosing sequential explanatory design for this study was to identify the differences between the expectations of Gulf Arab students, Non-Gulf Arab students and English Faculty. This study used two separate questionnaires for quantitative and qualitative data collection. First, quantitative data was collected through a bilingual (English & Arabic) Web-based survey (Creswell, 2012) questionnaire that consisted of nine items about student responsibility and used a four point Likert scale of *strongly agree* to *strongly disagree*. The purpose of the quantitative phase was to answer research questions one and two that focused on identifying and classifying the selected variables to see the similarities and the differences in the expectations of all three groups.

The data was collected from the faculty and the students in a Foundation Program Department of English (FPDE) at a Middle Eastern University (MEU). This program consists of three sub-programs: Foundation English, Post-Foundation and Embedded; and aims at achieving students' academic readiness through the development of English language proficiency. Foundation English and Post-Foundation students study their majors in English; whereas, Embedded students pursue their studies in Arabic language.

The survey questionnaire is based on the theory of 'self-fulfilling prophecy' rediscovered by Rosenthal and Jacobs (1968). Though Robert Merton coined the concept in 1948, Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) provided the first evidence to show that a teacher's expectations can affect his students' achievement. As Dusek and Joseph (1983, as cited in Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2010) proposed that teacher expectations are correlated with student achievements, this important issue directs attention towards understanding the relationship between teachers' expectations and students' learning behavior.

All but one of the survey items were borrowed from the previous studies that investigated similar research questions (Javid, et al., 2012; Nhapulo, 2013; Parris & Block, 2007; Sherry, et al. 2004). To establish validity and reliability of these items, the survey was pilot-tested with forty-two students and eight faculty. Based on the results of this pilot study, the items were modified slightly from their original form with regard to the clarity of instructions and wording of the items to be included in the Likert scale. The condition followed for selecting the faculty was that they should be teaching English for the Foundation Program. The criteria for selecting the students included: (1) being Gulf Arab students; (2) and currently studying English in the Foundation Program.

Sixty six faculty members agreed to participate in this study; 64% of the respondents were male and 54 % of them reported English as their first language (L1). Forty five percent participating faculty were aged between 31-40 years and 52% were 40+. Only 3% fell in the 21-30 years old category. The nationalities reported by the faculty participants were Albanian (1), American (18), Australians (2), British (5), Bulgarian (2), Canadians (3), Egyptians (1), Indians (4), Iranians (1), Turkish (7), Maldivian (1), Moroccan (1), Nigerian (1), Pakistanis (3), Russian (1), Sudanese (5), Syrians (3), Tunisians (4), Ukrainian (1), and Yeminis (2). Similarly, 708 students completed the survey. After eliminating all the non-Arab student responses, as they were not the focus of this study, there remained 527 Arab respondents (383 Gulf Arabs and 144 non-Gulf Arabs). Seventy

six percent of the respondents were female students. 65% of the participants were aged between 15-20 years and 32% were between 21-30 years old.

Secondly, qualitative multiple case study was used to collect in-depth views through individual interviews which were semi-structured. This type of study is used to collect and analyze data which is rich in context, from more than one cases, and helps in generalizing the collected data (Merriam, 1998). The qualitative stage helped answering the last two research questions that focused on two connected areas: understanding the roles the differing expectations can play in classroom practices and the ways the expectations of English faculty be aligned with students.

Eleven faculty and eleven students were purposefully selected (Ivankova, et al., 2006), from those who completed the survey, for this stage to explore the qualitative data by recording their detailed views. The faculty consisted of eight male and three female, and were from USA (5), Britain (1), Canada (2), Yemen (1), Egypt (1), Sudan (1) and Albania, (1). The faculty were selected based upon two criteria: (1) should be working full time in the Foundation Program; and (2) have taught English in the Gulf countries for at least three years or in Qatar for at least 1.5 years. The selection method for the students included: (1) being Gulf Arab or Non-Gulf Arab students; (2) currently studying English in the Foundation Program; (3) must have completed the survey; (4) and should have intermediate language proficiency to ease communication. Eleven students participated in the interview: seven Gulf Arabs and four non-Gulf Arabs. Among these participants, six were male and five were female. All of the students had been studying English for more than three years in an academic setting.

All the interviews were audiotaped using two recording devices and notes were taken onto paper to increase the availability of information. Both of these recorded talks were utilized when transcribing and analyzing the qualitative data.

5. Results and Analysis

5.1 Quantitative data analysis

5.1.1 Independent t-test results

Since one of the purposes of this research is to explore the differences between the expectations on student responsibility of the English faculty, Gulf and Non-Gulf Arab students, an independent *t*-test was considered appropriate to investigate if the differences between the means of the groups were statistically significant. Three independent *t*-tests were run to compare the results. The first test compared the means of the English faculty and Gulf Arab students. The second test compared the means of the English faculty and Non-Gulf Arab students. Lastly, Gulf Arab and Non-Gulf Arab student means were compared.

The first independent *t*-test was run to see if Gulf Arab student and English Faculty expectations on student responsibilities towards nine given items were different. Significant difference was found in the expectations on five items as shown in Table 1. This reveals that students and faculty expect student responsibilities on these five items differently which may have great pedagogical impact. It also shows that teacher expectations were higher only in one area (item 1: developing

fluent English accent); however, student expectations were higher than teachers in other four areas (item 2 - item 4).

Table 1. *t-test Results Comparing Teachers and Gulf Arab Students on Expectations of Student Responsibilities*

Expectations on Student Responsibility include:	*t*-test	M	S D	T	df	D	95% C1	d
1. Developing fluent English accent		2.303	0.840				95% C1[-.95969, -.52365]	
Teacher								
Student	.000	.561	0.705	-7.655	447	-.74167	95% C1[-.93209, -.55125]	-0.724
2. Classroom discipline		1.773	0.747				95% C1[.10094, .51882]	
Student	.004			2.915	435	.309		0.279
Teacher		1.463	0.605				95% C1[.12910, .49067]	
3. Peer Collaboration and interaction		1.671	0.749				95% C1[.02339, .40956]	
Student	.028			2.203	447	.21647		0.208
Teacher		1.454	0.661				95% C1[.03807, .39487]	
4. Studying additional books		2.616	0.963				95% C1[.54080, 1.02491]	
Student	.000			8.366	121	.78285		1.519
Teacher		1.833	0.646				95% C1[.59760, .96811]	
5. Taking homework seriously and turning in assignments on time		1.877	0.830				95% C1[.28944, .70755]	
Student	.000			4.686	447	.49850		0.443
Teacher		1.379	0.575				95% C1[.33498, .66202]	

The second independent *t*-test was run to see if Non-Gulf Arab student and English Faculty expectations on student responsibilities towards nine given items were different. Significant differences were found in the expectations on five items as shown in Table 2. This indicates that students and

faculty expect student responsibilities on these five items differently which may have great pedagogical impact. It also shows that teacher expectations were higher only in one area (item 1: developing fluent English accent); however, student expectations were higher than teachers in other four areas (item 2 - item 4).

Table 2. *t-test Results Comparing Teachers and Non-Gulf Arab Students on Expectations of Student Responsibilities*

Expectations on Student Responsibility	*t*-test	M	SD	t	df	D	95% C1	d
1. Fluent English accent								
Teacher	.000	.303	0.840	-3.725	208	-.46275	95% C1[-.70940, -.21610]	-0.517
Student		1.840	0.833				95% C1[-.70765, -.21785]	
2. Classroom discipline								
Student	.000	1.861	0.763	3.803	208	.40657	95% C1[.19581, .61732]	0.527
Teacher		1.454	0.612				95% C1[.21180, .60133]	
3. Collaboration and interaction with peers								
Student	.004	1.778	0.770	2.947	208	.32323	95% C1[.10699, .53947]	0.409
Teacher		1.455	0.661				95% C1[.11847, .52800]	
4. Studying additional books								
Student	.000	2.409	0.888	4.726	208	.57639	95% C1[.33597, .81680]	0.655
Teacher		1.833	0.646				95% C1[.36184, .79094]	
5. Taking homework seriously and turning in assignments on time								
Student	.000	1.979	0.806	5.445	208	.60038	95% C1[.38298, .81777]	0.755
Teacher		1.379	0.576				95% C1[.40766, .79309]	

The third independent *t*-test was run to see if Gulf Arab and Non-Gulf Arab student expectations on student responsibilities towards nine given items were different. Significant differences were found in the expectations on three items as shown in Table 3. This reveals that Gulf Arab and Non-Gulf Arab students expect student responsibilities on these three items differently which may have great impact on academic and non-academic collaboration. It also shows that Non-Gulf Arab student expectations were higher in two areas (item 1: developing fluent English accent, and item 2: developing grammatical accuracy); however, Gulf Arab student expectations were higher than Non-Gulf Arab student in only one area (item 3: studying additional books).

Table 3. *t-test Results Comparing Gulf Arab and Non-Gulf Arab Student on Expectations of Student Responsibilities*

Expectations on Student Responsibility	*t*-test (2-tailed)	M	SD	t	df	D	95% C1	D
1. Fluent English accent Non-Gulf Arab Gulf Arab	.016	1.305 1.209	0.461 0.408	-2.392	446.861	-.09563	95% C1[-.17421, -.01705] 95% C1[-.17349, -.01777]	-0.226
2. Grammatical accuracy Non-Gulf Arab Gulf Arab	.027	1.924 1.768	0.720 0.713	-2.231	525	-.15599	95% C1[-.29425, -.01772] 95% C1[-.29331, -.10866]	-0.195
3. Studying additional books Gulf Arab Non-Gulf Arab	.026	2.616 2.409	0.963 0.888	2.238	525	.20647	95% C1[.02527, .38766] 95% C1[.03147, .38146]	0.195

5.2 Qualitative data analysis

In order to explain the results from phase 1 and to explore ways to align the differing expectations, individual interviews were scheduled with the students and the faculty. The interviews were divided into three parts. First, the participants were asked to re-take the survey questionnaire and explain their responses. Then they were asked to respond to the survey results. The motivation for doing this was to collect detailed participant views about their responses. In the last part of the interview, participant suggestions on expectation alignment strategies were recorded.

As Table 4 shows, the entire faculty agreed with faculty survey responses but disagreed with student responses. In addition, majority of the faculty considered students responsible for all the items on the survey questionnaire. On the other hand, majority of the students disagreed with all the survey results. However, they explained that student responsibilities include developing an English accent, maintaining good relationship with the instructor, doing homework and assignments on time, and studying additional books.

Table 4. *Student and Faculty Responses to Interview Questions and Qualitative Data Analysis Results*

Items	Student Responses	Teacher Responses
Consistency of results	64% disagreed with faculty and student survey results	All faculty agreed with faculty survey results; but 81.82% disagreed with student survey results
An English Accent	55% believed it is student responsibility	91% believed it is student responsibility; however, explained that they prefer fluency not accent
Grammatical Accuracy	63% believed it is teacher responsibility	80% believed it is student responsibility
Classroom Discipline	46% believed it is shared responsibility	80% believed it is student responsibility
Relationship with the Instructor	36% believed it is student responsibility 36% believed it is teacher responsibility	46% believed it is student responsibility
Collaboration and Interaction with Peers	46% believed it is shared responsibility	80% believed it is student responsibility
Homework and Assignments	81% believed it is student responsibility	100% believed it is student responsibility
Additional Books	46% believed it is student responsibility	72% believed it is student responsibility
IT Skills	46% believed it is shared responsibility	62% believed it is student responsibility

Similarly, students believed that teacher responsibilities include developing students' grammatical accuracy and establishing good relationship with the students. Finally, students considered maintaining classroom discipline, creating opportunities for collaboration and interaction between students, and developing IT skills as shared responsibilities of the faculty and the students.

5.3 Participant recommendations for faculty

5.3.1 Mutual understanding

Both groups of participants suggested developing a teacher-student learning contract (TSLC) by sharing their expectations through surveys, conferences and in-class discussions. They believed that the development of a TSLC is vital in English literacy as it could cater for the academic and social duties of both groups, and can help in setting rules for task completion, discipline, participation, motivation and classroom management. Furthermore, these TSLCs can also guide school and university administrations towards addressing student-faculty expectations through orientations and workshops.

5.3.2 Teacher characteristics

The participants suggested using instructional strategies in English studies that not only motivate instructors to teach effectively but also encourage students to learn better. One participant argued,

"Students do all the work if teachers make them realize that it is serious". One more participant added, "A teacher should help his students develop skills, not simply assist them in passing the course".

The participants claimed that the nationality of the instructor does not matter. However, majority of the students prefer instructors of opposite gender. One participant disapproved generalization of perception, discouraged stereotyping and expected "the teachers to have higher expectations of their students" in English studies.

5.4 Participant recommendations for students

5.4.1 Student characteristics

The participants suggested that English students could achieve their academic goals through peer collaboration, class participation, and working closely with the instructor. One faculty stated, "Students should submit assignments on time and study additional books to show that they understand their responsibility". Similarly, one student advised, "Gulf Arab students need to be realistic and understand their future needs". Commenting on learner autonomy, one participant suggested relying more on self-study and less on instructors for language development.

5.4.2 Development of study skills

The participants argued for the development of study skills and learning strategies for successful literacy. For example, one participant claimed that "different skills need different ways", so the students need "training" to develop them for English education. One participant suggested, "The skills that were not developed at school can be developed now at university".

5.5 Recommendations for the university

5.5.1 Rules and regulations

The participants emphasized English faculty empowerment in decision-making and application of university's English literacy policies. Motivation of students through social pressure and campaigns, monitoring of student intake for quality purposes, legal application of policies on attendance, plagiarism and discipline, enforcement of the IELTS exam as an exit requirement, heavier weighting on speaking performance, inclusion of faculty-student expectations in SLOs, and development of a strong referral system and its proper monitoring were among other suggestions.

5.5.2 University expectations

A participant suggested the university to "be realistic and expect less from the instructors as students cannot develop all the English skills in one year". Another participant added, "Covering more in English classes does not mean more learning by the students".

6. Discussion

In answer to the first two research questions raised by this study, similarities and differences were found in faculty and Arab student expectations of student responsibility in English studies. This study also identified areas where teacher-student expectations did not match. Though Gulf Arab and non-Gulf Arab student expectations were same when compared to teacher expectations-teacher-student expectations differed on the same 5 items (See Table 1 & 2); however, their mutual expectations did not match on only 3 items when compared against each other (see Table 3). This

shows that both Gulf and Non-Gulf Arab student expectations of their teachers' role(s) in the classroom are same.

This similarity could be because majority of the non-Gulf Arab students were either born in Qatar or have lived here for very long, which may have localized their expectations. On the other hand, these results call for increasing efforts to enable English teachers, including expatriates, to meet Arab student expectations. This confirms the conclusions of Syed (2003) that highlighted the issues caused by limited awareness of local sociocultural and linguistic characteristics and emphasized the need to increase the English instructors' understanding of the Gulf culture and aspects of language education to enhance quality teaching.

The survey results were surprising because Arab student expectations on the 5 items where student-teacher expectations did not match were higher than the teacher expectations. This is consistent with Rubie-Davies, et al.'s (2010) findings where students had positive expectations of themselves as compared to their teachers and parents. Since research (Tsiplakides & Keramida, 2010) suggests that teacher expectations influence student performance-for instance, when they act as self-fulfilling prophecy-lower teacher expectations can result in poor student achievement (Rubie-Davies, et al., 2010). This helps in answering the third research question that the differing expectations can directly affect the learning process and widen the gap between a teacher and his student.

These findings provide room for further study by raising certain questions. For example, what factors contribute to lower teacher expectations? Why students have higher expectations of themselves as compared to their teachers? What are the consequences of lower teacher expectations in the English classes?

The survey questionnaire allows educators to analyze faculty-student expectations about their roles in the classroom. Educators can use this survey to collect information about their students' perspectives on English literacy and then compare the results with their own views about teaching and learning. This analysis is important in selecting instructional strategies that cater for the academic needs of the learners.

The last research question asked suggestions of the students and the teachers to reduce the gap in expectations that fall under three main categories: recommendations for faculty, students and university. In faculty's case, the participants suggested the need of a student-teacher expectations contract that can serve as a platform for sharing expectations and developing mutual understanding. The faculty can use this contract as a tool to remind students of their responsibilities and motivate them to engage in academically concentrated activities (Breen & Littlejohn, 2000). The participants also advised that a teacher should hold higher expectations of his students.

Secondly, the participants argued for increased student awareness of their responsibility and of their teacher's expectations for successful learning. There was a call for students to increase hard work, collaborate with peers, develop study skills, and work closely with their instructors to increase the chances of academic success.

In the last category, the participants suggested changes in the university English education policies and demanded successful implementation of these policies. To improve the university education, the participants suggested lowering class sizes, providing role models for students, increasing extra-curricular activities and creating opportunities for student-teacher collaboration. The participants emphasized extra help for the first year students in their smooth transition to university setting, and accelerated efforts to develop literacy skills that are necessary to succeed in a university.

7. Conclusion

This study has exposed that a gap exists between the teacher and the student expectations of what the students are estimated to do in the English classes at a Middle Eastern university and suggests that this gap should be bridged. The teachers and the students agreed that they should convey their expectations in the classroom and expected the university to facilitate and support these efforts.

Since this was the first study in this context that analyzed the data collected from the English faculty, Gulf, and Non-Gulf Arab students studying in a Middle Eastern University, it cannot be claimed that this study is without limitations. For example, the study provides information about participants' expectations but does not explore the roots and the development of these expectations. This should be investigated in a future study to understand the factors behind these expectations and the ways these expectations grow.

Another limitation of this research is that the student population mostly consisted of the Gulf and non-Gulf Arabs that were either born in Qatar or have lived here for a considerable amount of time, and that could be the reason that their expectations were same when compared to their teachers. Therefore, it is not sure whether the results of this research can be generalized beyond the participants' experiences. Further research is needed to explore and compare the expectations that Arab students studying in other countries have about their responsibilities in English studies.

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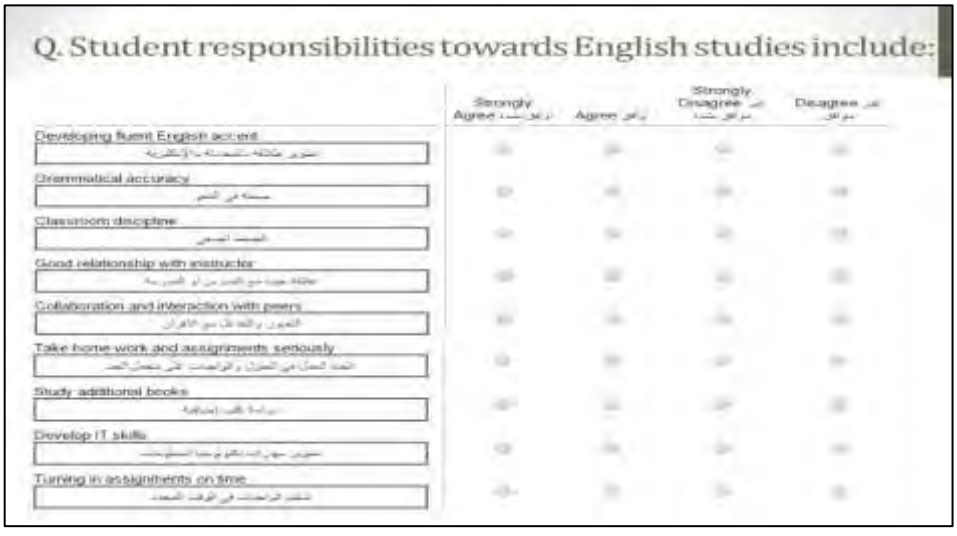
Appendix A: Survey Questionnaire



Appendix B: Interview Questionnaire

Focus Group Agenda and Interview Questions on Student Responsibility towards English Studies

English Faculty vs. Gulf Arab and Non-Gulf Arab Students

1. **Do these results align with your own observations?**

   Prompts (if needed):

   a. What is consistent with your observations? Can you give an example?
   b. What is not consistent with your observations? Can you give an example?
2. **How do you explain or make sense of these results?**

   Prompts (if needed):

   a. Why do you think these differences show up? Can you give me an example?
   b. Do you think there might be any extraneous reasons that might explain the difference (i.e., limitations of the research?)
3. **What do you think the implications of these findings are?**

   Prompts (if needed):

   a. For faculty?
   b. For the universities?
   c. For the students?
4. **What recommendations would you give based on these findings and what we have discussed?**

   Prompts (if needed):

   a. Recommendations for faculty/students?
   b. Recommendations for the universities?

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Linguistic Hegemony of English Language in the Medical Context of King Abdullah Hospital

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Abstract
This study aims to investigate how the dominance of the English language at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia affects service delivery. Specifically, the research focuses on the attitudes of patients and staff towards communicating in English instead of Arabic, which is the primary official language in Saudi Arabia. First, the study addresses the question of how the dominance of English language in the selected medical context affects service delivery. Second, the study explores the attitude of patients and medical staff towards the dominance of the English language. Third, the study presents a comparison of the attitude of patients and medical staff towards the use of English language. Finally, the study responds to the question of how patients' level of education influences their attitude towards the use of English at the hospital. The study is based on quantitative research, involving 60 participants, where 30 patients and 30 medical staff. The findings reveal that 86.7% of medical staff members find it challenging to communicate with their patients in English. On the same note, 60% of patients interviewed admitted that they find it difficult understanding medical practitioners when they communicate in English. The findings can have significant practical implications since they show a possible communication barrier that can be addressed to improve patient experience at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital. The findings provide statistical evidence to inform evidence-based strategies to improve communication between patients and medical practitioners at the hospital.
Abbreviations and Acronyms Definition

Keywords: Communication barrier, language discordance, linguistic hegemony, medical context, patient's satisfaction

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Introduction

Background

The dominance of English language in healthcare settings is one of the topics that have grabbed the attention of researchers around the world. The dominance of a language can be defined as linguistic hegemony, where one language is given a superior status in multilingual societies (Mustapha, 2014). In brief, hegemony is characterized by leadership without force as well as leadership through legitimization. It is based on the ability or willingness of all parties (medical staff and patients) to use it. In Saudi Arabia, the use of English in the clinical setting is due to the presence of medical staff from different countries that are not necessarily Arab-speakers, although the majority of Saudis speak Arabic. Bisha King Abdullah Hospital is an excellent example of the many Saudi Arabian hospitals, where the use of English and Arabic is the norm. This study is informed by the need to measure the attitude of patients and medical staff towards the domination of English in the medical context.

Problem Statement

In Saudi Arabia, foreign experts make a significant fraction of the Kingdom's health care workforce. According to a reliable media report, 66.6% of the 42,768 doctors who were serving in public hospitals across the Kingdom were non-locals (Arab News, 2017). An earlier report by Whitman (2015) shows that 76% of all doctors serving in Saudi hospitals were expatriates. Therefore, the most critical question is how the current situation contributes to the linguistic hegemony of English in these hospitals in a Kingdom where the majority of people speak Arabic. Specifically, this research is based on the attitude of patients and medical staff at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia. On the same note, it is worth noting how linguistic hegemony might affect service delivery. As Pino-Postigo (2017) notes, conveying information in a healthcare setting is critical in achieving successful communication that leads to quick responses in terms of effective treatment and follow-up.

Research Objectives

The current study addresses the following specific objectives

1. To find out how the dominance of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah hospital affects service delivery.
2. To investigate the attitude of patients and medical staff towards the dominance of the English language at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital
3. To compare the attitude of patients and medical staff towards the use of English language at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital
4. To investigate the influence of patients' level of education on their attitude towards the use of English at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital

Significance of the Study

This study provides a platform for patients and medical staff to express views concerning the use of English at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital. The findings can be used by the hospital's management to initiate strategies aimed at reducing the language barrier between patients and medical staff.

Literature Review

The domination of the English language in healthcare settings is seen as a process in which English is regarded as a superior language that staff members and patients use to communicate with each other. In a medical setting, understanding how the medical staff direct patients' attention is an essential feature towards solving the problem of the language barrier. According to Meuter, Gallois, Segalowitz, Ryder, and Hocking (2015), the success of communication depends on whether the message has been packaged appropriately and the listener is capable of inferring the speaker's intention. The Communication Accommodation Theory (CAT) can also be used to understand the negative impact of a language barrier in a healthcare setting (Meuter et al., 2015). The theory supports the dynamic nature of communication, where different parties bring their own motivations. In this case, Saudi Arabian hospitals have become diversified workplaces where experts from different parts of the world work together and serve a predominantly Arab-speaking population. While English becomes a reasonable choice for the clinicians to communicate, it is worth noting that the effectiveness of communication is affected.

The Saudi Arabian healthcare sector faces several challenges that need to be addressed using country-specific approaches. As the government pushes for its Saudization Policy, which is aimed at increasing the number of local experts in all the sectors, studies show that Saudis are not ready to take the position of foreign experts. For instance, a study by Alboliteeh, Magarey, and Wiechula (2017) reveals that most nurses (90.2% of males and 85.6% of females) perceive nursing as a career that keeps them away from home. Also, 71.6% admitted that they would like to work for shorter periods, while 23% indicated they would like to quit the profession in two years. Therefore, the Kingdom's healthcare sector will continue to rely on foreign experts. However, it remains unclear how expatriates affect the dominating language in Saudi healthcare facilities. In particular, it is interesting to know the composition of the workforce has influenced the decision of hospitals such as King Abdullah to use English in a country where many people speak Arabic.

A study by Alqurashi (2016) examined the English language needs among Saudi Arabian medical experts. The findings show that "knowing English has become a key requirement to succeed as a specialist in any profession or field of knowledge" (Alqurashi, (2016, p. 243). According to Alqurashi (2016), English facilitates communication between health professionals from different countries that do not share the same language. These findings support the assessment by Meuter et al. (2015) that miscommunication in the healthcare sector can be life-threatening, especial when patients and healthcare professionals cannot understand each other. For instance, the failure of a clinician to communicate effectively regarding the seriousness of risk can lead to a negative consequence since a patient might fail to comply with instructions (Alkhamis, 2012; Meuter et al., 2015; Bello, 2017). The existence of evidence shows the seriousness of this problem.

A recent study by a group of researchers demonstrates that communication barrier is one of the factors contributing to medicine-related problems among patients with cardiovascular diseases and diabetes (Al Hamid, Ghaleb, Aljadhey, and Aslanpour, 2017). For example, Al Hamid quoted a Saudi Patient complaining by saying:

> No, they do not understand me. They never tell me anything. They write down my medicine on a piece of paper to get them but they never explained anything. The doctor is always busy and thinks that we understand his writing (p. 5).

Other previous studies also show that a language difference is a barrier to the provision of quality healthcare in Saudi Arabia (Albougami, 2015; Almutairi, 2015; Aljuaid, Mannan, Chaudhry, Rawaf, & Majeed, 2016). As Wong et al. (2011) note, effective communication is an important component in a healthcare setting. Therefore, it is worth noting how the use of English in Saudi Arabian hospitals is affecting the ability of hospitals to deliver quality healthcare services.

Studies from other parts of the world show the threats that a language barrier in a healthcare setting can cause, especially when clinicians use a different language from what the majority of the patients use. However, the findings cannot be applied universally since the level of language barriers differ from one country to another. Looking at the country-specific studies on Saudi Arabian healthcare sector, it is clear that the language barrier is a possible threat to the provision of quality services. As Albougami (2015) and Almutairi (2015) and Aljuaid et al. (2016) note, the language barrier is one of the main challenges facing Saudi Arabian hospitals. In a Kingdom where foreign medical practitioners play a significant role in running hospitals, it is necessary for researchers to take a bold step and find out how the problem of the language barrier can be solved. In doing so, appropriate measures can be taken to address the language barrier leading to improved service delivery.

3.0 Methodology

This chapter examines the research approach applied to address the research questions introduced in chapter one. Specifically, the chapter shows how qualitative and quantitative research designs were applied. The chapter also presents the data collection procedure applied and the sampling of patients and medical staff at Bisha King Abdullah hospital. Finally, the chapter shows how data analysis was conducted to achieve the goal of this study.

3.1 Procedure for Measuring Variables

In this study, several variables were investigated in line with the research questions. The attitude of patients and medical staff towards effective use of the English language at Bisha King Abdullah hospital was the dependent variable. This dependent variable was a function of the following independent variables: (1) understanding, (2) satisfaction levels, (3) policy and rights, and (4) language of communication.

3.2 Research Design and Instruments

Quantitative research method was applied in this study to provide statistical evidence. The research approach was important in providing much–needed statistical evidence to address the specific research objectives in order to achieve the main objective of the study (Atieno, 2009; Rahman, 2016). In particular, patients and medical practitioners were surveyed using questionnaires to gain crucial insight regarding their viewpoints. In doing so, it will be possible to know their views concerning the use of English at the hospital. On the same note, a cross-sectional research design was applied to take a snapshot of the current situation at the hospital. The cross-sectional research

approach was ideal for this study since it allows for the collection of data at a given point in time for both groups (patients and medical staff).

3.3 Population and Sample

The study targeted patients and medical staff. The inclusion of these two groups was important since they are expected to communicate and interact with each other during the patients' hospital stay. Specifically, patients from the outpatient and inpatient department were free to participate as long as their condition allowed them to fill the questionnaires. For the inpatients, patients from the male, female, and the maternity wards at Bisha King Abdullah hospital were allowed to participate. Similarly, medical staffs from the same departments were engaged to ensure that each department was well-represented. In brief, a sample size of 60 participants was targeted through a random stratified sampling technique to pick an equal number of participants from each sub-group. In so doing, it was possible to compare the two groups and draw conclusions.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

A formal approach was used to seek permission to conduct the study at the hospital. For the participants, both patients and staff members, participation was voluntary. Also, the identities and personal information were protected by identifying questionnaires with numbers rather than actual names (Kelley, Clark, Brown, & Sitzia, 2003). Questionnaires were used to collect data. All willing participants were issued with a questionnaire and given time to fill it. Giving them privacy and time to fill the questions allowed them to fill accurate and factual information without fear (Kelley, Clark, Brown, & Sitzia, 2003). Two questionnaires were used: one for the patients and the other for the medical staff. For convenience reasons, the questionnaire for patients was in Arabic, while the questionnaire for medical staff was in English. The questionnaires contained close-ended questions to facilitate data entry into statistical software and analysis.

3.5 Data Analysis Procedure

With the aid of the SPSS, the data analysis focused on the descriptive analysis and comparison of means. For the descriptive analysis, the thought was to statistically measure how often the staff members use English and Arabic as well as their views about the possible staff- patient and staff-staff communication barriers. For the comparison of means, the analysis focused on comparing the views of patients and staff members regarding the use of English to determine the degree of agreement or disagreement. Also, a comparison analysis was done to show how the ability to communicate in English influences the views of patients and staff members' attitude towards the use of the language. Finally, the analysis focused on determining the relationship between the attitude of patients and their level of satisfaction with the use of English at the hospital.

3.6 Reliability of the Tools

Cronbach's alpha helped in testing the internal consistency. The results showed the calculated Cronbach's Alpha for questionnaire sections: 0.760 for patients and 0.740 for medical staff, as shown in the table.

Table 1. *Cronbach's Alpha reliability results*

Questionnaire Sections	Number of phrases	Cronbach's Alpha
Patients	9	0.760
Medical Staff	9	0.740
Whole Questionnaire	18	0.750

Cronbach's alpha ranges from r = 0 to 1, with r = 0.7 or greater which is considered as sufficiently reliable (Nunnally & Bernstein, 1994)[(1)].

4.0 Data Analysis and Findings

This chapter presents the analysis of data to address the research objectives introduced in chapter one. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section focuses on the analysis of responses from the medical staff, while the second section covers the patients' responses. The third section presents a discussion of the findings.

4.1 Analysis of Responses for Medical Staff

4.1.1 Descriptive Analysis

Figure 1 shows the distribution of Medical Staff, according to Gender. Female had the highest percentage, with 60% (n=18) of the total sample, while the remaining 40% (n=12) were male medical staff members.

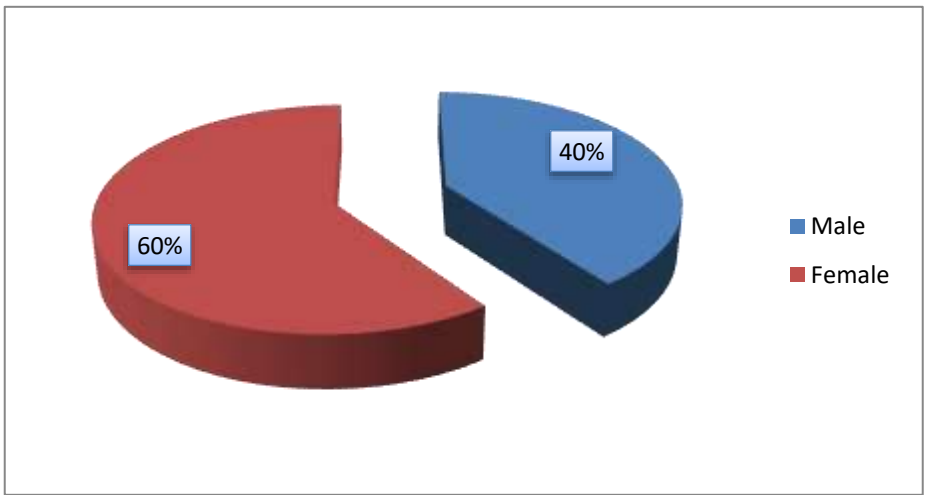

Figure Error! Main Document Only.. Medical staff participants by gender i.e., males and females

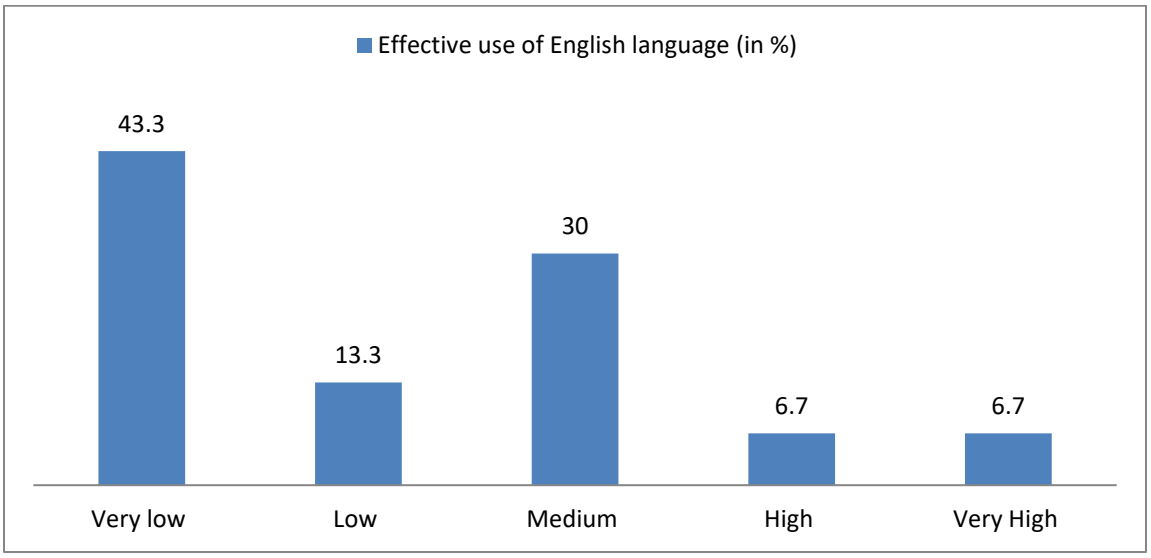

Figure 1. Effective use of English language in the medical context of Bisha King Abdullah hospital according to the Medical Staff.

Figure 2 illustrates the responses of Medical Staff towards effective use of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah hospital. This outcome clearly shows that medical staff members are aware of the language barrier that the use of the English language brings at the hospital.

4.1.2 Attitude of the Medical Staff

Table 1: *Attitudes of the Medical Staff towards the effectiveness of English language in the medical context of Bisha King Abdullah Hospital*

	Statements	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	Neutral (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly disagree (1)	Mean	Standard Deviations (St. D)
Understanding	1. I find difficulties to communicate with patients in English.	26 (86.7%)	3 (10%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (3.3%)	4.77	0.774
	2. I find difficulties to understand the needs of patients who cannot communicate in English language.	15 (50%)	11 (36.7%)	1 (3.3%)	1 (3.3%)	2 (6.7%)	4.20	1.126
Satisfaction	3. I am satisfied with the use of English as the primary language in the medical context.	5 (16.7%)	6 (20%)	4 (13.3%)	7 (23.3%)	8 (26.7%)	2.77	1.478
	4. I can communicate effectively in English with patients who speak English.	14 (46.7%)	10 (33.3%)	3 (10%)	0 (0%)	3 (10%)	4.07	1.230
Policy and rights	5. I feel that the use of English in the medical context is not compatible with the needs and rights of patients in Saudi Arabia.	10 (33.3%)	9 (30%)	5 (16.7%)	5 (16.7%)	1 (3.3%)	3.73	1.202
	6. Policies which govern the use of Arabic as a language that improves service delivery in the hospital should be developed.	10 (33.3%)	12 (40%)	4 (13.3%)	2 (6.7%)	2 (6.7%)	3.87	1.167
Language of communication	7. Communication with patients would be easier if Arabic was the primary mode of communication.	11 (36.7%)	9 (30%)	5 (16.7%)	3 (10%)	2 (6.7%)	3.80	1.243
	8. I Prefer to provide the service in Arabic instead of English in Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia.	4 (13.3%)	10 (33.3%)	5 (16.7%)	4 (13.3%)	7 (23.3%)	3.00	1.414

Table 1 shows that creating an understanding between patients and medical practitioners is the main problem that English dominance at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital brings.

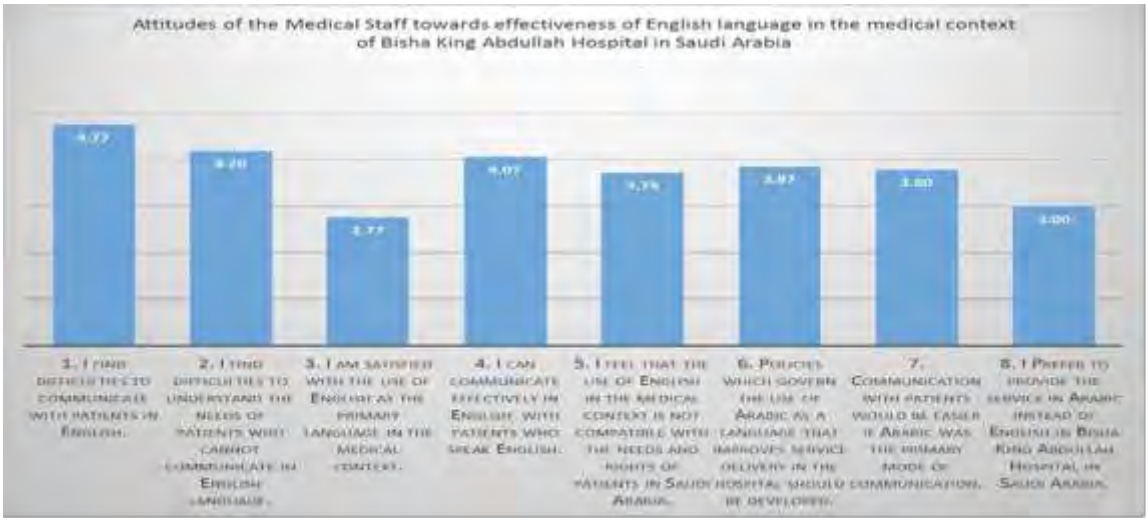

Figure 2: The mean scores of the attitude of the Medical Staff towards the effectiveness of English language in the medical context of Bisha King Abdullah Hospital

As Figure 3 below shows, the comparison of means provided crucial insights regarding each of the four areas: understanding, satisfaction, policy and rights, and preferences of language for communication. The items for measuring the aspect of understanding registered the highest mean score.

Table 2**.** *Attitudes of the Medical Staff towards the effectiveness of English language in the medical context of Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia according to Gender*

	Statements	Mean		T- value	P- value	
		Male	Female			
Understanding	1. I find difficulties to communicate with patients in English	4.92	4.67	0.863	0.395	Not Significant
	2. I find difficulties to understand the needs of patients who cannot communicate in English language	4.58	3.94	1.559	0.130	Not Significant
Satisfaction	3. I am satisfied with the use of English as the primary language in the medical context	1.58	3.56	4.709	0.000**	Significant
	4. I can communicate effectively in English with patients who speak English	4.17	4.00	0.358	0.723	Not Significant
Policy and rights	5. I feel that the use of English in the medical context is not compatible with the needs and rights of patients in Saudi Arabia	4.00	3.56	1.062	0.298	Not Significant
	6. Policies which govern the use of Arabic as a language that improves service delivery in the hospital should be developed	4.08	3.72	0.826	0.416	Not Significant
Language of communication	7. Communication with patients would be easier if Arabic was the primary mode of communication	4.42	3.39	2.393	0.024*	Significant
	8. I Prefer to provide the service in Arabic instead of English in Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia	4.08	2.28	5.099	0.000**	Significant

* significant at the 0.05 level
** significant at the 0.01 level.

The researcher applied independent sample t-test to test whether there were significant differences in responses of the Medical Staff towards effective use of the English language in terms of gender. As summarized in Table 2 below, there was a significant difference between male and female responses towards effective use of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah Hospital in regard to satisfaction and language of communication.

4.2 Analysis of Patients' Responses

4.2.1 Descriptive Analysis

Analysis of the patients' demographic factors provides an essential overview before analyzing their attitude towards the use of English in a hospital setting. The demographic factors analyzed were gender, age, and education. As Figure 4 demonstrates, both genders were equally represented with 15 participants each. With adequate representation, it was possible to conduct further analysis using gender as the independent variable. Concerning age, 46.7% of the respondents fell under the range of 20 and 40 years, while 26.7% were either below 20 years old or over 40 years. Although the two age groups were poorly represented, it shows that the age of the patients surveyed spread over a wide margin. Lastly, regarding the educational level, an equal number of patients (36.7%) received a university education or did not reach the university level. A smaller percentage (26.7%) received postgraduate degree. This outcome shows that patients with different educational attainment agreed to participate in this study representing the members of the society well.

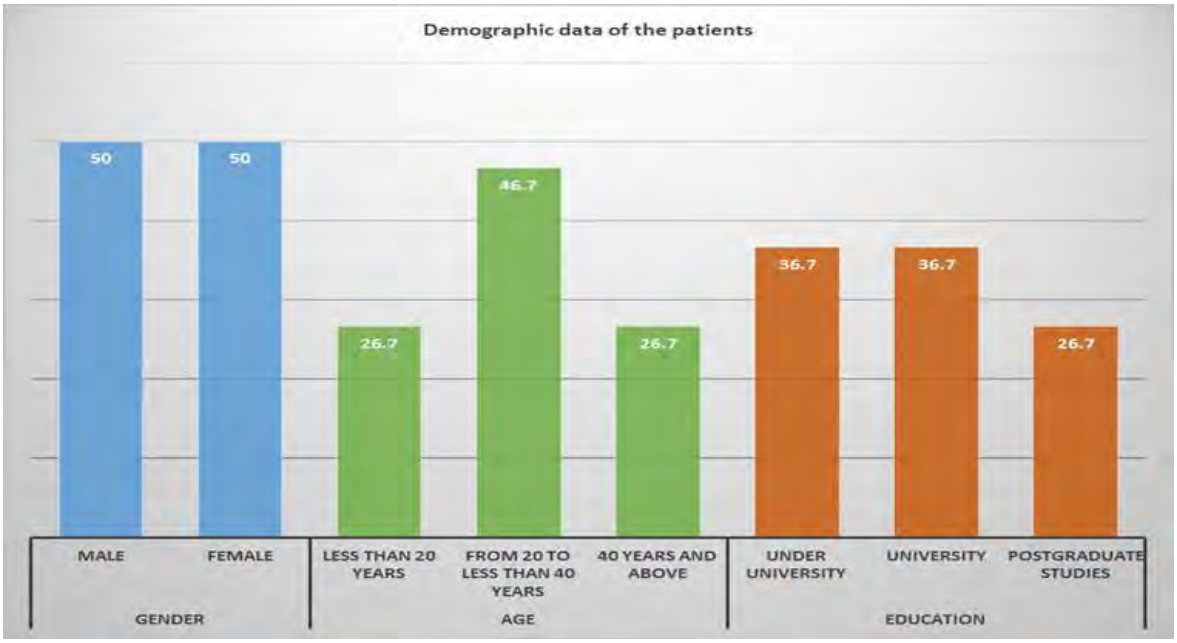

Figure 3. Patients demographic information (gender, age, and level of education)

Figure 5 shows the responses of patients towards the effectiveness of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah hospital. This outcome shows that the majority of patients are against the use of English due to language barriers it brings at the hospital between them and their caregivers.

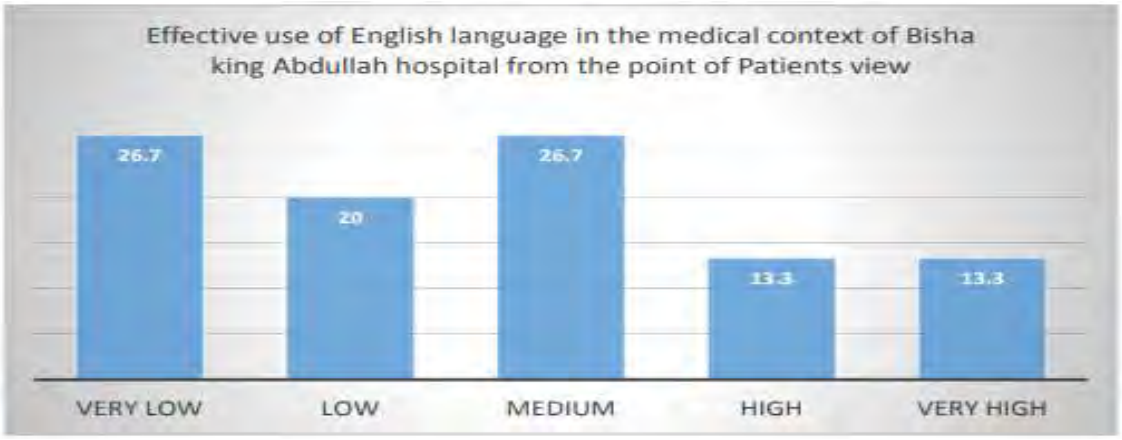

*Figure 4***.** Effective use of the English language in the medical context of Bisha King Abdullah

4.2.2 Attitudes of the Patients

The attitude of patients surveyed on the effectiveness of English in the Saudi Arabian medical context varied significantly. Concerning patients' satisfaction, the majority of the patients were unsatisfied with the domination of English at the hospital. Notably, the attitudes of patients towards the policy and rights that should govern the use of English differed slightly. This shows the negative attitude of patients towards the use of English as a language of communication in the healthcare context. These responses brought the mean score of the responses to 4.60 out of 5 (Figure 6) below. The patients prefer the use of Arabic instead of English, whereby their views are based on other genuine concerns such as satisfaction, and issues to do with policy and their rights as recipients of medical services.

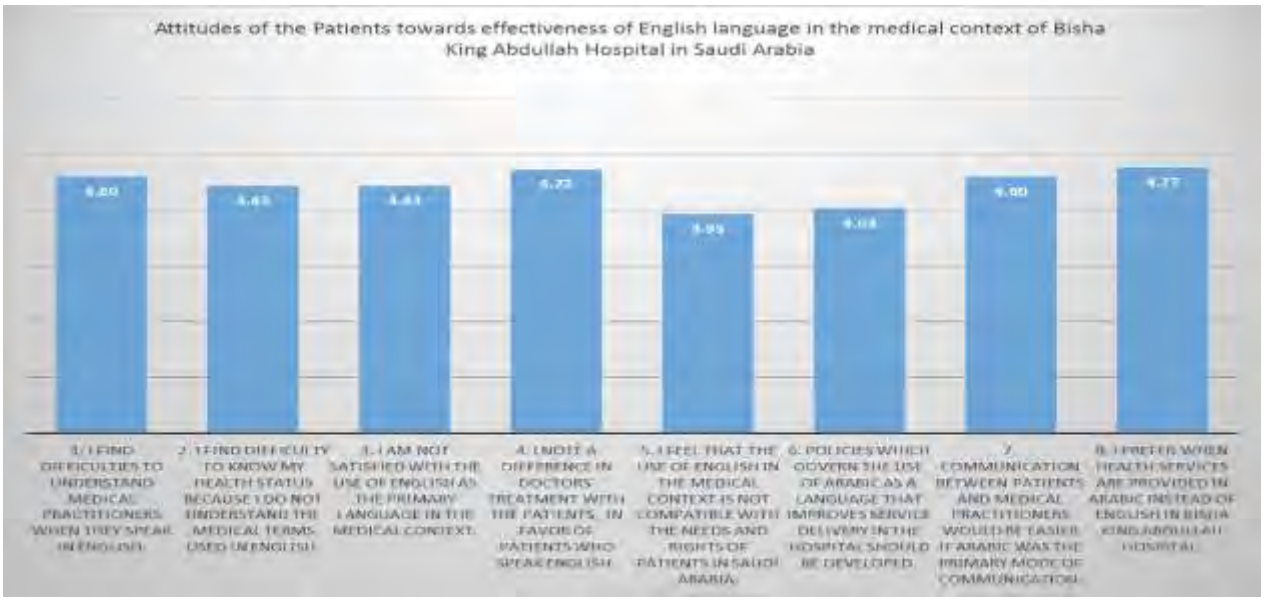

Figure 5: *Mean scores on the attitude of patients towards the effectiveness of English in the medical context*

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Table 3. *Attitudes of the Patients towards the effectiveness of English language in the medical context of Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia based on Gender*

Statements		Mean		T-value	P- value	
		Male	Female			
Understanding	1. I find difficulties to understand medical practitioners when they speak in English.	4.53	4.67	0.727	0.473	Not Significant
	2. I find difficult to know my health status because I do not understand the medical terms used in English.	4.27	4.60	1.488	0.148	Not Significant
Satisfaction	3. I am not satisfied with the use of English as the primary language in the medical context.	4.07	4.80	3.157	0.004 **	Significant
	4. I note a difference in doctors' treatment with the patients, in favor of patients who speak English.	4.67	4.80	0.807	0.426	Not Significant
Policy and rights	5. I feel that the use of English in the medical context is not compatible with the needs and rights of patients in Saudi Arabia.	3.40	4.47	3.947	0.001 **	Significant
	6. Policies which govern the use of Arabic as a language that improves service delivery in the hospital should be developed.	3.53	4.53	3.949	0.000 **	Significant
Language of communication	7. Communication between patients and medical practitioners would be more natural if Arabic was the primary mode of communication.	4.53	4.67	0.581	0.566	Not Significant
	8. I Prefer when health services are provided in Arabic instead of English in Bisha King Abdullah Hospital.	4.53	5.00	3.500	0.004 **	Significant

Independent sample t-test provided a platform for determining whether there were significant differences in responses of the patients towards effective use of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah hospital based on their gender. This is well illustrated in Table 3 below. As Table 3 shows, there was a significant difference in regards to satisfaction, policy, and rights as well as the language of communication.

Table 4. *ANOVA results according to Age and Education*

Groups		N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	F	P-value Sig.
Age	Less than 20 years	8	4.4531	0.22097	0.07813	0.123	0.884
	From 20 to less than 40 years	14	4.4107	0.38427	0.10270		
	40 years and above	8	4.4844	0.36252	0.12817		
	Total	30	4.4417	0.33272	0.06075		
Education	Under University	11	4.5568	0.28703	0.08654	1.193	0.319
	University	11	4.4091	0.42972	0.12957		
	Postgraduate studies	8	4.3281	0.19975	0.07062		
	Total	30	4.4417	0.33272	0.06075		

4.3 Comparison between Physicians' and Patients' Responses

The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was applied to test whether there are significant differences in Patient's responses towards effective use of the English language in the medical context based on age and education. The use of ANOVA was necessary since more than two groups were included in the comparison. As Table 4 shows, the significance value for age and the level of education was 0.884 ($p>0.05$) and 0.319 ($p>0.05$), respectively. Hence, the differences between the groups were insignificant. The reason for the absence of significant differences was the homogeneity of the responses.

A comparison between the views of physicians and patients towards the visibility of the use of English language provide crucial insights. Interestingly, 43.3% of the medical staff members considered the visibility of the use of English to be very low compared to 26.7% of patients who share a similar view. The cumulative percentage, however, shows that both groups prefer the use of Arabic instead of English. The mean score of 2.20 and 2.67 out of 5 for the medical staff and patients respectively shows that both groups consider the use of English in the selected medical context invisible.

The comparison shows that patients' approval levels are higher than those of physicians towards the visibility of the use of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah hospital. With a lower approval rate from the physicians, this outcome shows the concern that medical staff members share about the need for effective communication. Even though they are comfortable using it, they are aware of the ineffectiveness and inconveniences that using English brings to their patients.

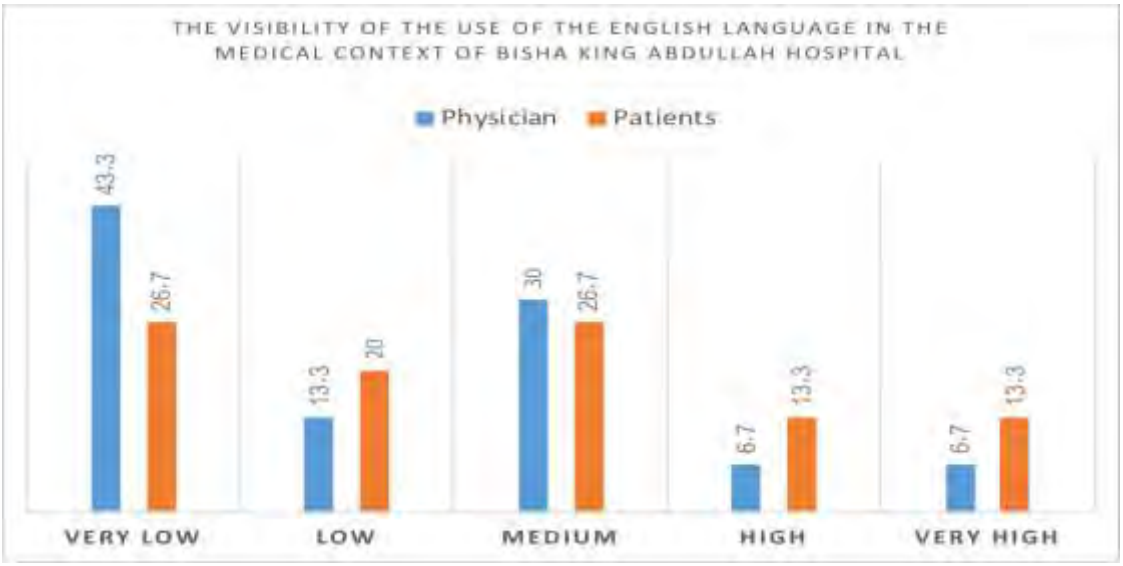

Figure 6. A comparison of Attitudes of patients and physicians towards the visibility of the use of English in the medical context

4.4 Discussion

In summary, the findings provide crucial insights regarding the view of healthcare providers and patients on the use of English at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital. The willingness of patients and medical staff members to participate made it possible to collect the much-needed data required to address the specific research objectives introduced in chapter one. With the assistance of SPSS, the analysis outcomes can be summarized in the findings below. Firstly, the findings show that the views of medical staff and patients differ in regards to the use of English in the selected hospital. On the one hand, the analysis on the views of the medical staff members revealed that the average responses towards the visibility of the use of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah hospital were 2.20 out of 5, which corresponds to (Low) in 5- point Likert scale. This shows that medical staff members are concerned about the language barrier that English brings at Bisha king Abdullah hospital. This outcome is different from previous findings by Alqurashi (2016), which showed that medical staff members in various parts of the globe prefer using English since it facilitates communication between health professionals from different countries.

On the other hand, patients' mean response towards effective use of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah hospital was 2.67 out of 5, which correspond to Medium in 5- point Likert scale. This outcome can be attributed to the possibility that patients consider using English as problematic. Understandably, the majority of women with a lower level of education (less than university) strongly agreed with the preference for the use of Arabic, which they are good at, instead of English. This outcome shows that service delivery is adversely affected when there is a language barrier between patients and health practitioners. For instance, 100% of

female patients admitted finding it difficult to understand their doctors. In a medical context, such communication barriers lead to poor service delivery. This outcome can be related to the studies conducted in other parts of the globe on the importance of language in facilitating communication between patients and healthcare givers (Al Hamid et al., 2017; Albougami, 2015; Almutairi, 2015; Aljuaid et al., 2016). For instance, Al Hamid et al. (2017) revealed that communication barrier contributes to medicine-related problems among patients with cardiovascular diseases and diabetes since the healthcare giver finds it challenging to communicate with the patient about compliance and other vital issues.

The analysis shows that gender is a significant independent variable. In some instances, male and female patients and medical staff show different attitude towards the use of English in a medical context. The Independent sample t-test revealed that women are more likely to have a negative attitude towards the use of English in a medical context more than their male counterparts. Female patients registered higher scores for the two items meant for policy and patients' rights. Similarly, a significant number higher for female patients were registered in one of the items meant for measuring the satisfaction with the use of the English language at the hospital.

5.0 Conclusion and Recommendations

5.1 Conclusion

Just like other hospitals across the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, Bisha King Abdullah Hospital will continue to serve a predominantly Arab population. As discussed above, this study has provided statistical evidence to show that patients prefer communicating in Arabic while the caregivers do not mind speaking in English, although they would prefer a language that every patient understands. The majority of patients prefer Arabic to English since they are concerned about understanding their care providers.

The evidence has addressed the research gap by providing organization-specific evidence for Bisha King Abdullah Hospital. It is worth noting how each hospital offers a unique working environment depending on the proportion of medical staff members who can speak Arabic. As the local language among Saudis, it is no doubt that patients will always prefer Arabic to English, as the findings show. Therefore, the current study confirms that linguistic hegemony of English at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital is a challenge to both patients and medical staff. Although medical staff can use it, they are concerned about their patients and the language barrier that English creates between them and their patients. In line with the findings discussed above, it is crucial to examine the practical implications and the opportunity for further research that this study opens.

5.2 Recommendations

5.2.1 Recommendations for Practice

The current study provides crucial empirical evidence that policy-makers and hospital management can use to make informed decisions. For Bisha King Abdullah Hospital, this study provides hospital-specific statistical evidence that can be used to develop evidence-based programs to enhance effective communication between patients and care providers. For instance, the evidence can be used to justify the introduction of a training program, where medical staff members from other parts of the world can learn Arabic. In doing so, the hospital can achieve the objective of enhancing caregiver-patient communication at the same time, retaining the pool of experienced expatriates working for the hospital.

5.2.2 Recommendation for Future Research

This study provides a platform for researchers to conduct further studies regarding the domination of English in the Saudi Arabian healthcare setting. Firstly, this study focused more on identifying the problem. Therefore, further study is needed to identify and test the effectiveness of strategies aimed at addressing the problem. Secondly, more study is required to expand the scope of the study. For instance, researchers in the future should consider involving several hospitals rather than a single healthcare facility. A study involving several cases will provide a platform for comparison allowing the researcher to conclude whether the problem is a regional or national issue or just an issue at Bisha King Abdullah Hospital only. Thirdly, the application of a cross-sectional research design introduced a limitation since the data was collected at one point only. In the future, researchers should consider applying a longitudinal research design to deal with the language barriers caused by English dominance in the Saudi Arabian healthcare setting.

About the author:

Hanan Sarhan is both a lecturer and a dean assistant at Bisha University. She specializes in teaching English and assisting the dean in academic affairs. Before starting her career at Bisha University, she did her undergraduate and master's degree at King Khalid University. Hanan has excellent communication skills, a good public speaker and a docile learner who respects and appreciates her superiors. ID ORCid- https://orcid.org/0000-0002-2909-8051

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Appendices

Appendix A: Questionnaire for Patients

عزيزي المريض/ المريضة ..... المحترم/ المحترمة

هذا الاستبيان أداة لجمع البيانات اللازمة لإجراء دراسة عن مدى تأثر ممارسات الطبيب أثناء الفحص الإكلينيكي للمريض بلغته الأم. ويهدف الاستبيان إلى التعرف على مدى تأثر ممارسات الطبيب أثناء الفحص الإكلينيكي للمريض بلغته الأم. ويرجى قراءة الأسئلة بعناية ووضع علامة (*) في المربع الذي يعبر عن رأيك بكل صراحة.
وتؤكد الباحثة أن نتائج هذا الاستبيان ستبقى سرية ولن تستخدم إلا لأغراض البحث العلمي.
وأخيرًا، أود أن أعرب عن شكري وتقديري العميق لتعاونكم في ملء هذا الاستبيان.

شاكرًا تعاونكم،،،

الباحثة
عيسى الزهراني

القسم الأول/ المعلومات الشخصية:

يرجى ملء النموذج أدناه.

الاسم: (اختياري) .....

1- الجنس: ذكر أنثى

2- العمر: أقل من 20 سنة من 20 سنة إلى أقل من 40 40 سنة وما فوق

3- المؤهل: دون الجامعي جامعي فوق الجامعي

القسم الثاني/ أسئلة عن مدى استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في الممارسات الطبية داخل مستشفى الملك عبد الله بمدينة الطائف الجامعية

يرجى وضع دائرة حول الإجابة التي تنطبق عليك شخصيًا:

1- ما مدى تأثير اللغة الإنجليزية في ممارسات الطبيب مع المريض بمستشفى الملك عبد الله بمدينة الطائف الجامعية؟

كبيرة جدًا كبيرة متوسطة ضعيفة ضعيفة جدًا

القسم الثالث/ الاتجاهات نحو استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في الممارسات الطبية داخل مستشفى الملك عبد الله بمدينة الطائف الجامعية

يرجى قراءة هذه الأسئلة بعناية ووضع علامة على الإجابات المناسبة.

المحـــــاور	العبـــــارات	وأافـق بشدة)5(	وأافـق)4(	محايد)3(	لا أوافق)2(	لا أوافق بشدة)1(
الفهم	1- أجد صعوبة في التواصل مع الأطباء في المستشفى بسبب عدم فهم المفاهيم الطبية باللغة الإنجليزية.					
	2- أجد صعوبة في فهم وضع الصحي للمرضى بسبب عدم فهم المصطلحات الطبية المستخدمة باللغة الإنجليزية.					
الرضا	3- أنا غير راض عن استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية كلغة أساسية في السياق الطبي في المستشفى.					
	4- الحظ فروقاً في تعامل الأطباء مع مرضى اللغة الإنجليزية من المرضى.					
السياسة والحقوق	5- أشعر أن استخدام اللغة الإنجليزية في السياق الطبي لا يتوافق مع احتياجات وحقوق المرضى في المملكة العربية السعودية.					
	6- يجب تطوير السياسات التي تحكم استخدام اللغة العربية لكل لغة لتحسين مستوى الخدمات في المستشفيات في المملكة العربية السعودية.					
لغة الاتصال	7- أعتقد أن الاتصال بين المرضى والأطباء سيكون أسهل إذا كانت اللغة العربية هي الوسيلة الأساسية الاتصال.					
	8- فلا تتوفر خدمة اللغة العربية دائماً من اللغة الإنجليزية داخل مستشفى الملك عبد الله في مدينة الرياض المملكة العربية السعودية.					

Appendix B. Questionnaire for Medical Staff Members

Dear Mr\ Mrs.....

This questionnaire attempts to explore how the dominance of English in medical practice among the Saudi Arabian medical practitioners affects service delivery to patients. Please read the questions carefully and put a sign (*) in the box that best expresses your opinion. The researcher assures you that the results of this questionnaire will remain confidential and will be used only for scientific research purposes.

Finally, I would like to express my thanks and appreciation to all those who will complete this questionnaire.

Thank you for your cooperation

Researcher

Hanan Sarhan Alsubaiai

Part I - Personal Information:

Please fill in the form below.

Name (optional) …….

1-Sex: ◯Male ◯Female

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2-Age: ◯ Less than 20 years ◯20 to less than 40 years ◯40 years and above

3-Education: ◯Less than University ◯University ◯ Above University

Part II- Effectiveness of English language in the medical context of Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia

Please circle the answer that best applies to you:

1- How effective is the use of English language in the medical context of Bisha king Abdullah hospital in Saudi Arabia?

◯ Very High ◯ High ◯ Medium ◯ low ◯ Very low

Part III- Attitudes towards the effectiveness of English language in the medical context of Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia

Please read these questions carefully and tick the appropriate answers.

Section	Statements	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	Neutral (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly disagree (1)
Understanding	1. I find difficulties to understand medical practitioners when they speak in English.					
	2. I find difficult to know my health status because I do not understand the medical terms used in English.					
Satisfaction	3. I am not satisfied with the use of English as the primary language in the medical context.					
	4. I note a difference in doctors' treatment with the patients, in favor of patients who speak English.					
Policy and rights	5. I feel that the use of English in the medical context is not compatible with the needs and rights of patients in Saudi Arabia.					
	6. Policies which govern the use of Arabic as a language that improves service delivery in the hospital should be developed.					
	7. Communication between patients and medical practitioners would be easier if Arabic was the primary mode of communication.					

Section	Statements	Strongly Agree (5)	Agree (4)	Neutral (3)	Disagree (2)	Strongly disagree (1)
Language of communication	8. I Prefer to provide the service in Arabic instead of English in Bisha King Abdullah Hospital in Saudi Arabia.					

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Bloom's Taxonomy and Moroccan Children's Vocabulary and Critical Thinking Skills Development

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Abstract

Children normally feel unable or less confident to express their ideas clearly, freely, and critically both orally and in writing when learning a language. Research has demonstrated that children's early exposure to Bloom's Taxonomy levels in stories has a "remarkable power" on them (Dickinson, et al. 2012) and helps develop their language and critical-thinking skills (Egan, 1997; Curtain & Dahlberg 2004). The aim of this research project is to investigate the role of Bloom's Taxonomy in the development of the vocabulary and critical-thinking skills of young Moroccan English learners. The study adopts a qualitative approach and addresses two research questions, namely, (i) To what extent does Bloom's Taxonomy contribute to the development of the children's vocabulary and critical thinking skills? (ii) How can the children's vocabulary and critical-thinking skills development be justified? The comparison and analysis of the children's story reviews at the start and end of a term reveals significant improvement, among the Moroccan young learners, especially the average ones**.** They are able to use a wider range of more appropriate and accurate vocabulary and to make use of a more extended, analytical and relevant discourse. Hence, children's early exposure to Bloom's Taxonomy is highly recommended as it contributes to the development of their vocabulary and critical-thinking skills.

Keywords: Accurate vocabulary, Bloom's taxonomy, critical-thinking skills, English learning, language development, Moroccan children

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Introduction

Learning a foreign language can be either an exciting and motivating experience or a real challenge. One explanation for this problem might be related to the children's limited vocabulary in the language acquired, as a result of a lack of reading stories in English both at school or at home. Good readers are likely to develop larger vocabularies over time, while poor readers, who are not familiar with print experience a slow vocabulary development (Cunningham & Stanovich, 1991, 1997; Nagy & Anderson, 1984; Nagy & Scott, 2000). Another explanation refers to the fact that learners who do not read or are not encouraged to read by their parents or their teachers find it difficult to discuss ideas, interpret information and reach or sustain a high level of thinking that good readers are able to reach (Rubin, 1983).

Therefore, reading in general and reading stories, in particular can help learners develop a wider range of vocabulary and be able to discuss ideas related to the stories that go beyond the concrete lines of the text, and result in a more relevant, creative, and extended discourse both orally and in writing, especially when they are exposed to the Bloom's Taxonomy levels. These levels do, indeed, help learners move from a mere remembering of the story events to more critical thinking, analysis, and evaluation of the information in a more creative and sound way. Oster (1989) confirms that literature enables learners to write more creatively.

The aim of the current study is to investigate the writing progress of 30 pre-intermediate Moroccan young learners, through their exposure to Bloom's Taxonomy levels for 12 weeks. The main objective is to reveal the role of Bloom's Taxonomy and find out about the other factors related to their reading habits that can explain their progress.

Review of the Literature

The Benefits of Reading Stories to Young Children

Over the years, research has demonstrated the numerous benefits of using stories with young learners in the classroom. First of all, reading stories to children raises their print awareness. In other words, children who are read to regularly start to understand that written language is linked to oral language and that it uses letters and words to convey messages and information. The habit of seeing print, and observing adults' reactions to print, helps children to become familiar with written texts and helps them to recognize its various forms and how books work (De Temple, 2001).

Moreover, scholars argue that children who are aware of print at an early age can develop better reading skills and achieve relative academic success sooner than those who are not.
Cunningham & Stanovish (2003, p. 35) claim that: ".. the amount of print children are exposed to has profound cognitive consequences, and that the act of reading itself serves to increase the achievement differences among children." This achievement can be shown in the improvement of their vocabulary and reading skills, given that the vocabulary used in every day speech is often limited and repetitive, whereas reading books offers learners an opportunity to learn new vocabulary related to varied topics. As a result, they enrich their vocabulary. For bilingual or multilingual children, reading can be an easy way to improve their language skills and crucial in developing their fluency (Bonfiglio, 2017).

Bloom's Taxonomy, named after a psychologist Benjamin Bloom, is known to develop and strengthen children's linguistic and cognitive abilities.

The Effects of Bloom's Taxonomy on the Children's Vocabulary and Critical Thinking Skills

According to (Bloom, et al. 1956) and (Anderson, et al. 2001), human thinking skills can be divided into six different categories: remembering, understanding, application, analysis, evaluation, creation. The example questions provided for each category are related to the second story, "Three Wishes from a Fish," which participants were asked to write a review about.

Remembering: At this level, students are usually asked simple questions to remember or recall information or knowledge about the story. Questions such as: "How many main characters are there in the story?" or "Where were the fisherman and his wife living at the start of the story?" are usually asked at this stage. Most learners of different levels are able to provide factual answers as they can be either right or wrong. This level can help learners use new words more accurately.

Understanding: This level requires students to understand the meaning of the story and answer questions, such as: "Can you describe the fisherman's wife?" or "Why do you think the fish agreed to grant the fisherman's first wish?" The answers to these questions reveal the learners' understanding of the story and offer them the opportunity to expand on their ideas. Therefore, learners can start demonstrating signs of critical-thinking skills, which can be further developed at the next levels. Nevertheless, understanding can be a challenge for weak students, who might know the answer but feel intimidated due to a lack of appropriate vocabulary in English.

Application*:* Learners at this level are supposed to apply previously learned knowledge from the book to other new situations. Questions such as: "Why did the fisherman tell his wife about the talking fish?" or "What could have happened if the fisherman hadn't told his wife about the fish?" Applying their previous knowledge to new situations can help learners develop their ideas in a more critical way.

Analysis*:* This level encourages the child to examine the information gathered from the book, compare and contrast events and start thinking about other alternatives to the events of the story. Questions such as "What would you do if you were the fisherman's wife?" or "Why do you think the fish didn't grant the wife's last wish?" can be helpful at this level and can make moving to the next level easy and smooth.

Evaluation: At this level, children start evaluating the events of the story, giving their opinions and justifying them without real right or wrong answers, and accepting other different opinions. Questions like: "Do you think the fish should grant the wife's last wish?" or "How is the fisherman different from his wife?" are appropriate at these level and good students are usually the first ones who feel ready and confident to answer them, especially if they are exposed to them in previous situations. Over time, weak students can demonstrate the ability to answer such questions appropriately and imaginatively if they are given more time to reflect on their ideas, especially in writing. This level can be conducive to the last level of Bloom's Taxonomy, creation, if dealt with appropriately in the classroom.

Creation: This level can help the learners to use their prior knowledge and skills to create their own story that makes sense to them and to the world around them. "Thinking is a purposeful, organized, cognitive process that we use to make sense of the world" (Chaffee, 2000, P.1). Questions such as: Find another ending to the story or write a poem about the fisherman can be asked at this level. This level can be the end product for learners after reading a story because it allows them to clearly show accurate use of appropriate vocabulary that helps them to link their ideas in a more logical, critical, and creative way.

To sum up, using Bloom's Taxonomy levels not only fosters the children's linguistic skills during stories in the classroom, but it also enables them to move beyond mere language learning to the strengthening of their thinking and creative skills, especially if these levels are exploited appropriately by teachers and if learners of different levels are given equal opportunities to make their voices valued

Research Methodology

The Study

The study is an action-research project which adopts a qualitative research approach**.** The study focuses on the development of the linguistic and cognitive abilities of Moroccan pre-intermediate English learners. Broadly speaking, Moroccan children grow up in a bilingual environment where they start learning French, their first foreign language, at an early age, usually from the third year of primary school in the public sector. Children from affluent families start learning French and even English long time before their peers in the public sector. English has been gaining ground recently and competing with French in some domains. While it is still far behind French in terms of number of speakers, it is increasingly becoming the most prestigious language among young people and the first choice for the languages being learnt not only among educated people and rich families, but also among modest families because Moroccans believe that English will help their children advance educationally and professionally. At an early age, many families take their children to English language centers to learn English (Benjelloun, 2017).

Participants

The study involved 30 Moroccan primary pre-intermediate learners (8-10 years old) who belong to rich families and attended a three-hour class for 12 weeks in a well-known center for learning English as a foreign language. Most learners have been in the same center for three consecutive academic years. They have shown interest in learning English and seemed to enjoy learning it through stories and drama. The best ones are very enthusiastic about learning English and participate actively in the story-based tasks. The average ones have built their confidence gradually and seem to feel proud of their achievements. The weak students require, however, more support and scaffolding on the part of the teacher, especially during story-reading activities.

Data Collection Instruments

The data used in this study were collected through the use of two types of instruments, namely (i) children's written reviews of two different stories at the start and end of the second term and (ii) a focus group with the parents and children so as to collect some background information about child-parent shared reading.

A book reading task was chosen as the main instrument. Children were asked to review two different books at the start and end of the second term. At the start of the term, they were asked to read a story of their own choice at home to encourage them to read for pleasure and write a review of the story in the classroom with the help of a worksheet. This was also an opportunity for the teacher to identify their strengths and weaknesses, and to assess their prior knowledge of Bloom's Taxonomy levels, especially in terms of their vocabulary and critical-thinking skills.

Throughout the term, the teacher and the children read different stories together during the last hour of each session, called "Activity Hour." During the story time, children were directly exposed to Bloom's Taxonomy levels through answering questions related to each level. (Refer to the theoretical background for the questions). Children were encouraged to register in the school library and borrow stories in English to read at home. In the middle of the term, after the exploitation of a story called "The Ant and the Grasshopper" using almost all the levels of Bloom's taxonomy prior, during, and after the reading of the story, the children had to write a review of the book with the teacher's assistance. The aim of this activity was to provide a sample of a good review and explicitly direct the children's attention to these levels.

At the end of the term, a second, age-appropriate story with lots of colourful, eye-catching pictures was carefully chosen. It was appealing to both boys and girls and was selected to maximise their enjoyment of learning English through stories. Moreover, based on Krashen's theory of language acquisition (1985), the story was beyond the learner' language level (i (input) +1) so as not to be too easy or too difficult for them to understand and to help them guess words from the context and infer their meanings.

The story, "Three Wishes from a Fish," by Yara S. Mignon, illustrated by Sandra Cammell, is about a fisherman who lives with his wife in a little house. One day while he is fishing, the fisherman catches a talking golden fish which begs him to save its life. The fisherman complies and lets it go**,** but when he tells his wife what happened, she gets angry and asks him to go back to the sea and ask the fish for a bigger house. The fish grants them their wish and promises them two more wishes. But the wife does not remain content for long and wishes for a palace instead of the bigger house. She then wishes to be the queen so she could give orders to people. Her wishes are granted, but the greed of the fisherman's wife increases and she also wishes to be the queen of the weather. Her last wish is not granted and, finally, the couple returns to their old house.

After reading and discussing the story in the classroom, the children were given a worksheet similar to the one at the beginning of the term and were asked to write a review of the story. The teacher, then, wrote several questions related to the levels of Bloom's Taxonomy on the board and encouraged the children to use their answers to help them write the review. (For examples of the questions, refer to the section: *The Effects of Bloom's Taxonomy on Children's Vocabulary and Critical Thinking Skills*.) This scaffolding on the part of the teacher was useful for children to feel secure and understand how to complete the review.

The use of Bloom's Taxonomy levels in the children's story reviews were assessed in terms of vocabulary range and accuracy in addition to their critical-thinking skills through the extent and relevance of their discourse.

Focus Group

Both parents and children were asked different questions about their reading habits and strategies at home. Most children stated that they usually read stories in French and have become more interested in reading stories in English this term, though they feel they still need to improve their accuracy. They have also registered in the centre library and borrowed stories on a regular basis. However, their parents had divergent opinions. Most of them claimed that they do not read stories in English with their children, though they strongly believe that English is very important for their children's academic and professional success. Some of them are fully aware of how reading stories in English can expedite their progress. Some, however, believe that it is the exclusive duty of teachers and schools to help their children make progress through stories or through other means.

Data Collection Analysis

The qualitative data grouped the students into three groups (weak/average/good**)** for their pre-intermediate level, which falls under the A2 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR). This division was based on the criteria used for assessing students' writing as shown in the following descriptors for writing at the A2 level or (A2 Flyers), which is equivalent to pre-intermediate level. For example, A2 learners can: link groups of words with simple connectors like 'and', 'but' and 'because' and use the most frequently occurring connectors to link simple sentences in order to tell a story or describe something as a simple list of points (Pre-A1 Starters, A1 Movers and A2 Flyers revisions, 2018).

The Common European Framework of Reference (CEFR) is a useful and well-known tool for the assessment of languages in the classroom. The students' writings were easily assessed and the first and second reviews were compared and evaluated as groups in terms of the range and accuracy of their vocabulary as well as the extent and relevance of their critical-thinking skills. The students' examples were displayed in the tables below without any corrections of their spelling, grammatical and punctuation mistakes. The objective is to show the language problems students had at the beginning of the term and how much progress they have made at the end of the term.

Findings

The findings of the study are related to the children's development of vocabulary and critical-thinking skills.

Vocabulary: Accuracy and Range

Accuracy and range are two of the fundamental aspects that teachers across the globe usually refer to when assessing students' writing. Table 1 below shows the development of students' vocabulary range from Term 1 (T1) to Term 2 (T2) for three months at different degrees.

Table 1. *Students' vocabulary range*

Students' vocabulary range			
Students' Levels	**Weak students**	**Average students**	**Good students**
1ST Review	Chicken, egg, cool, funny	Elephants, old, tall, fat, big, fall, funny	: Summer, duck, cold, winter, swan, funny
2nd Review	Fisherman, silly, woman, hungry, let, go, queen	Fisherman, beautiful, angry, let, go, amazed, palace, butler, upset, disappointed, fishing, went, back, back, old, moral, greedy	Golden, fish, upset, palace, granted, wish, stop, fishing, angry, weather, swim, away, queen

As it clearly appears in the above examples, while the weakest students used a range of vocabulary in their second review of the story, most of the average and good students were able to use a wider range of vocabulary. All of them, though, demonstrated the use of the first level of Bloom's Taxonomy, which is remembering the key words of the story (e.g. the fisherman, golden, fish, women, greedy, amazed, palace), they still need to improve their accuracy, especially spelling for weak students as demonstrated in table 2.

Table 2. *Students' accuracy (spelling)*

Students' accuracy	**Weak students**	**Average students**	**Good students**
1ST Review	Beache, musique, childen, storie, appel, hose	Laidy, seck, liek	Descided, tink, agly
2nd Review	Wife, expansive, palase	Say, magic, wife	Asked, weather, upset

Critical thinking skills: Extent and Relevance

As far as the extent of the children's discourse is concerned, there were some differences between the different types of learners as shown in the following table.

Table 3. *The Extent of Children's Critical-thinking Skills*

The Extent of Children's Critical-thinking Skills			
Students' Levels	**Weak students**	**Average students**	**Good students**

1ST Review	"The chicken has a egg!"	"After that a lot of animals and the grandma was after him."	I liked the story "because it was good."
2nd Review	"The fish sad no."	"After that, she want a palace, be a queen and the queen of the weather but it was not possible because they had three wishes."	I liked the story because "it has a good moral and cause it's full of vocabulary."

As the above examples demonstrate, both average and good students exhibited a higher level of Bloom's Taxonomy by analysing the events of the story and evaluating the story itself and giving their opinions using linking words, such as because, but, and, etc., which fall under the descriptors for the A2 level. However, the weak students still need more improvement with the extent of their discourse.

Children's Relevant Critical-thinking Skills

As far as the relevance of their discourse is concerned, even though the two reviews of the good students are coherent and relevant, both weak and average students showed far more progress in their second reviews, compared to their first ones, analysing the events in a more logical and relevant way as it appears in the following examples.

Table 4. *Children's Relevant Critical-thinking Skills*

Children's Relevant Critical-thinking Skills

Students' levels	**Weak Students**	**Average Students**	**Good Students**
1ST Review	"*Yonder Chan kille Kocona Chan and kidnape Tara to love them."*	"They likes this that or orther, all differents but all happy."	"I'm fast and you can't catch me."
2nd Review	"The fisherman was a good man, he let hem go, but hes wife was very greedy she want a lot and a lot of wishes."	"After that, the wife was amazed because the fisherman have a big house, and after a palace with a butler."	"The fish was beautiful but very small to eat. Then, the fisherman let him in the lake."

Implications

The above findings provide evidence for the students' progress and have a number of implications. Although they showed some progress in their lexical diversity and the relevance of their discourse

and made use of the first two levels of Bloom's Taxonomy (i.e. remembering and understanding), weak students still need to improve the accuracy of their vocabulary and the extent of their discourse. They need more time to read more stories to build their confidence and be able to expand on their ideas. As it is the case of any other skill, learning to write requires time and practice. Moreover, writing may make the learners feel intimidated and may bring up feelings of doubt and insecurity (Cutrara, 2018). The lack of the necessary help at home can be an extra-linguistic factor behind this finding. In fact, most parents of the weak students affirmed that they do not read stories in English with their kids and that they, too, need to improve their English. In contrast, good students were able to come up with more accurate words in their second reviews (see table 1 above). Students consciously or unconsciously reproduced the sounds /s/, /ʌ/ and /θ/ correctly in the words /*a**s**ked/, /wea**th**er/, and /**u**pset/.* They also generated a wider range of vocabulary when expressing their views of the story and analysed the events in a more critical way, resulting in a more extended discourse compared to their first reviews. Yet, in both reviews, good students managed to produce a relevant discourse, linking their ideas in a more coherent and logical way. In comparison to their peers, good students were also able to express their ideas more confidently**,** freely, coherently and logically.

Nevertheless, the most striking finding was among the average students, the majority of the students in the study. This group showed progress in all their linguistic and cognitive abilities. In terms of their vocabulary, they demonstrated a good understanding of the story as shown in their use of a more accurate, appropriate, and expansive range of vocabulary, which helped them to produce a more extended and relevant discourse in their second reviews. This tremendous progress in the average students can be attributed to a number of factors, among which are the following: (i)Average students may have found the stories stimulating and motivating. (ii) They could self-evaluate their progress and feel more confident, and were willing to do better. (iii) Consequently, they felt much more comfortable expressing their ideas. In fact, the students who asked the highest number of questions related to understanding, responded positively to questions, analysed the events of the story and even made up the end of the story were predominantly average level students. Another explanation behind this achievement can be related to the fact that the story chosen for the second review was meaningful and comprehensible and children usually write effectively about something they understand well. In addition, the average students may have felt more responsible for their own learning. Moreover, during the focus group, most of their parents attributed their children's progress to the pleasure they take in reading stories in English. Though most of the parents claimed that they do not read stories in English with their children, they strongly believe that English is very important for their children's academic and professional success. Some of them are fully aware of the vital role reading stories in English plays in the acquisition of English. They do not, however, read stories with them for many reasons. First, they do not have much time to do so and they also need to improve their English. Second, some parents believe that it is the exclusive duty of the teachers and schools to help their children make progress through stories or through other means. Some parents, however, expressed an interest in learning English in order to read stories in English with their children.

Conclusion

Children' early language production can shape their future academic and professional success. Many experts in the field of education in the last decades have emphasized the importance of

children's early exposure to stories and its role in improving the children's vocabulary and strengthening their critical-thinking skills. The objective of the study was to investigate the extent to which 30 pre-intermediate Moroccan young learners from affluent families, who were exposed to Bloom's Taxonomy levels for about 12 weeks, were able to use a range of appropriate and accurate vocabulary in a coherent, analytical and extended discourse in their reviews of a story they read in the classroom.

Most features of Bloom's Taxonomy were evident in the children's language production. The weak students remembered, understood and started analyzing the events of the story, while the average and good students were able to convey messages in a clear, concise, relevant, coherent, and critical way, using a wider range of appropriate and accurate vocabulary, besides remembering and understanding the story.

Similar studies on children of limited or low-income families will definitely open new avenues for other researches for a better understanding of the development of vocabulary and critical-thinking skills of Moroccan children at school through stories, and help identify the factors behind the achievement gap that exists between children of lower-income and less-educated parents and their more-privileged counterparts

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Attitudes of Saudi EFL Learners towards Speaking Skills

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Abstract
This paper looks at intensive program students' perceptions of English-speaking skills and emphasizes the immediate need for improving them at all levels of higher education. For this purpose, 100 students (50 males and 50 females) of the intensive program from colleges of Arts, Business and Community, Saudi Arabia were administered a questionnaire. The data were analyzed quantitatively with SPSS. The findings of the study show that male and female students do not differ in their perceptions about learning to speak English and they are now becoming more aware of the growing importance of learning English. It is also found that lack of environment, interest and motivation are the most important factors that affect students' speaking skills. In addition, female students' perception towards English learning is more positive. The analysis also indicates that there is an undisputed agreement among the learners that English language will play an important role in Saudi Arabia. Finally, some implications for teachers to develop students' speaking skills are presented.

***Keywords*:** attitudes, grammar for speaking, Saudi EFL learners, speaking skills, vocabulary for speaking

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1. Introduction

In an English as a foreign language (EFL) context, among all other language skills; Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (LSRW), speaking is considered to be not only important but also most immediately sought after by all sections of people. There could be numerous reasons for this, such as personal interests, changes in curriculum, new socio-economic plans, more future job opportunities, and revised national development plans. As part of the current socio-economic reforms scenario, Saudi Arabia has introduced Saudi Vision 2030 and is implementing enormous changes in all sectors of development. It is one of the most ambitious plans to transform the country by preparing its youth for a promising future. One of its promises is to provide more opportunities for all through world-class education and training. On many occasions, it was mentioned that English language plays a key role in enhancing job opportunities and all efforts will be made to teach and improve English language skills of the students at all levels of education.

It is true that good communication skills are the need of the hour and most of the Saudi EFL students have realized this fact now. Need for improving speaking or communication skills is now felt by most of the Saudi EFL students as it is immediately sought after by companies in the job market. However, it is observed that some students on the intensive program lack basic competence in all language skills (LSRW). Since our focus is on speaking skills, as part of the classroom activities and also outside the classroom, attempts were made to assess these students' basic speaking abilities. Learners were asked few questions as part of the speaking classes and were encouraged to answer and speak up. To our surprise, it was found that students on the intensive program are quite inexpressive, lack confidence and lack even basic speaking or communication skills. It was rightly pointed by Alhamdi (2014a) that teaching speaking skills is often challenging and complicated process at all levels of Saudi education system. Hence, there is a great need to help students develop their abilities to express their thoughts, beliefs and experiences in an intelligent and affecting manner, as well as to help them gain confidence in themselves as they do so.

This paper, firstly, presents the theoretical framework about the importance of English speaking skills for English language learners and the role of vocabulary and grammar in improving this skill. Secondly, it puts forward the relevant literature review and research questions. The study, then, delves into the details of research methodology and data analysis. Before the conclusion, some useful recommendations to students and teachers are suggested.

2. Theoretical Framework

The theoretical framework of this study presents solid evidence on the significance of speaking skill for English learners and the role of vocabulary and grammar in improving this skill.

2.1 Significance of Speaking Skill

Hughes (2006) states that:

> Speaking is the first mode in which children acquire language, it constitutes the bulk of most people's daily engagement with linguistic activity, and it is the prime motor of language change. It also provides our main data for understanding bilingualism and language contact (p.144).

Developing abilities to perform basic oral communication or speaking is strongly recommended. It is perceived that of all the four macro English skills; speaking seems to be the most important skill required for communication (Zaremba, 2006, as cited in Boonkit, 2010:1306). Mastering English speaking skills are vitally important for foreign or second language learners (Richards, 2008; Khamkhien, 2010). We can say that students' good communication skills are immediate evidence of sound knowledge of all other language skills. However, the distinction between competence and performance are quite clear. In other words, the ability to use language is different from the actual use of language. Therefore, Bygate (1987) has aptly put it in saying that "one of the basic problems in foreign language teaching is to prepare learners to be able to use that language" (p.3). For Saudi EFL students, to communicate in English language is a big challenge as they have a little knowledge of the target language. Hence, speaking is one of the main challenges for students in the first year programme and leads to students' frustration since the beginning of college education.

There are numerous reasons why learning speaking is important for Saudi students. As part of globalization, all countries are obliged to adopt English as an international language. According to Sayin (2015) "Good oral communication is essential to every aspect of life and work." He also says, "The essence given to speaking skills should be arisen day by day among students which is a real-life measure of learning a language" (p. 828).

Thus, it is necessary to help students develop their abilities to communicate with others, effectively, and powerfully. To achieve this end, students will have to be provided with techniques and strategies to actively perform in situations like engaging ideas, conveying information efficiently, arguing persuasively, and analyzing messages. English as a subject has been introduced at a primary level (grade 4) of education. There is a growing awareness and interest among parents, students and public in learning English for various occupational and job purposes. English language helps students to communicate and represent their culture to the world. The curriculum at college level emphasizes the need to learn English so that these students could perform better on the academic courses as they move on to advanced levels.

2.2 Vocabulary and Grammar for Speaking

For speaking mastery, learners need to have knowledge of vocabulary and grammar of the language. Most importantly, this knowledge needs to be practiced. Vocabulary and grammar are regarded as raw material for languages. There is a common tendency that the two fields of study are separate. However, Hunston, Francis, and Manning (1997) argue that words which belong to the main word classes (patterns) "eradicate the artificial divide between vocabulary and grammar" (p. 215).

Being acquainted with vocabulary is vitally important for mastering receptive and productive language skills (Viera, 2017 & Alqahtani, 2015). Vocabulary mastery is essential to both communication and language acquisition and lack of even basic vocabulary is one of the major reasons as to why second EFL learners lack speaking skills. "The common factor to all communication strategies is that the second language (L2) learner has to deal with not knowing a word in a second language; it is lack of vocabulary that is crucial" (Cook, 2008: 109). Revola in her study finds that the students were unwilling to speak English because they are lack of words

and phrases to express their feelings and ideas in English (Revola, as cited in Hakim, 2015). In their study on the relationship of vocabulary knowledge and speaking proficiency, Koizumi, Rie and In'nami, Yo (2013) "suggest the centrality of vocabulary knowledge to speaking proficiency" (p. 900). The greater the vocabulary knowledge, the higher speaking proficiency learners have. Khan, Radzuan, Shahbaz, Ibrahim and Mustafa (2018) prove that there is "a strong correlation between speaking proficiency and vocabulary knowledge" (p. 414). This means that there is a direct proportion between vocabulary and language proficiency. The wider vocabulary one has, the more fluent s/he is. Research shows that learning and using vocabulary is an essential component to college and career readiness.

In addition to vocabulary knowledge, one needs to improve his understanding of grammar rules and to practice using them to have high language proficiency. Without using grammar rules accurately, one might not be able to communicate the desired meaning. Dykes (2007) states that "We all use grammar from the time that we can speak in intelligible sentences" (p. 5). Mastering grammar, therefore, is the basis for language proficiency and no student can speak English well without becoming proficient at English grammar (Wang, 2010).

Thus, vocabulary and grammar are the two essential pillars that hold up languages. Words are the building blocks and grammar is the guide that shows how these building blocks are strung together to construct correct phrases and sentences. Fluency and accuracy are the outcomes of using correct grammar and vocabulary.

3. Literature Review

Many studies on teaching and/or learning English speaking skills, how to improve them and problems behind the low speaking proficiency of learners have been conducted in many countries whose native language is not English. In Pakistan, Khan and Ali (2010), in a study that looks similar to the present one, investigated college students' perspective on improving speaking proficiency. The study concluded that English was not taught as a language but rather it was dealt with as a subject. The majority of the students agreed that they were not given enough time to practice different speaking exercises; they could not speak because of the fear of being laughed at by their classmates; their teachers did not use English most of the time in the classroom. Some of the students responded that they could not speak English in front of their teachers.

Thirty-four students from three colleges of a major university in Iran were assigned into experimental and control group by Gholamhossein and Siamak (2010) to find out whether philosophical questions and dialogues enhanced EFL college students' speaking skill. The study proved that the students' performance of the experimental group was much better than the performance of those in the control group. They outperformed the students of the control group in fluency, range, coherence and content. However, there was no significant difference between the two groups in terms of accuracy.

Alhmadi (2014a) conducts a study on barriers of learning speaking for the foundation year students at Tibah University in Saudi Arabia. The study presents some crucial barriers for learning English speaking such as anxiety, reticence (preference to remain silent in English classes), lack of motivation and encouragement to talk in English. Alhmadi (2014b,) conducts another study on

grammatical speaking errors made by the foundation year students. The errors have been classified according to their frequency from the most frequent errors, the misuse of singular and plural, to the least frequent errors- the use of regular and irregular verbs. Alharbi (2015) explores challenges behind public school students' low speaking proficiency. She has stated that "all EFL countries, including Saudi Arabia, suffer from a lack of authentic situations outside the classroom for practising English communication skills" (2014b:106). Alshahrani (2016) conducts a study on the effects of video conferencing on Saudi EFL students' speaking skills by engaging EFL students in real communicative tasks with native English speakers. He finds that Saudi EFL students have a positive attitude towards videoconferencing as a learning tool and it enhanced their speaking skills as it "creates a realistic communications setting" (p.3).

Bani Younes and Albalawi (2016) conduct another study on the factors that affect Saudi female students' speaking performance and the difficulties they encounter when they learn how to speak English from the students and their teachers' perspectives at Tabuk University. The study shows that conceptual knowledge, lack of motivation and confidence, teachers' feedback, anxiety, mother tongue interference, short time allowed for students' participation, poor input and instructions are all factors that affect students' speaking performance. The study lists certain difficulties that students face when they speak such as "fear of mistakes, fear of criticism, the disability to think of anything to say, speak very little, their mother tongue and students' feel shy to speak" (p. 268). However, disability to think of anything to say might be attributed to students' lack of background information on the topic they have been asked to talk about. In their study on improving speaking skills through active learning strategy in Indonesia, Askia, Manurung and Wahyudin (2016) prove that speaking skills could be improved by using active learning strategy.

Elhassan and Adam (2017) conducted a study on the impact of dialogic teaching on learners' speaking and thinking skills of 2-4 year students at Sudanese universities. The results of the study indicate that dialogue and questioning skills are more effective than other dialogic teaching components. Generally, dialogic teaching is not effective unless learners are given enough time to practice the skills. This approach encourages students to be engaged in different communicative situations and enhances active interaction among teachers and learners. It is more effective with motivated and fluent students.

Al-Sobhi and Preece, (2018) investigated problems that influenced the teaching of English speaking to Arab learners at the Saudi School in Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. The study examines the problems that these learners had when learning speaking skills and the effect of the ESL context on the students' speaking skill. Both teachers and students had problems in their teaching and learning respectively. Problems such as lack of linguistic knowledge and confidence, and overuse of Arabic affected the students' speaking proficiency. The teaching process was influenced by the lack of teaching resources and speaking tests. Both teachers and students considered Kuala Lumpur as a good place for Arab students to develop their English-speaking skills.

In two public and private Ecuadorian universities, Encalada and Sarmiento (2019) explore EFL students' viewpoints about using self-recording videos (SRV) to develop speaking skills. The major findings of their study show that SRVs motivate students to learn English and encourage them to speak English without fear. In addition, SRVs increase students' self-confidence. Eissa

(2019) proves that by adopting digital story telling strategy, in teaching EFL learners in Saudi Arabia at Northern Border University, learners were provided with new vocabulary and proper grammar. It also helped them master stress, tone and intonation and developed their speaking skills.

Novitasari (2019) carried out a study on learners' perceptions and experiences with collaborative learning in their ESP speaking class. The study finds that the majority of the learners perceived collaborative learning positively. It reveals that collaborative learning enabled learners to work in groups, solve problems, communicate with each other, gain self-confidence that helped them practice and improve their speaking skill. The present study explores intensive students' viewpoints, at University of Bisha, about speaking skills and focuses on the immediate need for improving them at all levels of higher education.

4. Research Questions

The study attempts to find answers to the following questions:

1. What are the overall attitudes of Saudi EFL students towards speaking skills?
2. Is there a statistically significant difference between the attitudes of male and female students towards speaking skills?
3. What are the main factors that affect students' attitudes towards speaking skills?

5. Methodology

This section is devoted to present the method employed by the researchers to achieve the objectives and aims of the research.

5.1 Participants

In order to find out the factors behind the students' speaking difficulties as well as their own perceptions towards speaking skills, 100 male and female students from intensive programme of University of Bisha, Saudi Arabia were selected for this study. The students are from College of Arts and Community. Students' average age is between 18 and 20 years. All students are native speakers of Arabic and have some background of English as they studied English as one of the subjects in schools for six years before joining the university.

5.2 Instruments

A questionnaire was used in order to collect data that were quantitatively analyzed. The researchers also interacted with parents as and when they visited the department enquiring their children's progress. Such interactions added advantages to know more about learners' routine and also their academic interests outside the classroom.

5.3 Data Collection

The data were collected from the Department of English, College of Arts, University of Bisha, Saudi Arabia. Permission was obtained from the administration prior to collection of data. The questionnaire to students was administered during the regular class hours. Students were assisted with language difficulties while filling in the questionnaire.

5.4 Analytical and Statistical Procedures

The data were tabulated into SPSS 22 software for statistical analysis to find out the frequencies, percentages, mean and standard deviations. Further, analysis of the exploratory factors, reliability of the components, and results of the independent t-test procedures were statistically formulated. The main aim of this quantitative analysis was to determine if there is any significant difference between male and female participants' perception of speaking skills. The findings of the analysis are presented under the discussion section.

5.5 Questionnaire Design

The questionnaire was divided into three sections. The first section of the questionnaire elicited the students' gender and some yes/no questions. The second area was on barriers of speaking English and the third one was on the speaking skills remedies. Some items of the questionnaire were modified to suit Saudi Arabian context. The researchers distributed the questionnaire to 15 students as a pilot study to determine Cronbach alpha reliability scale. Then the questionnaire was distributed to all the participants. The questionnaire was translated into Arabic language to avoid misunderstanding of the items and to assure getting authentic responses.

6. Data Analysis and Interpretation

6.1 Exploratory Factor Analysis

Male and female students were asked to rate 26 items measuring their perceptions about their English-speaking skills. An exploratory factor analysis was conducted to determine whether the number of items could be narrowed down to a few components. Principal component analysis (PCA) was used to extract the components; the scree plot was used to determine the number of components to retain. The retained components were rotated via a non-orthogonal Oblimin procedure.

The resulting pattern matrix is shown in Table 1. The five factors accounted for 58.47% of the variance. The first component (which accounted for 26.04% of the variance) consisted of the positive effects of learning English. The second component consisted of items measuring the difficulties while learning English; this factor accounted for 16.92% of the variance. The third component consisted of two items measuring embarrassment and lack of encouragement; it accounted for 6.57% of the variance. The fourth component consisted of two items indicating a preference for speaking Arabic; this component accounted for 4.78% of the variance. Only one item loaded onto the fifth component; this component accounted for 4.12% of the variance.

Table 1.
Pattern Matrix for the Perceptions of Speaking English Skills

	1	2	3	4	5
RQ1	.272	.009	-.333	***.538***	.275
RQ2	***.738***	.114	-.158	.217	.049
RQ3	***.679***	-.012	-.157	.177	-.249
RQ4	***.636***	.106	.052	.241	.193

RQ5	***.688***	.042	.116	.054	-.167
RQ6	***.745***	-.200	.216	-.099	-.098
RQ7	***.772***	.073	-.011	-.089	-.007
RQ8	***.748***	.011	.020	.000	.083
RQ9	***.775***	-.083	.128	-.080	.035
RQ10	***.791***	-.010	.002	-.160	.001
RQ11	***.670***	.082	.045	-.360	.171
Q12	.383	.270	.238	.105	.029
Q13	.111	***.607***	.054	.139	.065
Q14	.034	***.766***	-.057	-.052	.020
Q15	.028	***.841***	-.203	.019	-.206
Q16	.022	***.841***	-.158	.001	-.238
Q17	-.031	***.723***	.085	-.166	.071
Q18	.038	***.535***	.317	.057	-.038
Q19	-.130	***.703***	.213	.063	.190
Q20	-.239	***.412***	.296	.273	.382
Q21	.110	-.047	***.806***	.007	.012
Q22	.209	.131	.375	.376	-.239
Q23	-.136	.007	.202	***.748***	-.111
Q24	.089	.041	***.699***	.048	-.108
Q25	-.038	.191	.199	.070	***-.750***
RQ26	***.623***	-.035	-.054	.157	-.038

6.2 Reliability of the Components

As shown in Table 2, only the first two components had acceptable Cronbach's alpha. Nunnally and Bernstein (1994), a measure is moderately reliable if its alpha is .70 or higher. Because the third and fourth component had unacceptable reliability, individual items were tested separately.

Table 2
Cronbach's Alpha for the Four Components (N = 171)

Variables	A
Positive effects of learning English	.90
Difficulties learning English	.86
Embarrassment and lack of encouragement	.62
Preference for speaking Arabic	.19

6.3 Results of the Independent t-test Procedures

The findings in Table 3 reveal that males and females differed significantly in their perceptions about the positive effects of learning English, $t(169) = -2.02$, $p = .045$. From the point of view of both male and female students' individual attitudinal and preferences of learning English language, it's quite obvious that they differ in their perceptions of how positively English language could

affect their present and future in all aspects. It shows that females had significantly more positive perceptions towards English learning (M = 3.97, SD = .82) than males did (M = 3.69, SD = .90). However, males and females did not differ in their perceptions about learning to speak English. This finding could be attributed to few reasons such as parental upbringing of students, focus in academics, inclination for pursuing higher education, and more career-oriented focus. An important finding is that males and females did not differ in their other perceptions about learning to speak English. This is mainly because of the prevailing same learning environment. It is true that this trait could be attributed to both male as well as female students equally. Moreover, from the findings, it could be inferred that still many students with their affluent attitude are not perfect in speaking English language. Some of the main reasons are: lack of awareness, lack of interest or motivation, lack of exposure to English, peer criticism, additional social responsibilities, non-existent of language laboratories and inappropriate guidance and support from teachers and parents.

Table 3.
Means, Standard Deviations, and Independent t-test Results for Perceptions about Learning to Speak English for Males and Females.

Variables	Males (N = 99) M	*(SD)*	Females (N = 72) M	*(SD)*	*t*	*df*	Sig.
Components							
Positive effects of learning English	3.69	(.90)	3.97	(.82)	-2.02	169	.045
Difficulties learning English	2.72	(.95)	2.81	(.86)	-.64	169	.523
Items							
1 Speaking English is very easy.	3.34	(1.31)	3.25	(1.25)	.47	169	.640
21 Classmates will laugh and make fun of … speak English.	3.29	(1.44)	3.47	(1.38)	-.82	169	.415
22 Speaking skills are necessary only to pass the oral exams.	3.25	(1.39)	3.40	(1.36)	-.70	169	.483
23 Most of the students prefer to communicate … in Arabic.	2.73	(1.32)	2.93	(1.51)	-.93	169	.352
24 The teacher does not encourage students to speak English…	3.37	(1.37)	3.60	(1.34)	-1.07	169	.289
25 Most of the teachers communicate with students in Arabic.	3.01	(1.27)	2.92	(1.28)	.47	169	.637

Note. Higher scores indicate more positive attitudes towards learning how to speak English.

7. Conclusion

To sum up, the present study has similar results to the previous studies in the literature in terms of factors that affect students' speaking skills such as lack of interest or motivation, lack of supportive environment and peer criticism. The present study proved that female participants had significantly more positive perceptions of how English could affect their present and future in all aspects, but males and females do not differ in their perceptions about learning to speak English. The positive attitudes towards speaking English make it easy for students to learn the skill fluently (Syafrizal et al., 2018; Toomnan & Intaraprasert, 2015). As the study finds that students are aware of the importance of speaking skills, the researchers suggest some tips for teachers to follow when teaching English-speaking skills. Anuradha et al. (2014, as cited in Hussain, 2017) have provided significant principles for teachers on how to teach speaking skill. Some of them are:

> Encourage students to speak right from the first day… Tolerate the students if some of them simply repeat what they say. If a student gives one-word answer to any question, bear it for the time being. Let the learners speak actively with whatever English knowledge they have…Be well prepared in advance in terms of lesson planning, activities and tasks. Let the learners commit errors and mistakes at the primary stage. Interruption and correction hinder fluency and discourage the learner. Individual weaknesses should be taken into account. (Hussain, 2017: 15-16).

The above-mentioned suggested remedies for improving the students' speaking proficiency need to be taken into consideration by both teachers and students. If teachers follow these tips and many other teaching speaking strategies, they will immerse students in the language and improve their understanding and fluency at a good pace, with interest. Improving students speaking proficiency requires intensification of teachers, students and education policymakers' efforts. The researchers also recommend that further studies on improving the other language skills need to be conducted to come up with a clear image on how to improve students' proficiency in all language skills.

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Narrowing the Achievement Gap between EFL Students in Oral Expression through Cooperative Learning

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Abstract
Any learning is stimulated by the teaching method or technique adopted. When put in traditional competitive settings, students worry more about their self-esteem and tend to shy away from participating in the activities, while, only those with higher level of oral skills volunteer in answering the questions. This inequity in practice causes a discrepancy in students' performance in the oral expression exams and thus, results in a gap in the achievement. This paper suggests cooperative learning as a means to reduce the achievement gap between high and low achievers in the oral expression classes. This study is an endeavor to highlight the effectiveness of cooperative learning in reducing the disparity between high and low achievers and also to accentuate the benefits of this method in the English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. The study followed an experimental pretest-posttest non-equivalent groups design with a sample of 44 second year EFL students from the University of Khenchela, Algeria. The intervention lasted for a semester. The results showed that the achievement gap was reduced in the experimental group after using cooperative learning instructions, while the traditional method, in the control group, failed in closing the achievement gap between high and low-achievers. As a conclusion, some recommendations will be given with the aim of promoting the use of cooperative learning in the EFL classrooms as well as fostering teachers' awareness of the effectiveness of such teaching method in improving students' performance in oral expression.

Keywords: Achievement gap, cooperative learning, effect size, oral skills

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1. Introduction

Achievement gap is one of the most common problems faced in the traditional, competitive, EFL classroom. The greater the gap between high- and low-achieving students the more challenging and complex is the instructors' mission and the less promising it is for the learning process to give its best results. For the high- and low-achievers to have an equal opportunity to advance, some researchers suggest putting students in small cooperative, heterogeneous groups. Indeed, Johnson and Johnson (1998) posit that putting high and low-achieving students in the same boat compels low-achievers to participate in the activities and helps them to emulate and learn from their high-achieving partners. Cooperative learning has been a subject of discussion since the 1960's for it has proven its effectiveness in terms of motivating and engaging low-achievers in the activities where there is no chance for hitch-hiking as every member is held accountable and is compelled to fill his role and take his part in rowing the boat. Based on the above mentioned, this paper endeavors to answer the following question: Can cooperative learning help bridge the gap between high and low-achievers in oral expression?

2. Cooperative Learning

Cooperative learning is a teaching method where students are instructed to work together in small, heterogeneous, groups in order to reach a shared goal or a common end (Johnson & Johnson, 1984). Research into group work and the effectiveness of cooperative learning on students' learning prove that cooperative learning increases students' productivity (Shaw, 1932) not just in terms of quantity but also in terms of quality (Allport, 1924).

In cooperative groups, students' behavior, as a whole group, differs from the sum of their behavior as individuals in that students in cooperative groups become more group-centered and exist as one entity, thanks to the sense of interdependence which amalgamates them together. On the other hand, students in competitive settings are more self-centered (Deutsch, 1949) and care less about others' achievement.

As this section expands, different points will be discussed. First, we will shed light on the five elements of cooperative learning, then, we will discuss the importance of cooperative learning vis-à-vis peer-involvement and how it can help in fostering help-seeking among students. After that, we will go through cooperative learning as a tool to promote self-efficacy. Finally, the effectiveness of cooperative learning in sharpening students' oral skills will be highlighted.

2.1. Elements of Cooperative Learning

For a group work to be cooperative, five elements must be fulfilled which according to Johnson and Johnson (1990) are: Individual accountability, positive interdependence, face to face (promotive) interaction, interpersonal social skills, and group processing.

Individual accountability is one of the main elements of cooperative learning. When students feel responsible for their own roles during group work, there can be no room for passiveness and "free riding" where all members take part in the activity and is obligated to participate and engage. This sense of accountability represents a step forward toward autonomy.

The second element of cooperative learning is positive interdependence. This element represents the glue which sticks students together and puts them in the same boat where the notion "sink or swim together" (Jolliffe, 2007) turns students into group-centered members and, thus, responsible for not just their own advancement but for the achievement of the whole group, where no student is left behind.

The third element is the face to face (promotive) interaction. According to Johnson and Johnson (1990), this element supports the idea that learning is a social process and that knowledge can be constructed through interaction, debate and negotiation between peers and socializers.

The fourth element is known as, interpersonal social skills (Johnson & Johnson, 1990). During the interactions with other group members, students not only gain knowledge but, also, sharpen their existing social skills, and learn new ones, in the process, which might come in handy in the future like: conflict-resolution and leadership skills (Kagan, 1986).

The fifth and the last element is group processing. This takes place when students face problems interacting with each other, so, for them to resolve conflicts, they have to discuss and try to tackle any obstacle that might threaten the unity of the group in a student-centered fashion.

2.2. Cooperative Learning and Peer Involvement

Since language is a social phenomenon, and since the only way to learn a language is to practice it, the need for an environment that supports socialization and interaction is, undoubtedly, one of the main concerns in the EFL classroom. Depending on the situation students are put in, interaction with peers might have positive or negative effects on their achievement and self-efficacy. In competitive classrooms, students experience high levels of pressure from peers due to factors such as, social comparisons, different concerns about their self-worth, and fear of embarrassment. By contrast, in cooperative settings, in small groups, students tend to show less reluctance and seem to be less worried about their self-esteem even when asking their partners for help (Nadler, 1998).

Not just on the psychological and cognitive level does cooperative learning prove to be instrumental, but also, in terms of honing language learners' oral skills and communicative competence thanks to different characteristics which distinguish cooperative learning like the fact that it guarantees equal opportunities and allows more time for students to practice the language, verbally, as they get more involved with their classmates for "language is acquired not in the role of spectator but through practice" (Bruner, 1978).

2.3. Cooperative Learning and self-efficacy

The thought of sharing tasks and outcomes and the notion of positive interdependence between group members, which cooperative learning promotes, open an opportunity for students, whether they are aware or not, to share the same momentum and motivate each other. When interacting with one another, students exchange not only ideas but, also, beliefs which might develop into a shared mindset thanks to positive attributions of feedback from their significant peers, and an internalization of positive extrinsic influences (through promotive interactions) which can lead low-achievers to go through a process of becoming more self-efficacious.

Watching other group members solve and cope with what is assumed to be a difficult task, allows low-achieving students to learn from their teammates, thus, fathom the content being studied, but, more importantly, on the psychological level, seeing their partners succeed in a task makes it seem possible for them to succeed as well, and changes students' expectations about the difficulty of the task itself as well as their competence, and this is what Bandura (1995) refers to as vicarious experiences or modeling.

Vicarious experiences, according to Bandura (1995), are the beliefs about effectance, which, one can develop from mirroring other people. In other words, when a learner observes his classmate do well in the activity, witnessing, this positive experience can affect positively his perception about his likelihood to succeed in the same way his partner did and, furthermore, his perception about the difficulty of the problem to be solved. This positive influence helps propel the learner's confidence and, consequently, his willingness to volunteer and participate in similar tasks in the future.

During cooperative learning activities, sitting in mixed-ability groups allows the passive students, who have the tendency to avoid and shy away from certain activities, to find themselves more accountable and responsible for their share of the work and, also, more tolerant with the idea of help giving and receiving as they feel safer in front of a smaller group of people than they do in front of a whole classroom (Rosen, 1983) and, almost, feel that there is less to no threat to their self-esteem and worth, for, in a student-centered context, learners expect less reactions from the teacher, which is a threat that they, usually, try to avoid and fear the most (Newman & Goldin, 1990).

Self-efficacious students are considered as the ones who have the meta-cognitive ability which makes them more aware of their lacks and needs, and since cooperative learning boosts their sense of belongingness, self-efficacious learners find it easier to interact with and ask for help from their teammates promising a self-regulated learning, for both high and low achievers, and better dividends in terms of achievement and competence.

2.4. Cooperative Learning and Oral Skills

In the EFL classroom, the hurdle of being unable to use the language, verbally, for an adequate amount of time, has been a challenging common problem until the present time. In the traditional language classrooms, students suffer the inequity in terms of getting the opportunity to practice what they have learned (Han, 2006). From experience, in the individualistic learning settings, language learning flows in a teacher-centered manner where the teacher asks the question, while expecting students to, only, give right answers, causing the students to avoid the potential embarrassment of giving a wrong answer, as well as fear of losing status among their, alienated, teammates . In cooperative learning classrooms, on the other hand, group work promotes a more student-centered way of learning where the teacher's involvement is limited to a set of roles, and, at the same time, students' talk time is maximized and their oral production can be boosted, from 22% to 47%, (Daniels, 2005) as well as their comprehension of concepts and ideas (Willis, 2007).

Following the Vygotskian notion which regards highly the social aspect of learning (Vygotsky, 1978) cooperative learning not only focuses on students' oral skills but also on their

social skills and the quality of the relationships that bind members of the group, and which correlate with students' motivation and achievement.

In the individualistic classrooms, the practice of oral skills is not given the optimum emphasis, especially when it comes to the lazy students who do not engage in discussions and, only, watch their teammates answer the questions. This lack of oral expression turns passive students into spectators (listeners) and causes a neglect of their speaking kills, where anxiety and reluctance to produce speech builds up leading students to fail to communicate inside and outside the classroom due to the lack of practice.

When interacting within the group, students develop their interpersonal social skills (Johnson & Johnson, 1995) which can help them to communicate, easily, with their teammates and, thus, facilitate the giving (speaking) and receiving (listening) process allowing interlocutors to use each other as sources of knowledge (thanks to the notion of interdependence) aside from the teacher, with less anxiety and fear of embarrassment (Nadler, 1998), for, good friendships among students increase students' motivation and make learning more enjoyable.

3. The Study

This section deals with the research methodology. It begins by stating the research problem and the aims of the study, then, it details the sample population and the research tools used to collect data. The following sub-sections describe and explain the steps followed in the experiment and the procedure of data analysis.

3.1. Statement of the Problem

In the traditional EFL classroom, where competition between students is what steers the wheel, a considerable discrepancy in students' oral skills level causes a disparity in students' achievement, as the absence of equity and equal chance to practice affects negatively their performance and engagement. This investigation suggests cooperative learning as a possible solution to eliminate some of the factors that cause the gap in students' achievement.

3.2. Aims of the Study

This study aims at:

- Highlighting some of the benefits of cooperative learning in the EFL classroom.
- Stressing the effectiveness of Cooperative learning in sharpening students' oral skills.
- Stressing the effectiveness of cooperative learning in reducing the achievement gap between high and low achievers.

3.3. Methodology

The study was conducted following a pretest/posttest true experimental, non-equivalent subgroups design, where the data gathered from the pretest and the posttest were collected and treated quantitatively.

3.4. Participants

The sample population of the study represents a group of 44 second year English students from the Department of English at the University of Khenchela. Using a simple random assignment, the

sample was divided into an experimental group (EG) and a control group (CG). The researcher opted for second year English students at the University of Khenchela because they experienced learning under the traditional, individualistic, instruction, and were never exposed to cooperative learning strategies before.

3.5. Research Tools

As it is common for the experimental design, in this study, the instruments used to elicit data were a pretest, before the intervention, and a posttest. The two tests were in the same level of difficulty and had the same criteria and scale for evaluation. In order to evaluate students' oral skills as accurately and objectively as possible, the examiner adapted the same method used by the International Civil Aviation Organization (ICAO) testing system, and followed the evaluation criteria of the English for Aviation Testing System (EALTS) exam except for some modifications that were made. Indeed the examiner omitted the criteria which pertain to the domain of Aviation and kept only the ones that were compatible with the objective of the test and that fitted the EFL context.

The test took the form of a dialogue between two students, where the interlocutors selected randomly a certain subject, after shuffling a number of small cards. While the students were given time to interact with each other, the examiner started rating the students' oral skills by assessing what the ICAO system refers to as the holistic descriptors, which are, structure, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency, comprehension, and interaction. The rating scale includes six levels of efficiency (from 1 to 6). The researcher worked for a year and a half as an ICAO examiner and was familiar with the testing and the rating method.

3.6. The Experiment

In order to measure the achievement gap and calculate it before and after the intervention, both the experimental and the control group had to take a pretest. Depending on their scores in the pretest, students were put under two categories: the low-achievers which represent students who scored between level one and level three (1-3) on the evaluation scale, and the high-achievers which represent students who scored between level four and level six (4-6). After that, the intervention, which lasted for almost a semester, took place.

During the intervention, students of the experimental group were exposed to a set of cooperative learning instructions, while, students of the control group were taught using the traditional, Individualistic, method, i.e. activities such as individual brainstorming and reporting. Some of the cooperative learning strategies that were used were role-play activities, like dialogues. We also used Round-Robin, a strategy where students work together in small groups with one member assigned as a recorder and after the question is asked, students are allowed to think and prepare their answers individually, then, they are required to share them with their partners, while the recorder jots them down. Another strategy is Think-Pair-Share; a cooperative learning strategy where students are asked to work individually on a task, then discuss their responses with a partner, as pairs, after that, the teacher calls on some students so they can share their ideas in front of the whole class. Students were also exposed to a cooperative learning strategy called Student Team-Achievement Division (STAD) which is a team learning method where students work together on

the lesson and then take a quiz individually, where the higher they score the higher their team ranks (Slavin, 1985).

After the intervention period which lasted for a semester, students from both groups had to take the posttest. Afterwards, the data from the pretest and the posttest and the size of the achievement gap between high and low achievers were calculated and compared separately in both the experimental and the control groups. The method used to calculate the achievement gap was an effect-size measure known as Cohen's d.

3.7. Use of Cohen's d

The main reason for choosing Cohen's d as the measurement tool for the achievement gap is because effect-size measures can help overcoming and avoiding two common threatening throwbacks for the present experimental study. These two obstacles are the small sample and the seemingly statistically insignificant difference between the means as effects size measures, unlike the probability value, deal with the practical rather than the statistical significance. Effect size measures, and mainly Cohen's d, are effective when it comes to comparing two means. In fact they help to interpret the difference as units of standard deviations as it suggests a rule of thumb for evaluating the effect. According to Cohen (1988), as shown in table 1, the difference d=0.2 represents "small" effect-size, d=0.5 represents "medium", and d=0.8 a "large" effect-size. So, the fact that Cohen's d disregards the size of the sample, gives the results more reliability regardless of how statistically insignificant the values are.

Table 1
Evaluation of Effect Size d Adopted from Cohen (1988)

Significance	Value
Small	0.2
Medium	0.5
Large	0.8

The formula to Cohen's d is as follows:

$$\text{Cohen's d} = (M2 - M1) / SDpooled$$

Where the formula to calculate the pooled Standard Deviation is:

$$SDpooled = \sqrt{((SD1^2 + SD2^2) / 2)}$$

Where (M) stands for: The mean and (SD) stands for: Standard deviation

To put it in words, the difference is calculated by subtracting one mean from the other and dividing it by the pooled standard deviation of both groups.

4. Results

In this section, results from, the experimental and the control settings will be discussed, separately, and the achievement gap will be measured in both phases, the pretest and the posttest, and then compared to determine the effectiveness of cooperative learning.

4.1. Measuring the Achievement Gap of the Experimental Group

This sub-section deals with the achievement gap between high- and low-achievers in the experimental group. In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention, results from the pretest and the posttest will be treated quantitatively and eventually compared.

4.1.1. The Pretest. After the pretest, subjects from the experimental group were assigned to two subgroups based on their achievement as it was mentioned before. In order to make it easier to the reader the abbreviations EGH and EGL are used to describe high achievers and low achievers from the experimental group in the remainder of this paper. The means and the standard deviations for both subgroups are shown in table 2.

To measure the statistical significance of the effect-size (achievement gap) between the high and low-achievers the experimenter had to conduct a paired sample T-test. Results from the T-test are shown in table 2 and are to be discussed later in the discussion of the results.

Table 2
Results from the Experimental Group's Pretest

Group	Mean	Number	Std. Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
EGH	4,6000	10	,84327	,000
EGL	2,2500	12	,75378	,000

From the results shown in table 2, values of the means and the standard deviations are used to calculate the effect-size d where

$d = M_1 - M_2 / s_{pooled}$ and $s_{pooled} = \sqrt{[(s_1^2 + s_2^2) / 2]} = \sqrt{[(0{,}84327^2 + 0{,}75378^2) / 2]}$
$= 1.22016$

Thus: d=4.6-2.25/1.22016
d=1.925

Since our difference d=1.925 and according to the guidelines provided by Cohen (1992) (see table 1), we can say that the effect size is large (d>0.8). Or in other words, the gap in achievement of the experimental group in the pretest, in terms of their common standard deviation (calculated from the pretest results) is of a large significance.

4.1.2. The Posttest. After the intervention period, students from the experimental group had to take a posttest, which is at the same level and follows the same method as the pretest. Once again, students were assigned into EGH and EGL based on their achievement in the posttest. To measure the achievement gap between high and low achievers in the posttest, the researcher followed the same steps used in measuring the gap in the pretest. The results are shown in table 3.

Table 3
Results from the Experimental Group's Posttest

Group	Mean	Number	Std. Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
EGH	4,8182	11	,87386	,000
EGL	2,2727	11	,64667	,000

For calculating the effect-size, data from table 3 were used to fill the formula
$d= M_1 - M_2 / s_{pooled}$ and $s_{pooled}= \sqrt{[(s_1^2+ s_2^2) / 2]} = \sqrt{[(0, ,87386^2+ 0,64667) / 2]}$
$= 1.52027$
d=4,8182-2,2727/1.52027 thus: d=1.674
Since the difference between high and low achievers in the posttest (d=1.674) is larger than (d=0.8) we can say that the gap in students' achievement is large.

Table 4
Cohen's d Interpretation (Experimental Group)

Group/phase	Cohen's d	Percentile standing %	Common language Effect Size (CLES) %
Experimental pretest	1.925	97.1	91
Experimental posttest	1.674	94.5	88

Note. Adapted from Cohen (1988) and Mcgraw and Wong's (1992) CLES Index

As shown in table 4, displays two different ways for interpreting effect size "d". Rosenthal and Rubin (1982) have suggested that, effect sizes can be translated and explained in a simple language which non-statisticians can understand easily and which they refer to as Common Language Effect Size (CLES). This statistic represents the probability that a stochastically selected score from EGH will be higher than a stochastically selected score from EGL. As shown in table 4, the effect size d=1.92 between high and low achievers in the pretest means that there is a probability of 91% that the achievement of a randomly selected student from EGH will be higher than the achievement of a student from EGL (the 4th column). Another way to describe our results is in terms of percentile standing (the 3rd column). This type of percentile is a measure which indicates where a treated group member's score value stands in comparison with the untreated group members' score values (Rumsey, 2015). According to Cohen (1988) who stated that there is a risk in using simply "small", "medium" and "large" to define an effect size, effect sizes can be regarded as average percentile standing (of the average participant from EGH, in our case, in comparison with the average of a participant from EGL). From the results shown in table 4, we can say that at for an effect size of d=1.92 the percentage of EGL participants who will achieve lower than the average participant from EGH is 97%. By looking at the results from the posttest, it seems that the effect size, after the intervention, decreased from d1=1.92 to d2=1.67 and that the percentage of the EGL students

who will achieve less than a randomly selected student from EGH plunged from 91% to 88%. From what has been mentioned the conclusion that can be drawn is that cooperative learning helped to reduce the achievement gap between high and low-achievers in the experimental group.

4.2. Measuring the Achievement Gap of the Control Group

This subsection deals with the data gathered from the control group results in the pretest and the posttest. In order to measure the achievement gap, the same method was used as with the experimental group.

4.2.1. The Pretest. To measure the achievement gap for the control group in the pretest, the researcher conducted the same procedure, where the subjects were divided into a subgroup of high achievers (CGH) and a subgroup of low achievers (CGL), according to their achievement in the test. Results from the pretest and the T-test are shown in table 5.

Measuring the difference d between CGH and CGL pretest results:

$d = M_1 - M_2 / s_{pooled}$ and $s_{pooled} = \sqrt{[(s_1^2 + s_2^2) / 2]} = \sqrt{[(0{,}68755^2 + 0{,}75076^2) / 2]}$

$= 1.43831$

d=4,5455-2,1818/1.43831 thus: d=1.643

Table 5
Results From the Control Group's Pretest

Group	Mean	Number	Std. Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
CGH	4,5455	11	,68755	,000
CGL	2,1818	11	,75076	,000

The effect-size (achievement gap) between CGH and CGL in the pretest is (d=1.643) significant; since it is larger than (d=0.8).

4.2.2. The Posttest. After the pretest, subjects from the control group were not exposed to the independent variable which is the cooperative learning method. In the following steps the experimenter calculates the effect-size between high and low achievers in the posttest, where students' results in the latter as well as the T-test's are shown in table 6.

Table 6
Results from the Control Group's Posttest

Group	Mean	Number	Std. Deviation	Sig. (2-tailed)
CGH	4,8000	10	,91894	,000
CGL	2,1667	12	,71774	,000

To calculate the effect-size between high and low achievers in the posttest the same method to calculate Cohen's d in the pretest was followed, where:

$d = M_1 - M_2 / s_{pooled}$ and $s_{pooled} = \sqrt{[(s_1^2 + s_2^2) / 2]} = \sqrt{[(0{,}91894^2 + 0{,}71774^2) / 2]}$

= 1.27781

d=4,8-2,1667/1.27781 thus: d=2.06

After calculating the difference between CGH and CGL in the posttest it appears that, the gap between high and low achievers was significantly large where (d=2.06) which is higher than (d=0.8). By comparing the effect-size between students' achievement in pretest and the posttest, it appears that the gap in the control group's achievement increased significantly from (d=1.643) to (d=2.06)

Table 7
Cohen's d Interpretation

Group/phase	Cohen's d	Percentile standing %	Common language Effect Size (CLES) %
Control pretest	1.643	94.5	87
Control posttest	2.06	98	98

Note. Adapted from Cohen (1988) and Mcgraw and Wong's (1992) CLES Index

From table (7), it appears that the achievement gap between CGH and CGL in the pretest is d=1.643 and that the percentile standing represents 94.5%, while the common language effect size indicates a percentage of 87%. After the posttest, the data show that the effect size between high and low-achievers increased from d=1.643 to d=2.06 and that the percentage of the CGL students who will achieve less than the average student from CGH jumped from 94.5% to 98%. Furthermore, the probability for a randomly selected participant from CGH to achieve higher than a student from CGL increased from 87% to 92% thus, the traditional method failed to reduce the achievement gap between high and low achievers in the control group.

5. Discussion

Findings of the study show that the effect size between high and low achievers in the experimental group in the posttest was smaller than that in the pretest. Also the percentile standing and the CLES values indicate that the achievement gap between EGH and EGL decreased from a percentile standing of 97.1% and a CLES value of 91% to a percentile standing of 94.5% and a CLES value of 88%. The results support the notion made by Slavin (1985) which states that cooperative learning strategies like STAD and Jigsaw help low achieving students to engage in the activities and value their contributions in the group. The results obtained have further strengthened our conviction that cooperative learning is useful in eliminating alienation among students, and that it helps in tackling a number of social obstacles that disturb the learning environment such as social comparisons, anti-social attitudes, and lack of help-seeing and transfer of learning between students. For the shy language learners to practice their oral skills, cooperative learning, in our case, seemed to be the instruction of choice, for, it not only preserved the students' self-esteem but also, helped them to create friendships and develop their pro-social skills in the process, and played a role in lowering anxiety and fear of embarrassment when students decided to seek help from their partners. By creating such a supportive environment, cooperative learning fostered a sense of

interdependence and enabled the low-achieving students to model their partners and learn from them.

On the other hand, in the control group, the data show that there is an increase in the gap between high and low achievers, where the effect size calculated from the posttest results appears to be greater than the one calculated from the pretest. Also, the CLES and the percentile standing values jumped from a CLES value of 87% and a percentile standing of 94.5% (from the pretest results) to a CLES of 92% and a percentile standing of 98% (from the posttest). According to a great deal of previous research conducted by experts in the field (Johnson, Johnson & Stanne, 2000), our values have been found to be typical of the individualistic teaching method. Researchers have always seen the individualistic classrooms as an environment where students work alone in the absence of interaction, where instead of motivating each other, like in our case, students who are presumed to be high achievers contribute to the factors that cause the achievement gap, between them and their low-achieving peers, to increase. Such factors are social comparisons, competitiveness, dull social skills, and the lack of good friendships. Among numerous studies that compared cooperative learning with the individualistic strategy, our experiment corroborates with previous results from previously published studies. A good example can be a meta-analysis of studies which compared the Jigsaw strategy with the individualistic teaching method conducted by (Johnson, Johnson & Stanne, 2000) where the Jigsaw strategy yielded higher achievement compared to the one promoted by the individualistic method with an effect size of 0.13 (as detailed in table 8):

Table 8

Jigsaw vs. Individualistic Method

Methods	**Effect**	**Sd**	**K**
Cooperative vs. Individualistic	0.13	0.29	5

Note. Adapted from (Johnson, Johnson & Stanne, 2000)
Where: sd= standard deviation and k= number of averaged effect sizes.

Another example that highlights the effectiveness of cooperative learning over the individualistic method is the one provided by the same authors (Johnson, Johnson & Stanne, 2000) as it is displayed in table 9, where it shows the effect size between STAD strategy and the individualistic method outcomes in terms of their effect on achievement where (n) represents the number of comparisons. As demonstrated in table 9, it appears that the STAD strategy surpassed the individualistic method with an effect size of 0.29.

Table 9:

Ranking of Cooperative Learning Methods

Methods	**Effect**	**Sd**	**K**
Cooperative vs. Individualistic	0.13	0.29	5

Note. Adapted from (Johnson, Johnson & Stanne, 2000)

If we now turn to our current results, regarding the T-tests results, it seems that the *p* value (Probability value, which determines the significance of the result) (Rumsey,2010) is $p<0.001$, which means that the findings were highly significant and that the results did not happen by chance, and based on that, in response to our research question, we can say that our work has led us to conclude that cooperative learning seems to be effective in bridging the achievement gap between high and low-achievers in oral expression.

Even though the aims and methodology of our study, which focuses only on the achievement gap in relation with students' performance in oral expression, are different from those of the previously mentioned examples (where previous work have, mostly, focused on the achievement gap with respect to variables like gender, race and economical status, or targeted different skills like reading and achievement in math) based on our findings, we can say that there is evidence to suggest that cooperative learning can be a useful tool when it comes to improving students' oral skills and that it seems to be a possible remedy to cure the problem of the achievement gap in the EFL classroom.

6. Conclusion

Cooperative learning strategies seem to be a key to equity and a great solution to tackle the problem of the achievement gap. Since, EFL students come in different levels of intelligence and backgrounds, a best way to celebrate variety in the EFL classroom is through creating small heterogeneous communities inside the classroom, where, the elements of cooperative learning, namely, positive interdependence and individual accountability come to play their role in binding group members and fostering individual responsibility, at the same time, promising less disparity between high and low achievers, which is the aim of the study at hand. In the light of what has been said, this study encourages EFL teachers and education planners and motivates them to implement more cooperative learning activities in their classrooms, for a more learner-centered learning. It also suggests cooperative learning as a means to avert the consequences of neglecting the minority of low achievers and, finally, accentuates the effectiveness of such method in terms of sharpening students' oral skills.

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Interactional Metadiscourse Markers in the Abstract Sections of Arabic Patents

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Abstract
This study aims to investigate interactional metadiscourse markers (IMDMs) in 60 patent abstracts written in Arabic by Arabic-native drafters within the field of human necessity. Specifically, the objectives are to identify which categories of IMDMs are predominant in Arabic patent abstract and to explain how metadiscourse markers function in these abstracts. To achieve these objectives, data were analyzed quantitatively to count the frequency of IMDMs, and qualitatively to examine the functions of these markers within Arabic patent abstracts based on Hyland's model (2005). The results indicate that boosters, hedges and attitude markers are the most frequently employed markers while the remaining categories show a low frequency of occurrence. Moreover, the analysis also reveals that IMDMs fulfill different functions, such as providing data in a truthful manner, avoiding commitment to precise figures and persuasion among others. The findings of this research are useful for Arabic-speaking drafters and novice inventors for a better understanding of IMDMs commonly applied in their patent abstracts. A better understanding of the pragmatic functions of IMDMs can improve not only patent drafting skills, but also the chance for successful patent grants. It is recommended that future research investigate IMDMs within other patent sections such as claims, description, and background among different disciplines in order to achieve better insights of the use of such rhetorical metadiscourse features.
Keywords: Abstract section, Arabic, interactional resources, metadiscourse markers, patent

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Introduction

Patents are documents granted by a government to inventors giving them the sole right to make, use, and sell their invention. Regardless its language, patent is a structured document, which typically consists of several sections, such as title, abstract, background of the invention and claims. The abstract section, which is the focus of this study, is an essential component of the entire patent documentation that consists of a concise summary of the invention and serves a common communicative purpose of introducing an invention. Its communicative purpose is informative as well as persuasive. Through patent abstracts, readers can predict the quality of the invention and decide if the other sections of the patent are worth scanning or not. Quinn (2014) confirms that in writing patent abstracts, it is not enough for drafters to represent the object of their invention; they must also try to persuade the examiners to accept their invention and to establish the importance of their new ideas. Patent drafters have to persuade the readers _in particular, patent examiners that their inventions are useful and new. If not, the application faces an increased opportunity of being rejected. Persuading a patent examiner of the usefulness of an invention is the ultimate goal of a patent application.

Drafting well-organized Arabic patent abstract poses difficulties for patent drafters (Alrahman, 2015), even for the native Arabic drafters because they need to be acquainted with persuading linguistics devices commonly employed to make their abstracts acceptable by their target discourse community. Overall, patent drafting certainly necessitates not only a sufficient command of the terminology of the language since it is mostly "acquired by imitation"of other patent documents" (Sancho-Guinda & Arinas-Pellón, 2011, p.13), but also the rhetorical strategies typically deployed to achieve persuasion (Berkenkotter & Huckin, 1995; Sancho-Guinda, 2012). Such persuasion could be achieved through a skillful manipulation of rhetorical features that create successful abstracts such as metadiscourse which are essential for persuading the reader (Breeze, 2009).

Literature Review

Metadiscourse

The concept 'metadiscourse' is not a well-defined term and it has been defined consequently by several scholars (William, 1981; Vande-Kopple, 1985, 2002; Crismore & Fansworth, 1990; Markkanen et al., 1993; Luuka, 1994; Bunton, 1999; Hyland, 2000, 2005; Dafouz, 2003; Hyland & Tse, 2004). Williams (1981) views metadiscourse as "whatever does not refer to the subject matter being addressed"(p.212). Similarly Vande- Kopple (1985) defines it as "discourse that people use not to expand referential material but to help their readers connect, organize, interpret, evaluate, and develop attitudes toward that material."(p.83), and Crismore et al. (1993, as cited in González, 2005, p.37) have viewed metadiscourse as "non-propositional aspects of discourse which help to organize the prose as a coherent text and convey a writer's personality, credibility, reader sensitivity and relationship to the message". More recently, Williams (2007) views metadiscourse as "the language that refers not to the substance of your ideas, but to yourself, your reader, or your writing."(p.65) However, Hyland (2004, 2005) presents a more comprehensive interpersonal view of metadiscourse: Hyland (2000) defines metadiscourse as "the linguistic resources used to organize a discourse or the writer's stance towards either its content or the reader" (p. 109). The clear point with these interrelated definitions is that the appropriate

employment of metadiscourse assists the writer to skillfully manipulate his writing to achieve the demands and expectations of the discourse community (Nasiri, 2012; Hyland, 2005).

Metadiscourse assists to transmit propositional information in a clear, persuasive and attractive way in an endeavor to gain acceptance and understanding, as well as reader-writer involvement. It also helps to produce a coherent text and indicates the writers' "personality, credibility, considerateness of the reader, and relationship to the subject matter and to the readers" (Crismore et al., 1993, p. 40).

This study adopts the interactive definition of metadiscourse introduced by, for instance, Crismore et al. (1993) and Hyland (1998). In other words, for the present research, metadiscourse is viewed as a tool that writers employ for the purpose of affecting the reader's comprehension and evaluation of the text. In this respect, the abstract section of patent can be seen as a persuasive form of writing. According to Aragonés (2007), the rhetorical purpose of patent abstract is essentially persuasive; it seeks to persuade the reader that what is claimed is new and useful. Aragonés (2007) points out that besides providing technical information quickly, the patent abstract section convinces the readers that the patent is worth reading without disclose the whole invention. Drawing on this persuasive task, metadiscourse can assist patent drafters to realize their ultimate communicative purposes.

Metadiscourse Models

Several metadiscourse taxonomies have been proposed by metadiscourse theorists (Hyland,2005; Vande Kopple, 1985, 1997; Crismore, 1993). Vande Kopple(1985) provides the first taxonomy of metadiscourse. His model consists of "textual" and "interpersonal" metadiscoursal markers. In this taxonomy, textual metadiscourse consists of four categories: text connectives, code glosses, illocution markers and narrators, whereas the interpersonal metadiscourse constitutes three categories: validity markers, attitude markers and commentaries. Vande Kopple's taxonomy was particularly significant since it was the first organized and systematic endeavor for offering a model that paved the way to a number of studies and new taxonomies. However, this model has been subjected to many modifications due to some conceptual and practical deficiencies in this model as Hyland (2005) points out, particularly the overlapping functions between categories.

Crismore et al. (1993) propose a modified version of Vande Kopple's model. In this taxonomy, the two main categories of textual and interpersonal remained the same, but they divide, and reorganize the subcategories. Furthermore, they divide the textual metadiscourse into two main categories of "textual" and "interpretive" markers with a view to separate organizational and evaluative functions. Textual metadiscourse constitute markers which can assist the discourse to be organized, and interpretive markers help the reader to better interpret and comprehend the writer's intended message (Crismore et al., 1993).

Later taxonomies have differentiated between categories such as "interactional" and "interactive" (Hyland & Tse, 2004). Hyland (Hyland, 2000, 2005) offers the possibly most inclusive model for the study of metadiscourse. His model, developed from earlier works such as Vande-Kopple (1985) and Crismore et al.(1993), includes two main types of metadiscourse:

interactive and interactional (see Table 1). The former assists to organize the text as a whole while the later involves the reader in the text.

Table 1. *An Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse*

Category	Function	Examples
Interactive	**Help to guide the reader through the text**	**Resources**
Transitions	express relations between main clauses	in addition, and, but, thus
Frame markers	refer to discourse acts, sequences or stages of parts of the text	first, next, finally, to conclude
Endophoric markers	refer to information in other parts of the text	as noted above, see Fig, in section ...
Evidentials	refer to information from other texts	according to X, Z states
Code glosses	elaborate propositional meanings	namely, for example, such as, in other words
Interactional	**Involve readers in the text**	**Resources**
Hedges	withhold certainty and open dialogue	might, perhaps, possible, about
Boosters	emphasize certainty or close dialogue	in fact, definitely, obviously, it is clear that, demonstrate
Attitude markers	express writer's attitude to proposition	unfortunately, hopefully, surprisingly, I agree
Self-mentions	explicit reference to author(s) in the text	I, we, my, me, our
Engagement markers	explicitly build relationship with reader	you, your, consider, note, you can see that

Source: **(Hyland 2005, p. 49)**

Based on the table above, Hyland's model consists of two major categories of metadiscourse: interactive and interactional. The interactive category includes transitions, frame markers, endophoric markers, evidentials, and code glosses. The main aim of these features is to provide an organized and coherent text that helps guide the reader through the text in a way to meet the needs of the reader based on the writer's expectations. The interactional category includes hedges, boosters, attitude markers, self-mentions, and engagement markers. It essentially aims at offering a vivid text where the reader can easily find the writer's voice. It also aims at building a personal relationship with the readers as it is employed to convey the writer's reactions to the content.

For the present study, Hyland's (2005) taxonomy was adopted over the other models of metadiscourse (e.g, Crismore et al., 1993; Vande-Kopple, 2002) because the categorization is concise and inclusive (Vazquez et al., 2006). It was also found to be uncomplicated, clear and comprehensive (Abdi et al., 2010).Besides, this framework was noted to be successful in existing studies that investigate the Arabic abstract such as Rashidi and Alihosseini (2012) and Salek (2014). As Hyland (2005) points out, the taxonomy has overcome some flaws and overlaps in previous taxonomies such as Crismore et al. (1993) and Vande-Kopple (1985).

The focus of this research is to examine the second function of metadiscourse, that is, the interactional metadiscourse since it is "more personal" (Hyland, 2005) and involves the reader more directly compared with interactive metadiscourse. Interactive markers comprise self-reflective resources (e.g., *for instance*, *therefore*) to shape and order the text to make it coherent, while interactional markers refer to linguistic resources (e.g., *surprisingly*, *you can see that*) for writers to make comments and to involve readers in the text. Since the latter is a pivotal device to reflect writers' credibility, personality, relationship to the ideational materials (Crismore et al., 1993), the exploration of this category of metadiscourse will assist to reveal how patent drafters can manipulate these devices to make their abstracts more effective and persuasive. The interactional resources particularly include the use of self-mention, hedges, boosters and attitude markers.

Hedges are lexical devices used to refer to uncertainty about the propositional information , such as 'suggest, 'seem', 'may' and 'indicate'. "Hedging enables writers to express a perspective on their statements, to present unproven claims with caution, and to enter into a dialogue with their audiences." (Hyland, 2005,p. 112). Boosters, on the other hand, are linguistic means that raise certainty about the truth in communication such as 'obviously, very and clearly'. Engagement markers are linguistic resources employed by writers to explicitly address the readers and involve them in the dialogue. This can be achieved by the use of 'we, our and us', reader pronouns such as 'you and your' besides the question mark. Self-mention "refers to the degree of explicit author presence in the text" (Hyland, 2005, p. 53), which can be realized by the use of the possessive adjectives and first person pronouns 'my, me, I, mine, our and us'. The last interactional markers are attitude markers. Hyland (2005) states that they "indicate the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitude to proposition"(p.53). Examples are 'I agree, interestingly and unfortunately'.

A number of research have been incorporated to the notion of metadiscourse in patents (Aragonés, 2007, 2010; Kim, 2015& Patience, 2015). Arinas-Pellón &Sancho-Guinda (2010) examine the use of two interactional metadiscourse markers (hedges and boosters) in U.S. patents from various technical fields while Sancho-Guinda (2012) establishes the curial role of metadiscourse in achieving flexibility in patent texts. Through corpus analysis, and following Hyland's (2005) original taxonomy that embraces (hedges, boosters, attitudinal adverbials and self-mention) her study reveals how patent drafters employ metadiscourse elements to engage with their readers as persuasion strategies. Kim (2015) finds that rhetorical elements such as hedges, boosters, and evaluation play a crucial role in understanding patents and their implicit meanings, as well as persuading designated audiences in order to change their values, opinions, or behavior.

The most relevant study to the present study is Aragonés (2009) who investigates the function of hedges and boosters in patent abstracts in four languages (Chinese, Spanish, French and English) and four fields (medicine, chemistry, telecommunications and IT), the study reveals that boosters and hedges are both rhetorical strategies to convince the readers of the usefulness of the invention, and they are rhetorical devices for modifying tone in the patent abstract genre.

Although these studies have undoubtedly provided a preliminary understanding of patents, the focus is on patents produced in different languages apart from Arabic such as Chinese, Spanish, French and English. Information on how these markers are employed in Arabic patent abstracts to raise drafters' awareness of what makes acceptable patent abstracts is scanty. This study, thus, aims to achieve the following objectives:

1- To identify the predominate interactional metadiscourse markers in Arabic patent abstracts written by native Arabic drafters.
2- To explain how metadiscourse markers function in Arabic patent abstracts.

Methodology

Data Collection

This study is a descriptive study which aims to examine the use of metadiscourse in Arabic patent abstracts both qualitatively and quantitatively. Sixty Arabic Patents drafted during the years 2008-2018 by native Arabic drafters in the field of human necessity were selected. This discipline was chosen since it is of interest to different patent readers as it includes patents related to social life and covers the following subsections: agriculture, foodstuffs, tobacco, personal or domestic articles, health, life savings and amusement. A decision was made to choose abstracts from a single discipline since it has been confirmed that different disciplines have their own writing conventions (Anthony,1999; Samraj, 2002, 2004). The Arabic patents are retrieved from the Gulf Cooperation Council Patent Office (GCCPO) website (https://www.gccpo.org) which is the only website that represents a regional Arab patent office at the time of research. These patents are considered standard and accepted ones because they are the final revised versions officially published in the website. To create a corpus, the *abstracts of* these patents were copied and pasted onto a separate file. Then they were randomly coded and classified according to the year of publication. Only abstracts drafted by native Arabic drafters were picked up from the identified discipline. In cases where abstracts written by more than one drafter, it was assured that all drafters share similar nationality and language backgrounds. This criterion was essential in order to keep to a minimum the rhetorical influence from other languages on those of the Arabic patents. Evidence was gathered from short biodata entries such as the name and affiliation of the drafters since drafters with Arab names are likely to be Arabic native speakers. The number of words used in each abstract ranged from 50 to 200 words. The total number of words for the present study of patent abstracts consists of 7,045 words. The size of corpus should be considered carefully. This small-sized corpus can be assumed, to a certain extent, to be sufficient since it complies with Aragonés (2009) study in which a similar number of corpus was chosen in order to validate the findings across four languages. More specifically, the size of this corpus is sufficient since a manual examination is performed. Generally, the smallest number of abstracts to be valid is about 30 (Stollera, 2013).

Data Analysis

Before analyzing each patent's Abstract section, the whole patent was read several times in order to get a rough understanding of the proposed invention. The types of Arabic IMDMs in the selected patents were investigated in terms of frequency, forms and functions. It is worth noting that both Hyland's *Interpersonal Model of Metadiscourse* and previous literature on IMDMs in Arabic context (e.g., Abbas, 2011; El-Seidi; 2000; Taweel et al., 2011) have been consulted to help in the process of IMDMs identification. Additionally, each IMDMs was identified and counted manually as Hyland(2005) points out that "metadiscourse is a relative concept so what might be metadiscourse in one rhetorical context may be expressing propositional material in another, and analysis must always examine each item individually to determine its function" (p. 24). Therefore, each marker was double checked carefully in context to make sure it functioned as a metadiscourse marker. After identifying and classifying the metadiscourse markers, a quantitative analysis was conducted. The main focus of this quantitative analysis is on type, frequency, and form of these markers. The information obtained from the quantitative analysis is essential for the qualitative analysis to examine the function of each interactional metadiscourse category to reveal the persuasive effect of these markers.

Results and Discussion

Frequency of Use of the Different Categories of Interactional Metadiscourse

Table 2 shows the type, frequency and percentage of each interactional metadiscourse markers employed in the abstract section of Arabic patents in the field of human necessity. As the size of the Arabic abstracts is definitely unequal, the frequency of IMDMs was calculated per 1000 words in order to make the length of the abstracts consistent and to ensure accurate comparison between the IMDMs.

Table 2 *Frequency and Percentage of IMDMs in Arabic Patent Abstracts*

Interactional metadiscourse type	frequency	Percentage
Boosters	376	53.37%
Hedges	300	42.58%
Attitude markers	74	11%
Self-mentions	13	2%
Engagement markers	0	0%
Total number of occurrences:	763	

Table 2 indicates that Arabic patent drafters do use IMDMs while drafting their patent abstracts to show their attitudes in the texts and engage with readers, through the employment of hedges, boosters, attitude markers and self-mention, which Hyland (2005,p.177) referred to as "stance markers". According to the statistical analysis presented in Table 2, boosters are the most frequently used IMDMs in the present corpus (53.37%). This suggests that Arabic patent drafters resort to emphasize on what they have invented with certainty to persuade readers of the

importance of their invention. Likewise, hedges, which are used to express the writers' uncertainty, have also shown to be essential elements used in the Arabic patent abstracts with 300 instances (42.58%). Attitude markers are very uncommon in the present corpus with only 11%, while the type of self-mentions (2%) is the least common markers among all categories. The most remarkable result is the absence of engagement markers. Their absence may signal that Arabic native drafters tend to avoid explicit engagement with the reader as this may indicate a conversational and an informal tone. Their absence is consistence with Alotaibi's (2015) findings who finds that engagement markers are absent in Arabic research articles. Sultan(2011) also finds that they are the least interactional metadiscourse marker within Arabic discussions.

Forms and Functions of Interactional Metadiscourse Use

In this section, each subcategory of IMDMs will be discussed in terms of lexical forms and function in order to reveal the persuasive effect of these markers within Arabic patent abstracts.

Boosters

As indicated earlier, boosters dominate among all the IMDMs categories analyzed in the Arabic patent abstracts. It includes slightly over 53% of the total markers identified in the corpus (see Table 2). These quantitative results are in line with other studies where Arabic boosters are found to be predominate, irrespective of the genre and the discipline analyzed. Boosting constitutes an essential characteristic of Arabic academic discourse in college essays (Alhumidi,2016), newspaper articles (Abdelmoneim, 2009; Al-Ghoweri, 2019), or argumentative texts (El-Seidi, 2000), where strong emphatics and assertiveness are highly valued.

As Hyland (1994) asserts, boosting can be conveyed across different syntactic frames such as modals, verbs and adverbials. In this research, nouns such as مضمان, تحسين, and adverbs such as خاصة, بسهولة are the most popular grammatical items utilized to boost inventions. Boosting nouns are mainly employed to praise the current invention and they are associated with certainty. This finding is consistent with Arinas-Pellón & Sancho-Guinda (2010) who note that nouns such as *advantage*, *solution*, *efficiency* and *improvement* are mostly noticed as boosting devices in U.S patents from various technical fields. This study also confirms the tendency of Arabic native drafters to extensively use these nouns to emphasize the usefulness of their invention. Findings of this study reveal that Arabic native drafters employ boosters for different purposes including justifying the usefulness of their invention as well as presenting its merits in a strong positive light(Example 1) and providing a more assertive tone in explaining the utility of the invention (Example 2).

1- الاختراع المطروح يحاول **التغلب** على الأضرار التي تحدثها الظروف الجوية مع الحفاظ على المدخنين ولكن يحاول **التغلب** على بعض العيوب التي تعاني منها المدخنات والأسرة إن الاختراع المطروح يعمل على **إضافة** بعض الخصائص الجديدة على الأضرار الناجمة عن التدخين بالنسبة للمدخنات والأسرة.

2- يوفر الوقاء المحاط بالمرض **بسهولة** وبتكلفة قليلة أرضية الحمام التي تتميز **بخاصة** الإزالة والتركيب السريع لكل شخص عادي

Hedges

Hedges are functionally the counterparts of boosters since they indicate the uncertain evaluation of the truth of the informational content. As indicated in Table 2, hedges are one of the most commonly used IMDMs in this study. They constitute slightly over 42% of the total IMDMs examined in this research. This is due to the importance of hedges that signal the writer's preference to withhold overall commitment to a proposition. The results reveal that some specific types of hedges are most commonly employed by native Arabic drafters such as approximators ايجان, بيرقت عد and modals, دق نكمي to convince readers about the value of the proposed invention. This finding is in agreement with Al-Ghoweri's(2019) study which reveals that approximates of degree, quantity and frequency are the most commonly used hedging devices across Arabic articles. Similarly, in Arinas-Pellón's (2010) corpus of electro-mechanical patents, vague quantifications of *many, most, several* or *certain* are found as one of the common categories to express tentativeness too.

Hedges in the present research are used to provide data in a truthful manner and to avoid commitment to precise figures (Example 3) and to indicate probability while indicating that the drafter's statement is not to be taken universally true. This means that readers, due to the influence of such probability, are left to evaluate the information provided (Example 4).

3- و هذا الاختراع هو عبارة عن رافعة تتصل من الطرف السفلي للقوس إلى منتصف الجزء العلوي من الطرف المقابل بمسافة 20سم تقريبا.

4- يمكن استخدام هذا الاختراع في أي من المجالات الصناعية أو التجارية أو أي مجال آخر قد يتطلب إدخال مواد أو إخراجها من وضع إلى آخر بسرعة و بكميات محددة مسبقا و يمكن أن يكون هذا الاختراع مفيدا بشكل خاص في الحالات التي يكون فيها الوقت المتاح لإدخال المواد أو إخراجها من الوضع قصيرا جدا و يكون من الضروري إدخال المواد أو إخراجها بسرعة.

Attitude Markers

Attitude markers "indicate the writer's affective, rather than epistemic, attitudes, encoding an explicit positive or negative value that is gradable (e.g. important/very important to propositions" (Hyland, 2005, p.149). Because of its persuasive aim, the style of patent abstracts genre is characterized by evaluative function. This means that it employs linguistic devices that express the drafter's stance towards the invention s/he presents as well as establish interactional relations with his/her readers. Identifying the attitude markers of the Arabic patent abstracts reveals that unlike boosters and hedges, Arabic native drafters utilize limited lexicons to express their attitudes. They represent 11% of IMDMs in the corpus. The low frequency of attitude markers is similarly found in related studies in literature (see e.g., Sultan, 2011; El-Seidi, 2000; &Alotaibi, 2015)which indicat that the employment of attitude markers is low among Arabic texts. The possible reasons might be due to the nature of the abstract section where drafters are not too certain in presenting their stance nor too critical in providing information.

Although the occurrence of use of *attitude markers* is low, some attitudinal adjectives and adverbs such as جيد جدا and غير عادية are common in Arabic patent abstracts. The interaction achieved

in Example 5 is conveyed by utilizing the attitude adjective جديد which can be considered an affective strategy to persuade the reader of the novelty of the invention. Similarly, the attitude marker متميز *unique* here expresses the drafters' own personal assessment, that is, this invention is really rewarding and deserves being patent.

5- وهو مكون من جهاز لتصريف الكتل الخشبية من الأسواق حيث لا يوجد له شبيه ولا يفي بالغرض الذي يقدمه هذا الجهاز.

Overall, Arabic patent abstracts appear to make use of limited range of attitude markers to provide readers with an opportunity to understand the propositional content and to present their attitude towards the informational contents of their texts. Accordingly, attitude markers are important in persuasive writing "otherwise a text would be dry and impersonal" (Heng &Tan, 2010, p.139). These findings might be comparable to Arinas-Pellón's (2010) study which reveals that attitude markers are used in US patents for persuasive values, yet with a preference of different lexical markers.

Self-Mention

Hyland(2005) states that self-mentions refer "to the degree of explicit author presence in the text measured by the frequency of first-person pronouns and possessive adjectives" (p.53). As for the present study, 13 instances are utilized by Arabic patent drafters. They represent two percent (2%) of IMDMs found in the corpus. Apparently, they cannot be considered as an essential rhetorical strategy for establishing stance for the patent drafters in concern. This finding is in agreement with the findings of other studies investigating self-mention across different genres or disciplines (e.g. Al-harbi & Swales, 2011; Sultan, 2011; Alotaibi, 2015) which reveal a limited number of self-mention in Arabic texts written by Arabic native writers. These findings altogether show the tendency among native Arabic-speaking writers to avoid self-mentions whether they are writing in their first language or in English. Similarly, this finding is consistent with existing research on patents within different languages. Arinas-Pellón (2014) for example, argues that U.S patents are not characterized by self-mention since the focus is on the invention not the inventor.

However, a close investigation of the forms of self-mentions in the present corpus shows that self-mentions are mainly utilized to state patent utility and offer readers a clear picture of what the invention will cover and what they can obtain from it:

6- وهو يتألف من أعضاء تسخين كهربائية مرنة مصممة للالتفاف حول أنبوب مراد تسخينه بالحث عن بعد من خلال الجدار الخارجي لوعاء الضغط الذي يحتوي على مفاعل الوقود النووي.

It is essential to note that all the instances of self- mentions in the present corpus are only in the form of plural possessive pronouns even in single-authored patents. It seems that Arabic

patent drafters tend to use the pronoun انا" our" to avoid addressing their readers directly and make their patents more objective in order to avoid criticism and being rejected.

As for the category engagement markers, their absence suggests that there is no place for the drafters to interact directly with their readers or engaging them in the patent abstracts. The absence of engagement markers in the abstract sections is in line with existing research(see e.g. Sultan, 2011 & Alotaibi, 2015) which reveal that engagement markers are to be the least employed IMDMs or even absent in Arabic abstracts written by native Arabic writers "as they may indicate a conversational and an informal tone"(Alotaibi, 2015, p.8).

Conclusion

The present study analyzed Arabic patent abstracts written by native Arabic drafters. Based on Hyland's (2005) taxonomy. The analysis reveals that boosters and hedges are the most frequent IMDMs within Arabic patent abstracts. Arabic patent drafters utilize boosters to assert on what they have invented with certainty in order to persuade readers of the importance of their invention. Hedges, on the other hand, are mainly used to convince readers about the value of the proposed invention as well as providing readers with the possibility of accepting or rejecting the invention. Unlike boosters and hedges, Arabic native drafters utilize limited lexicons to express their attitudes. However, they prove to be a persuasive device in the present study. They are strengthening expressions alongside boosters (Dafouz-Milne, 2008). Given the relatively high number of boosters and hedges found in the present corpus. It can be concluded that the skillful combination of strengthen expressions(i.e. boosters) and weakening ones(i.e. hedges) is the key to produce a persuasive acceptable patents in the eyes of the reader. According to Dafouz-Milne (2008), the final goal of a persuasive text should be to create "a discourse that is neither too assertive nor too vague"(p. 108).

In relation to the categories of self-mention and engagement markers, it is again clear that they are scarcely employed by the drafters; it was even observed that engagement markers are absent in the Arabic patent abstracts. The little use of self-mentions indicates that Arabic native drafters in general consider boosters, hedges, and attitudinal markers as more useful persuasive devices, when they create their patent abstracts. The low frequency of this IMDMs also indicates that drafters of the Arabic patent abstracts prefer to focus on the invention instead of making references to the inventors.

In summary, this study indicates that Arabic patent abstracts are a persuasive genre representing an interaction between drafters and readers. They employ various metadiscourse markers to reach their persuasive function since the communicative function of these abstracts is to summarize the invention and most importantly, to persuade readers of the usefulness of an invention. Through the use of boosters, hedges and attitude markers, patent drafters try to obtain a

balance between convincing and informing as well as building a reader-writer relationship to interact with their expected readers. While the remaining categories (i.e. self-mentions and engagement markers) show a low frequency of occurrence. Therefore, they could not be considered as effective persuasive tools within Arabic patent abstracts.

This study examined the use of IMDMs within Arabic patent abstracts written by native Arabic drafters in the field of human necessity; it was conducted on a small corpus. Therefore, further research with a larger corpus size and on other sections of patents should be conducted in order to offer a clear picture of the use of such rhetorical metadiscourse features. Furthermore, patent abstracts written by native Arabic drafters across different disciplines can be compared to examine whether the rhetorical features examined in this study can be extended to other disciplines as well.

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Literary Pragmatics

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Abstract
The present study aims at presenting a thorough account of the field termed literary pragmatics which emerges in a consequence of applying the different pragmatic approaches to the study and analysis of literary genera. Additionally, it also attempts to explore and shed some light on the relationship between the two domains: pragmatics and literature in order to reveal their commonalities. There exists a strong assumption that these have something in common as they both have to do with language users and how meaning is conveyed. Despite the fact the various pragmatic approaches including speech act theory, conversational implicature, politeness theory and relevance theory are developed mainly in relation to spoken interactions, the study has revealed that they offer invaluable insights to the study of literary texts. Moreover, the process of analyzing literary texts has led to the development and the explanation of the pragmatic approaches themselves.

Key Words: context, literature, literary pragmatics, narrator, readers
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1. Introduction

Banfield (2003, p. 475) says that the term *literary pragmatics* lacks a common use with a well-defined referent, it represents less a unified theory than an area of research. It has developed in replay to insights provided by pragmatic-theory over the past few decades.

In this regard, Mey (2010, p. 251) asserts that literary pragmatics lacks a pervasive use due to the diverse approaches to pragmatics that have provided its insights and because of the various kinds of relationship between literary analysis and pragmatic theory. Another complication comes from the different understanding or definitions of the term *literary* and the special nature of literary communication.

2. Literary Pragmatics

According to Mey (1999, p. 12), literary pragmatics signifies a field of inquiry which investigates those sorts of influences that writers endeavour to exert on their audience in pursuit of establishing a working cooperation by employing the properties of language. Such influences require precise consideration of the conditions of use of these properties when addressed to a specific audience including consumers of literary work.

The pragmatic effects in question demand a thorough exploitation of the whole contextual factors governing the use of the linguistic elements involved (Mey, 1999, p. 12).

More specifically, literary pragmatics concentrates on the user's role in the societal production and consumption of literary texts (Mey, 2006, p. 549).

Similarly, Crystal (2008, p. 379) mentions that this field seeks to apply pragmatic notions to the production and reception of literary texts.

Chapman (2011, p. 141) asserts that the different notions and frameworks for analysis emerged within pragmatics have proven to be useful instruments for analyzing literary texts. This can be attributed to the fact that pragmatics is all about studying language in use and creating and reading literary texts are significant and fascinating instances of language use. The increased interest in language use within linguistics has led to emphasis on the contextual and intertextual properties of literary texts besides their formal ones.

Additionally, MacMahon (2014, p. 90) assumes that it is essential to have a pragmatics of communication and interpretation. Without such a theory, stylistic approaches, which concentrate only on form, unavoidably fall into difficulties to account for why a specific form should have certain influence in a particular context.

It has been suggested that there are two chief concerns of those fascinated by the relation between pragmatics and literature. Firstly, there is the utilization of pragmatic theory in the analysis of the language of individual literary texts, so as to elucidate certain facet of how meaning is expressed, how characters interact or how the author/narrator of a text interacts with the reader. In other words, these frameworks borrow some aspect of pragmatic meaning and use it as their method and certain literary text(s) as their data. Secondly, the resources of some pragmatic theories

have been applied to more general questions regarding the nature of literature itself. That is, pragmatics has been used in the debate of what constitutes a literary text (Chapman, 2011, p. 142).

3. Literature

Searle (1979, p. 59) believes that it is not possible to produce a formal account of literature because it signifies a set of attitudes individual readers take towards a stretch of discourse. Hence, what counts as literature is decided by readers and is not open to further analysis.

It has been suggested that throughout history, the term literature has had different senses at different times. These vary from elevated treatment of dignified subjects to merely writing in the most general sense of the word to the sense of creative, highly imaginative literature appropriated under the influence of romantic theories of literature in the last one hundred years. Moreover, it is subject to endless modification and it does not mean the same universally. (Carter, 1997, p. 123)

In relation to this matter, Burton & Carter (2006, p. 267) say that definitions of literature and of literary language are socially and historically diverse. Their history has been established by different readers and writers formulating different replays to inquiries regarding a proper definition. It should be emphasized that definitions of literature have to be viewed as functional. That is, they form certain and variable circumstances in which texts are described as literary, and the purposes that these texts can be used to achieve.

Leech (2008, p. 6) argues that the notion of literature has been identified in accordance with some elusive concept of literariness. In this regards two accounts can be identified, formal and functional.

Formalists accounts identified literariness with the linguistic elements of the literary medium. Their basic assumption was that literary language is deviant language. That is, literariness inheres in the extent to which language use departs from ordinary patterns of language and thus deformalizes the reader. However, their functionalists counterparts defined literariness in terms of function. In this respect, literariness occurs when language attracts attention to its own status as a sign and when there is an emphasis on the message for its own sake. For instance, Jakobson, being a functionalist and formalist as well, introduces a conception of the poetic function (Burton & Carter, 2006, pp. 269-70).

According to Leech (2008, p. 6), both accounts are incorrect, because literature is chiefly a prototype concept . It is demonstrated that the majority of conceptual categories in the human mind and in language are categorized by a core of clear cases with a fuzzy periphery of blurred, borderline cases. By the same token, the concept of literature and literariness are prototypical. Hence, there is no litmus test for literature, but rather an array of coinciding markers of various types such as sociocultural, aesthetic and linguistic criteria.

4. Literary Discourse

According to Van Dijk (1980, p. 5), the majority of the previous literary studies, whether traditional or modern, concentrate on the analysis of the literary text rather than on the process of

literary communication. Nevertheless, a pragmatic account of literature assumes that in literary communication the production of a literary text are social actions.

MacMahon (2006, p. 234) mentions that the bulk of contemporary literary pragmatics tries to define literature as having an exceptional functional and communicative status, yet at the same time operating on principles which are similar to those of nonliterary discourses. That is, it endeavours to restore the importance of context in literary linguistics, and the consideration of literary works as communicative acts.

Black (2006, p. 3) proposes that is expected that literary discourse differs from ordinary conversation and other written discourses due to the fact that any published work is subject to a process of careful composition and much revision. In fictional dialogue the slips of the tongue, repetitions, elisions and opaque reference which mark the spoken language are rarely represented, except occasionally for humorous effect.

5. Context

Mey (1999, p. 36) believes that in order to comprehend an utterance, one needs to know the circumstances surrounding its being uttered. In isolation, utterances do not make sense or make the wrong one. In its broadest sense, context stands for the cultural, political, and economic conditions of people whose actions and words are attempted to describe or capture within the minutest context of language.

Allott (2010, p. 38) states that the context of an utterance represents a source of information that assists the hearer in finding out what the speaker intended to express. Without taking the context of words and phrases into consideration, it will not be likely to interpret the implicatures of an utterance. Moreover, in numerous cases, it will be impossible to calculate the proposition conveyed or the desired illocutionary force.

According to MacMahon (2006, p. 234), certain pragmatic approaches emphasize the importance of paying attention to context and literary functions as crucial to any explanation of literature. Hence, these approaches attempt to restore the significance of context in literary linguistics, and consider literary works as a sort of communication.

Black (2006, p. 3) suggests that in a written text the outset offers the essential orientation into the discourse because nothing precedes it. However, it is worth mentioning that the title, appearance, author and even publisher of a book or a magazine offer the reader many hints as the type of text they can expect, and so contextualize it to some extent. Additionally, whereas the normal situation of discourse is face-to-face interaction, there is no reason to assume that written texts work differently.

Nevertheless, it is stated that the production and reception of a spoken discourse takes place within a single context of time and space. However, this is not the case with a written one such as a letter. Besides, the addresser and addressee in a discourse situation are not always distinct. As for published texts, there is usually one addresser but a great number of addressees, most of them

the writer has never met. Hence, literature is a type of discourse where the writer can assume fairly little about the receiver of his message or its context (Leech & Short, 2007, p. 206).

6. Author and Reader

Mey (1999, p. 262) says that readers fetch to the text a specific set of preconditions from which to approach the text and which make the text possible. That is, there exactingly is no reader's text until there is a reader. The reason behind this is that the text designates a probable world of occurrences which demands a reader to cause those probabilities come into existence. It can be inferred that the text the reader approaches is not the same as the one which he/she leaves behind.

As far as literary texts are concerned, the language user is the reader who obtains the product of someone else's literary activity and by consuming them fulfills a personal need. Such relationship is not merely one of buying and selling a normal product. These two have more in common than regular sellers and buyers. It is this commonality accompanied by the resulting cooperation between them that renders the world of literary production and consuming diverse from a typical marketplace (Mey, 2001, p. 788).

Additionally, Mey (2006, p. 551) mentions that the success of a story can be determined to a great extent by the reader in addition to the author. Hence, books are bought and sold not because they are indispensable for one material existence, but because they represent a personal communication from an author to a potential readership. That is, the author produces books due to the fact that he/she has a message for the reader as a person rather than a sort of making a living.

Leech & Short (2007, p. 207) state that in spite of the fact that the author of a literary work such as a novel is not acquainted with his readers, he is capable of assuming that he shares with his readers a mutual knowledge and experience. Such background knowledge comprises not only shared inferences, but also knowledge regarding famous historical events and literary works.

Additionally, a writer will also resort to matters which is sensible to suppose the cultivated readers of his time to be aware of, but which a later reader have to make himself alert to. Due to the fact that the author can suppose knowledge which any specific reader might not essentially have, it can be concluded that the addressee in literary communication is an implied reader. This refers to a hypothetical personage who shares with the author a set of presuppositions, sympathies and criteria of what is pleasant and unpleasant, good and bad, right and wrong. (Leech & Short, 2007, p. 207).

Mey (1999, p. 266) proposes that there exists a creative cooperation between authors and readers even across time and distance. This cooperative process is taken to refer to the ability to take up diverse positions grounded on the type of reading one is engaged in. In other words, it is the capacity of collaborating with various authors in various ways in order to realize different possible worlds. Hence, the reader is a main player in the literary game and his/her influence requires entering the universe that the author has created. Via doing so the reader becomes an actor, rather than a mere spectator.

It has been said that the pragmatic study of literature concentrates on the features that categorize the dialectic facet of literary production above. That is, the text as an author originated and guided but at the same time reader oriented and activated process of wording. The reader is limited by the boundaries of the text but the text offers the required extent of liberty in which the reader can cooperate with the author to create the proper textual universe (Mey, 2001, p. 788).

7. Author and Narrator

Since narration is about storytelling, the story has to be told by someone referred to as the narrator. In every story, the author creates a world of fiction, the narrative, in which the narrator assumes a prominent role, even though not usually evident on the surface (Mey, 2014, p. 513).

Similarly, and according to Mey (2001, p. 789), the author creates the narrator regardless of whether the latter overtly reveals himself\herself on the narrative scene. In both cases, the narrator is a character in the story who cannot be held accountable for the actions and opinions of the other characters. It is crucial for the readers to realize that the author cannot be identified with the narrator not even the story is told in the first person singular.

Leech & Short (2007,p. 210) point out that authors and readers are not the only figures involved in the fictional discourse. In this respect, it has been distinguished between the author and the narrator. Additionally, the narrator may be addressing someone other than the reader. This is very evident in an I-narration novels such as Emily Bronte's **Wuthering Heights** which assumes the form of a diary which Mr. Lockwood writes to himself:

"I have just returned from a visit to my landlord- the solitary neighbour that I shall be troubled with. This is certainly a beautiful country!"

The same narration includes long passages reporting Nellie Dean's narration of the events of the story to Mr. Lockwood:

> "About twelve o'clock, that night, was born the Catherine you saw at Wuthering Heights: a puny, seven months' child; and two hours after the mother died, having never recovered sufficient consciousness to miss Heathcliff, or know Edgar."[Chapter 16]

Leech & Short (2007, p. 211) propose a structure of the fictional discourse in which the writer and the reader lie outside the direct communicative flow established in the text. Within the text, the narrator tells the story. The narrative may contain dialogue among characters. Hence, there exists an embedded discourse in which a real author addresses readers through the implied author within whose discourse there is characters' dialogue.

According to Black (2006, p. 61), third-person narrator signifies a disembodied voice, identified by ubiquity and the capacity to enter into the minds of characters in the fiction. The flexibility of this kind of narratorial voice allows a blend of the voices of the characters and narrators which present some of the most fascinating and intricate features of fictional discourse.

It has been pointed out that it is more typical for a novelist to utilize an impersonal style of narration where reference by the narrator to himself is avoided. The passage below from George Eliot's (1871) **Middlemarch** is an example:

Miss Brooke had that kind of beauty which seems to be thrown into relief by poor dress. Her hand and wrist were so finely formed that she could wear sleeves not less bare of style than those in which the Blessed Virgin appeared to Italian painters

It can be inferred that the first advantage of this kind of narration is that the lack of an *I* asks the reader to suppose that there is no evident *you*. Hence, the narration is introduced to the reader directly. Additionally, the absence of an *I* also calls the reader to collapse the addresser side of the novel discourse structure so the implied author and narrator become mingled. It is due to this reason that most third-person narrators are omniscient since they stand in the place of the implied author they take on his absolute knowledge (Leech & Short, 2007, p. 213).

8. The Voices of the Text

It is believed that in a narration each portion of text has a definite voice. That is, a way of speaking that can be ascribed to one or the other of the agents involved in the narrative process. Normally, each agent speaks with a single voice, his or her own (Mey, 1999, p. 112).

According to Mey (2014, p. 513), narrativity concentrates on the techniques and devices that a narrator has at his/her disposal when telling a story. The concept of **character** and the complementary **voice** are among the most essential devices. In a story, the characters come to life via their voices. The characters are kept separately with their voices parted by means of simple typographic means or in other ways; the purpose of these techniques is to allow the reader to locate and shift the focus of his/her attention.

It has been pointed out that vocalization is a powerful way of forming and sustaining the fictional space with the agreeable help and indispensible assistance from the readership and of organizing the dialectics of creativity between author and reader. From a literary pragmatics perspective, vocalization means giving a voice to a character in the story. More specifically, it refers to the phenomenon of making the character speak (Mey, 2006, p. 553).
Consider the extract below:

"He [Jack Kemp] joined the Buffalo Bills after an injury.
' I hit a helmet with my passing hand and dislocated a finger to severely that I had to literally decide what shape I wanted it in. So, I put my hand on a football and they put a cast over it.' In those days football was pretty Darwinian. 'We 'd do anything to survive' I glanced at the finger. Yep."
(From an interview with the late Republican U.S. Congressman Jack Kemp).

In the extract above, a panorama of voices is encountered. First occurs the voice of the narrator, the journalist who is reporting the story of the interview he has with Jack Kemp providing both a historical frame and a running commentary. Second, there is Kemp's own voice telling how he " hit a helmet with his passing hand and dislocated a finger." Then, a character's voice is heard

therefore the focus of the narration has altered. Finally, "Yep" represents the voice of the narrator who rapidly makes his attendance in the interview overt (Mey, 2014, p. 517).

Mey (2006, p. 553) proposes that this phenomenon is intricate in the sense that it not just offers voice to a character but also provides information regarding the latter's perspective or point of view from which the latter sees the other characters and indeed the world. Accordingly, voices range over the total fictional space they create.

It has been suggested that readers' determination of the narrative development is maintained through a bunch of devices some of which can be attributed to the realm of reader pragmatics. Among these, there exists the phenomenon of focalization. Such contextual device is very significance to the analysis understanding of text (Mey, 2001, p. 794).

According to Mey (1999, p. 147, 2006, p. 553), vocalization usually entails focalization which indicates a focusing on the characters' assignment in the literary universe. The process by means of which the author's perception of the events is associated with the reader's situation in time and place is called focalization. It has to do with the fact that every presentation is made in accordance with the point of view of the presenter and his/her focus of the world. Moreover, so long as the process of positioning the narrative voices in their appropriate contexts eventually has to be based on some spatial and temporal universe, the focalization of the text presumes the localization of its character.

9. Pragmatic Approaches to Literature

In spite of the fact that the pragmatic theories to be discussed below are developed mainly in relation to spoken interactions, Black (2006, p. 17) argues that such theories can be applied to the interpretation of written texts.

In this regard, Chapman (2011, p. 142) says that the principal frameworks of classical pragmatics, speech act theory and conversational implicature are immediately preserved as potentially invaluable to the study of literary texts. Besides, politeness theory and relevance theory have lately come up with priceless insights into the different facets of the texts scrutinized. Additionally, the process of analyzing literary texts has in turn fed back into the development and the exposition of the pragmatic theories themselves.

9. 1 Speech Act Theory

In the sets of lectures that were posthumously published as *How to do Things with Words*, Austin revolts against the view of language that placed the truth-conditions as central to language understanding (Levinson, 1983, p. 228).

In his own search for ways of coping with language as a sort of action, Austin first made a distinction between constative and performative utterances. In this dichotomy, constatives, such as *We went down to Como*, are utterances in which something is said which can be evaluated a long a dimension of truth. Performatives, on the other hand, are utterances, such as I promise to go to Como, in which something is done which can be evaluated a long a dimension of felicity (Verschueren, 1999, p. 22).

According to Levinson (1983, p. 236), Austin isolates three basic senses in which in saying something one is doing something. Therefore, three kinds of acts are simultaneously performed.

So, whenever we produce an utterance, we are engaged in three acts. A locutionary act is the production of a well-formed utterance in any language one is speaking. The illocutionary act is the meaning we intend to convey. The perlocutionary act is the effects of our words. For instance, when saying, please open the door, and the listener does so, the speaker has achieved his perlocutionary aim (Black, 2006, p. 17).

According to Miller (2005, p. 12), speech act theory can be considered as a tool for analyzing prose fiction. Metaphorically speaking, a literary work does not represent a machine that can be dismantled with this or that way, rather its working exposed. When reading literature, the tool turns into the machine and vice versa. That is, both speech act theory and fiction are composed of language.

From a speech act perspective, three forms can be identified in connection with literature. These are (i) the author's act of writing is a doing that assumes the form of putting things in this way or that, (iii) the narrators and characters in a work of fiction may produce speech acts that are a form of doing things with words such as promises, excuses, denials (iii) the reader in acts of teaching, criticism, or informal comments may do things by putting a reading into words. Doing that could have an influence on students, readers, or acquaintance (Miller, 2005, p. 12).

MacMahon (2006, p. 232) states that the main concern of different accounts of literature is to define literature as what seems to be a particular type of speech acts. Fiction appears to make assertions, but clearly without truth conditions. In this regard, Austin himself claims that his theory cannot be applied to non-serious uses of language such as poetry. Nevertheless, some propose that that speech act theory can be developed in relation to literary interaction.

For instance, Fish (1980, p. 233) demonstrates that definitions of literary speech acts assume a demarcation between two kinds of discourse: nonliterary discourse that in different ways hooks up with the real world, and literary discourse that functions with diminished responsibility to that world. The former is stereotypically privileged by speech act theorists and is portrayed as basic and prior, while the latter is depicted as derivative and dependent.

Consequently, and according to Ohmann (1971), cited in (Burton &Carter, 2006, p. 270) literary speech acts require a suspension of the typical pragmatic functions that words could have in order for the reader to consider them as somehow signifying or exhibiting the actions they would ordinarily perform. In this regard, a literary speech act brings a world into being for its readers or listeners, but beyond that does nothing.

Nevertheless, Van Dijk (1980, p. 10) believes that literature can be explained in terms of the notion of an indirect speech act. An indirect speech act is one which is achieved by means of another speech act. For instance, an assertion such as *I'm hungry* may function as a request for food or *That's a stupid book* as advice not to buy or read. By the same token, literature may have predominant practical functions, such as warning, criticism, defense or piece of advice with regard

to certain attitude or action of the author or the reader via asserting the conditions for such an illocutionary function. Hence, a novel may depict the atrocities of the Vietnam War, and thereby indirectly functions as a severe criticism of American imperialism which may even be the main function.

Black (2006, p. 20) suggests that various types of speech acts including representative, expressive, directives, commissives and declarations occur in literary texts.

9. 2 Implicature

According to Chapman (2011, p. 142), one of the first attempts to apply pragmatics to literary texts require Gricean analysis. In this respect, linguists start to consider the question regarding the utility of applying Grice's account of interaction in conversation to interaction between writers and readers of literary texts.

Grice (1989, p. 26) states that people's conversations are not random strings of separate remarks, but rather they are somehow cooperative efforts, where each party identifies in them a shared purpose or set of purposes, or a reciprocally acknowledged direction. Therefore, it is possible to propose a general principle that interactants are supposed to notice:

"Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged."

To this Grice (1989, pp. 26-28) proposes four maxims, which elucidate how the co-operative principle functions. The maxims strengthening the cooperative principle include the maxim of **quality**, the maxim of **quantity**, the maxim of **relevance**, and the maxim of **manner**.

According to Grice (1975, p. 49) it is assumed, unless otherwise manifested, that every language user will follow these maxims and expect his partner to do so. However, if an interlocutor can and in a position to follow a specific maxim, but intentionally and bluntly infringes it, a *conversational implicature* can be generated. Here, the maxim in question is exploited by the speaker to imply more than what he states openly.

Pratt (1977) as cited in Chapman (2011, p. 142) proposes that it is possible to elucidate literature along other types of discourse without resorting to a separate set of maxims. In literary texts, the cooperative principle is chiefly secured between author and readers, therefore it can be liberally and cheerily jeopardized. This indicates that flouting and the resulting conversational implicatures are features of literary texts, although they are properties shared with all communicative uses of language.

As an example of the cooperative principle functioning in the discourse between author and reader, Pratt employs the opening sentence of Jane's Austin's *Pride and Prejudice* (1972):

It is a truth universally acknowledged that a single man in possession of a fortune must be in want of a wife.

In the example above, the reader believes neither the truth nor the claim that is universally acknowledged. Additionally, he/she also believes that the author of the novel is conscious of this. Hence, it can be presumed that Austin is intentionally flouting the maxim of quality. That is, she is saying something that is manifestly false for communicative purpose, rather than attempting to seduce the reader into believing what she says. The resulting implicature of flouting the quality maxim is that the opposite of what is said is actually the case (Chapman, 2011, p. 143).

According to Black (2006, p. 27), the Gricean maxims could be expected to have some relevance for the processing of literary discourse, particularly on the innermost level of character-to-character interactions. Additionally, it may be applicable to the processing of the whole text, in the interaction between narrators and readers, and the relation between narrator and characters.

Grice's maxims propose interpretive procedures which are familiar from daily communication. On the character-to-character level, the maxim of quality functions in a similar way to real-life interactions. Characters will lie, exaggerate, or conceal. The only difference is that the reader may know more than the characters and be in a better position to arrive at probable implicatures not available to them. More fascinating are those instances where the narrator plays fast and loose with the maxims. It should be said the general violation of the maxims is an indication of unreliable narrators (Black, 2006, p. 27).

Below is an example of character-to-character implicatures. It is an extract from Hemingway's *The Short Happy Life of Francis Macomber* (1964)

'That was a pretty thing to do,' he said in a toneless voice. 'He would have left you too.'
'Stop it,' she said
'There's a hell of a lot to be done,' he said . . . 'Why didn't you poison him? That's what they do in England.'
'Stop it. Stop it. Stop it,' the woman cried.
'Oh, please stop it', she said. 'Please, please stop it.' 'That's better,' Wilson said. 'Please is much better. Now I'll stop.'

It can be seen that the speaker, Wilson, violates the maxim of quality as he did not noticed what took place. The maxim of manner is also involved. This is the most inappropriate way of addressing a widow. The implicature is that she murdered him. Since Wilson lacks evidence for this the quality maxim is violated also (Black, 2006, p.29)

9. 3 Politeness

Chapman (2011, p. 146) states that the diverse accounts of the way politeness functions as a modeling power in the interactions between language users have been utilized in the analysis of literary texts.

It has been claimed that the most prominent work in politeness theory is that of Brown & Levinson (1987). It provides a framework to describe and explain diverse linguistic resources that can be utilized to signify politeness in face-to-face interactions. Central to their theory is the notion of face (LoCastro, 2012, p. 137).

Brown & Levinson (1987, pp. 68-71) suggest a set of five possibilities for the speaker to accomplish this ranging from the best case (strategy type 5) to the worse (strategy type 1).

As for politeness, Chapman (2011, p. 146) asserts that two kinds of interaction are obtainable for the analysis: generally, the interactions between the characters within the text, and the interaction that readers themselves enter into more normally in reading the texts. It can be said that perhaps because it is an area of pragmatics particularly directed at elucidating spoken discourse, the sorts of literary texts most recurrently examined in relation to politeness are scripts from plays and films.

In this regard, Simpson (1989, pp. 169-83) investigates the linguistic strategies of politeness employed by the characters in Ionesco's play *The Lesson*. The main event is a private lesson comprising an elderly professor and an eighteen-year-old pupil. At the beginning of the play, the professor is worried and hesitant, while the pupil is energetic and dynamic. Nevertheless, the professor increasingly loses his shyness, becoming gradually domineering and antagonistic, whereas the pupil becomes more and more passive. The transition in the interactive roles of the two characters in question is reflected via subtle variation in the linguistic strategies employed by the characters. To account for this, Simpson examines three extracts taken from key stages in the play development.

In the first extract, the professor uses elaborate negative politeness strategies to his younger more confident interlocutor. These strategies indicate that the professor is really the inferior member of the interaction. In the second extract, the situation is somehow different. The two characters show difference with one another implying a more symmetrical power relation exists between them (Simpson, 1989, p. 183).

However, there appear signals of initial hostility in the professor since he starts to choose strategies from the slightest polite end of the politeness scale. The final extract manifests evidence of an obvious power differential between the characters when the professor issues a sequence of bald, non-redressive face threatening acts to the pupil (Simpson, 1989, p. 183).

9. 4 Relevance Theory

Sperber & Wilson (1995, p. 260) propose relevance theory to account for the interpretation of utterances. Their theory makes two essential claims concerning cognition and communication. The first is that 'human cognition tends to be organized so as to maximize relevance'; and the second is that 'every act of ostensive communication communicates a presumption of its own optimal relevance.' These claims indicate that there exists a solitary expectation criterion guiding the interpretation process, both producing and estimating interpretations.

Hence, relevance constitutes a property and is quantifiable: something is relevant to the extent that positive cognitive effects it produces are large and to the extent that cognitive effort needed to achieve these effects is small (Sperber & Wilson, 1995, p. 261).

Sperber & Wilson (1995: 236) define the term *poetic effect* as the peculiar effect of an utterance which achieves most of its relevance through a wide array of weak implicatures. Broadly speaking,

the broader the array of potential implicatures and the greater the hearer's accountability for creating them, the more poetic the effect, the more creative the metaphor. A good creative metaphor is accurately one in which a multiplicity of contextual effects can be retained and understood as weakly implicated by the speaker.

Pilkington (2000, p. 102) applies a relevance-theoretical approach to the analysis of Seamus Heaney's *Digging* with special emphasis on the concluding lines:

The cold smell of potato mould. the squelch and slap
Of soggy peat. The curt cuts of an edge
Through living roots awaken in my head
But I've no spade to follow men like them.
Between my finger and my thumb
The squat pen rests. I'll dig with it.

It is remarked that such a metaphor is too vague in its desired effects since the reader has no evidence that the writer had anything specific in mind. However, in Heaney's poem the interpretation of the metaphor has been prepared by the rest of the poem. The reader is encouraged to derive a very large number of implicatures from exploring the encyclopaedic entries for the concepts *Dig* and *Poetry* or *Writing*. If these implicatures are accessible in an on-line reading, the metaphor is both rich and successful (Pilkington, 2000, p. 104).

Some of the contexts established earlier in the poem comprise information that digging is the way the poet's forefathers earned their living. That is, it is an activity and occupation with a lengthy convention in the society, that it is tough and honest and essential work which involves intense attentiveness. Numerous of these contextual assumptions might be accessed and the properties of digging in such assumptions transmitted, via inference, to the activity of poetry. The majority of them are weakly implicated or rendered slightly more evident (Pilkington, 2000, pp. 102-3).

10. Conclusions

On the bases of the discussion conducted previously, the following conclusions can be made:

1. Literary pragmatics is a recent trend which is interested in the investigation of the contextual influences exerted by authors or writers on their readers by means of their literary products. That is, this field of inquiry focuses on the language user's role in the production and reception of literary texts.

2. As for the question regarding the relationship between pragmatics and literature, it is remarked that this can be answered with reference to the fact that since pragmatics is concerned with language in use and creating and reading literary texts are significant and fascinating examples of language in use, the former has been proven to be a useful instrument for analyzing literary texts.

3. Additionally, it can be inferred that because literary texts cannot be accounted for in terms of their formal properties, pragmatics holds out the probability of being capable of saying something

concerning the distinctive features of literary texts themselves, specifically in relation to the ways in which readers interact with literary texts or the types of discourse involved.

4.The different pragmatic frameworks represented by speech act theory, conversational implicature, politeness theory and relevance theory have been demonstrated to provide invaluable insights to the study of literary texts. Besides, the process of analyzing literary texts has led to the development and the elucidation of the pragmatic theories themselves.

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Promoting Critical Thinking as a Social Practice: Shaping Students' Voice, Agency and Inter-Subjectivity in a Cohesive Framework

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Abstract:

Strict outcome-bound approaches and text-books-based instructional practices, prevalent in the pedagogy of most of the colleges and universities in English as an International Language (EIL) contexts, involve language activities, tasks, and tests that predominantly require one right answer or response. Pedagogical practices and related quality assurance mechanisms regulated by such approaches limit students' ability to be original and skeptical in reflecting upon various issues of importance and concern based on their own thinking and experiences. Such a focus, in Sivasubramaniam's (2015) and Nunn and Sivasubramaniam's (2011) view, has entirely centered on bureaucratic efficiency aimed at having a uniform curriculum for the majority of the students and a scheme of research and evaluation based on recalls, think-alouds, cloze tests and multiple-choice questions in standardized texts. In line with the socially-aligned view of competence much needed spontaneity, flexibility, and diversity accrues only through a process-centered pedagogy of voice, agency and response. In the backdrop of this as a premise, this paper aims to demonstrate how Critical Thinking (CT) can be promoted in EIL classrooms as a discursive practice that could shape students' voice, agency and inter-subjectivity in a cohesive framework. The paper shares both theoretical and practical ideas about CT and its importance in facilitating a meaningful education and aims to demonstrate some innovative tasks and activities that could be exploited to shape student's voice and agency and develop their higher order CT skills. The paper culminates in evolving a practically viable prototype pedagogical framework for promoting CT as a social practice in EIL classrooms that is capable of making Wilga River's (1983) notions of 'skill-getting' and 'skill-using' a reality. Such a model will be useful for EIL practitioners in designing similar lessons with innovative tasks and activities and make the EIL class atmosphere stimulating and pedagogically more fruitful.

Key Words: agency, voice, critical thinking, discursive practice, inter-subjectivity, pseudo-bilingual situation, skill-getting and skill-using

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Introduction

Research suggests that critical thinking (CT) is a means to transform learning and society and social practice is one of the indispensable components of CT (e.g. Benesch, 1993; Atkinson, 1997; Oster, 1989; Brookfield, 1987; Shor & Freire, 1987; Fox, 1994; etc). Vis-à-vis, a common theme, as Richards (1995) rightly remarks, underlying different methods of language teaching is that second language learning is a highly interactive process (p. 138). It is a common knowledge that we, as teachers, devote a considerable amount of time in interaction with students and also in interaction among the students. And, in Ellis' (2004) view, the quality of this interaction has a lot of influence on language learning. In teaching language and communication, both in speech and writing, to use Rivers' (1987) view remains our central goal as language teachers (p. xiii) and therefore interaction must be present from the first encounter with language. Interaction, in simple terms implies *reception* as well as *expression* of meaningful messages which can become possible, referring to Rivers' (1983) view, only when the learners put to use the skills they have learnt. Therefore, active participation of EIL learners in skill-getting and skill-using, both inside and outside the classroom, is a prerequisite for developing their interactive communicative competence.

Addressing the centrality of interaction and thereby making the notions of skill-getting and skill-using a reality in the teaching-learning processes is a pedagogical issue of paramount importance. An obvious million-dollar question then is that how and to what extent Rivers' (1987) notion of making skill-getting and skill-using a reality and Ellis' (2004) notion of addressing the centrality of interaction in EIL classrooms are actually met. To take focus and direction from Mackey's (1970) typology of bilingual education becomes inevitable in this context. Mackey's typology of bilingual education suggests that the 'language switch' in bilingual classes (e.g. language switch from Arabic to English in the case of Oman) creates a 'pseudo-bilingual' situation, which can have several pedagogical implications on planning and implementation. It is a common knowledge that notions of skill-getting and skill-using remain ideals rather than reality in most of the pseudo-bilingual situations of EIL classrooms where the teaching-learning process is predominantly dictated by strict outcome-bound and textbook-oriented instructional practices which are usually dominated by one right answer approach. Obvious concern on the part of a language teacher is regarding how to fill this gap; how to improve this situation; and how to transform the pseudo-bilingual situation to a real bilingual situation in EIL classrooms. The answer or the key to this lies in promoting CT as a social practice in a cohesive interactive framework. The bulk of this paper, therefore, is devoted to discussing and demonstrating mainly this pedagogical aspect of paramount concern.

Interaction as a Social/Discursive Practice

It is a common communicative experience that most of the interactions move from one point to another without any strict structure according to the immediate need of interaction and its context, including the social context. However, narrowly-defined participation practices, regulated by strict out-come-bound and textbook-based approach, constrain individual's voice and agency to engage in untroubled interaction. This is, as Sivasubramaniam (2015) argues, because many researchers and policy makers, and therefore many teachers, influenced by rationalist/positivist tradition, believe that language competence is synonymous with closure-focused task(s) aimed at producing pre-determined meanings and outcomes which are universal, measurable, and therefore justifiable

(p. 74). This has led to an unhealthy practice of collecting evidence for language learning as a reaping or harvesting act. Consequently, to use Sivasubramaniam's (2015) words again, the accruing objectivity of inputs and outputs can run averse to our beliefs and value systems in that it not only stifles the agency, voice and subject-hood/inter-subjectivity of our students but can also preclude them from coming to terms with the quality of their language learning experiences (p. 74). Obviously, the path ahead then is to go beyond the calculable thinking and closure-focus in our educational practices in order to crack the nuts of Mackey's (1970) pseudo-bilingualism that predominantly prevails in EIL classrooms and make Rivers' (1983) notions of skill-getting and skill-using a reality in a true sense of the term. Thus, CT skills could be promoted and students' voice and agency be shaped as a social practice.

It is now time to discuss and demonstrate how interaction, within the outcome-based and textbook-oriented approach, could be promoted as a social practice in a cohesive framework.

Interaction and Critical Thinking in a Cohesive Framework

As Thakur and Al Mahrooqi (2015) argue that CT, like Lifelong Learning, is required in every domain of life. i.e. social, educational, and professional (p. 126). Incidentally, CT is not an inborn ability and is basically needed for evaluating one's own thinking process that results in a meaningful learning experience. On the other hand, everyday communication, to use Gaskaree, Mashhadi and Dousti's (2010) remark, is an event in which there is an interactional relationship between interlocutors which requires whole language, i.e. the four skills of listening, speaking, reading and writing associated with the knowledge of vocabulary, meaning and syntax with which thinking skills are also interwoven. This means, as Rigg (1991, p. 522, as cited in Richards and Rogers, 2001, p. 109) aptly argues that language should be kept whole and if language is not kept whole, it isn't language anymore. This indicates that language develops in a cohesive environment. Another good reason that goes in favor of interactive cohesive framework being more suitable for language teaching and learning is, to borrow Gaskaree, Mashhadi and Dousti's (2010) remark once again, that most textbooks and materials designed for EIL learners are based on isolated language skills and worst of all on separate vocabulary items and grammatical points (p. 33).

Thus, focusing on the need to address the centrality of interaction and to make the notions of skill-getting and skill-using a reality in a cohesive framework, this paper aims to demonstrate (a) How students' writing skill, as an illustrative choice, can be developed in a cohesive interactive framework, and (b) How a lively attention and maximum participation can be ensured through some learner-friendly and stimulating activities that promote CT as a discursive practice in a writing class. Put another way, the paper shows how the EIL students will be able to: (a) achieve maximum attention and participation in a writing class which otherwise turn out to be dry, dull and boring when writing is taught through a traditional textbook-based approach; (b) generate maximum authentic interaction through a writing lesson; (c) integrate language skills, critical and lateral thinking skills, and social skills; (d) enjoy humor and fun in the class, and (e) shape their voice, agency and inter-subjectivity and experience a stimulating learning experience.

Let us do this in a skills lesson and let us choose, as already mentioned, a writing skill to be taught in an interactive cohesive framework. Incidentally, writing, to use Russo's (1987) argument, is not necessarily a solitary activity but can be intensely interactive. As we normally

write to be read, our writing improves as we respond to the reactions of others. Interaction implies both reception and expression of messages which involves Rivers' (1983) notions of skill-getting and skill-using (p. 43). But, it must be noted that interaction takes place when interest, i.e. attention to the communicative act is present. Where there is no interest, there may be a perfunctory exchange of words, but communication of personal messages does not take place. To promote interaction in another language, we must maintain a lively attention and active participation among our students. Students need to participate in activities that engage their interest and attention, so that the interaction, to use Rivers' (1983) approach, becomes natural and normal (pp. 104-13). In the theory of second language acquisition Ellis (2004) views it as a "natural developmental route to learning" (p. 63).

With this as a backdrop that much needed spontaneity, flexibility, and diversity accrues only through a process-centered pedagogy of voice, agency and response, what follows next is a cohesive pedagogical framework to promote CT as a social practice in EIL classrooms.

Setting/Creating a Context for a Writing Lesson

The most important objective in language teaching and learning is to provide learners with the opportunities to activate their prior knowledge and use the newly-learnt knowledge in their real life. Creating a context serves as a warm-up activity and helps the learners connect their already-learnt knowledge with the new knowledge to be taught. Doing this also helps in ensuring better learning motivation and participation. For demonstrative purposes, the focus here is on argumentative/reflective writing. The following activity can be used as a context-setting activity for the following reflective writing task which is intended to engage the learners to think and argue in the area of the teaching point using a picture prompt.

Brainstorming Activity: Reflect upon the intelligence of the driver in the following picture. Would you consider him as stupid?

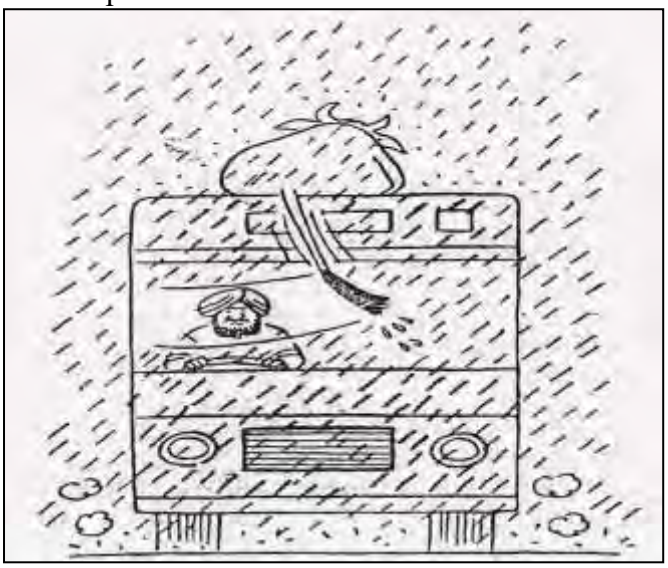


Figure 1. **Have you seen cow's tail as a wiper?**

Figure 1 is bound to generate diametrically opposite views, which is true to most of the situations when we reflect upon issues of importance. Duality is a prerequisite of CT which lays fertile ground(s) for disagreements and arguments for resolving those issues and disagreements.

Developing Effective Arguments: A Demonstration

Do arguments play an important role in reflections? Why are arguments important and what is their utility in society? Yes, they are important. We need to argue in order to (a) take a sound personal position on issues of concern and controversy, (b) be assertive and to stand up for our ideas, (c) reinforce the value or truth of our ideas to other people, (d) consider different points of view, (e) present pros and cons of an argumentative issue, (f) rule out alternatives and suggest a logical solution, and (g) convince/persuade an opposing audience to adopt new beliefs or behavior.

Critical and lateral thinking are the cognitive skills that have been highlighted in the selection of crisis stories as a source material for ELT. The following story, which has a situation of crisis and the problem-solving task in it, can be effectively used for the learners to depart from formulaic language learning to critical thinking, lateral thinking and decision-making and thereby to produce knowledge rather than reproduce knowledge. Situations of crisis offer a fertile scope for arguments; therefore, after examining the worth of arguments, let us argue on an issue of crisis that is involved in the following crisis story, taken from Thakur, (2013, pp. 187-189).

Crisis Solving Task: Find a responsible, practical, logical and fair solution to the crisis in the following story. Do as suggested below:

- Read the story, discuss in your group, and try to arrive at a best-possible and reasonable solution to the crisis in the story.
- Arrive at a consensus within your group.
- State your views with convincing arguments to the participants in other groups.
- Listen to the counter arguments coming from the other groups.
- Refute/Defeat the opposing arguments by giving stronger arguments.

Crisis in the Lifeboat

Seven people somehow managed to escape in a lifeboat when an ocean liner sank in the sea. However, to the given situation of crisis, only five people can survive for the reasons of space and supplies in it. Therefore, two persons have to be discarded from the lifeboat in order to save the life of five people. As the ocean has hungry sharks the abandoned people are bound to be killed. You have to justify the reason why you chose the two people to be abandoned to death and why you selected the other five to be safe on the lifeboat.

You have to make your selection from the following 8 people: (a) One year old baby on the lifeboat, with its grandmother, who is in a very bad health condition due to suffering from a rare but possibly treatable disease. (b) The baby's grandmother, who is 55 years old with a good health but is terribly depressed as her husband died an unnatural death recently. (c) The captain of the ocean liner that sank and caused this crisis, aged 31, having ten children to look after, whose wife is dead, and he has no insurance. (d) There is a 45-year old woman who is pregnant and people on the ship are gossiping that she is a woman of loose character. She is wearing a heavy make-up and is seen using vulgar language which suggests that the gossip may be true. (e) There

is an 80-year old scientist who was on the team which had developed the atomic bomb, which killed millions of people in Japan during World War II; however, his current research might possibly lead to a cure for lung cancer in the near future. (f) There is also a young 21 years old bright college student with an IQ of 180, who is an excellent American football player. But he was in prison for two years for disobeying the government's condition to join the army. (g) There is one more old man whose age is 75. He is a doctor with a super-specialization in treating rare childhood diseases from which the one-year old child on the lifeboat is suffering. Some people think he is very religious and kind person. But most of them do not know that he is a drug addict and police suspect with some preliminary indications that he might be selling drugs to young people.

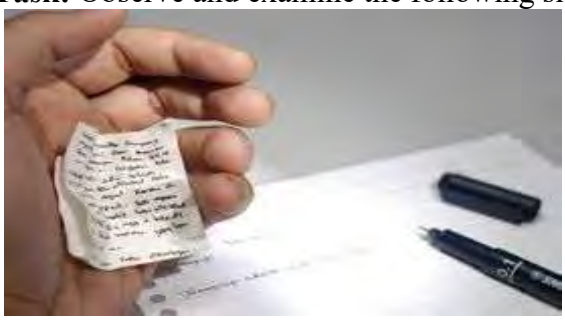
From solving crisis through effective arguments, we can move to evolving an argumentative topic, through an ethical topic of importance, from the field of education in order for expanding the classroom activities.

Evolving a Topic for Discussion

Social and ethical issues chosen for discussion provide a vibrant scope for shaping voice, agency and subject-hood. Let us explore an issue of highest importance from the field of education.

Brainstorming: Some crucial issues that affect the teaching-learning process and the prospects and life of students adversely may be brainstormed from the point of view of students/ teachers/management before showing the following pictures to evolve a topic for consideration and discussion.

Task: Observe and examine the following situations**:**



(Source: Google Image)

What do above pictures suggest? The pictures obviously suggest the following:

There are innumerable ways of cheating prevalent in exams!

Therefore, a question of serious concern arises:

Can the cheating in exams be stopped?

This question will certainly pose a duality of opinions: Many people will be of the view that it is possible to stop cheating in exams. Similarly, many others will be of the opinion that it is impossible to stop cheating in exams. Any one of the above aspects can be used as a topic for discussion and a task can be assigned as the following:

Task: Reflect upon and argue for or against the following (in pair/group):

Topic: It is impossible to stop cheating in exams! Do you agree or disagree? Do as the following:

- Develop arguments in favor of your stand/position on the topic.
- Select strong/powerful arguments from your list.
- Think of possible counter argument(s).
- Give concession to the opposing argument(s).
- Refute/Defeat the counter argument(s) by giving convincingly stronger arguments.

Developing an Argumentative Essay: At this juncture, the students could/should be introduced to the structure of an argumentative essay and the language needed for developing arguments.

Preparatory Steps

- Introduce the structure of a typical essay.
- Present a model argumentative essay and involve students in analyzing its structure.
- Next, students to develop an argumentative essay on the *cheating question* following the structure of the model essay.
- Then the students to peer-review each other's essay and improve upon it.
- Finally, the students to write final draft of the essay and submit for instructor's feedback.

Extension Activity: A new but closely related topic for argument can be further assigned as a classroom activity or, in case of lack of time, as a homework task.

Task: Reflect upon a situation of concern in the following picture and do as directed:

(Source: Google Image)

Think about the following critically and develop a well-structured reflective essay using your knowledge and competence gained through the preceding activities.

- Is cheating helpful or harmful in society?
- Do you agree or disagree with the anti-cheating measure adopted in the above picture?
- How ethical or unethical this anti-cheating measure is?
- Can there be better and more effective anti-cheating measures than shown in the picture? Discuss what and how.
- Do you think this kind of dictatorial approach to control cheating can be justified in view of human rights?

Like cartoons there is a real exaggeration in the above picture which may help us to see below the surface (between the lines) of what we read and see and it can offer a wide-ranging opportunity to discuss our experiences of life, feelings, and opinions, which result in more authentic expression and communication.

Conclusion

The issues of interaction and promoting CT as a social practice, in this paper, have been linked with shaping voice, agency and inter-subjectivity in a cohesive framework as against strict outcome-bound approaches and textbook-based instructional practices in order to make Rivers' notions of skill-getting and skill-using a reality in EIL bilingual classrooms which otherwise remain pseudo-bilingual in reality. The paper culminates in a non-technical framework through which it is demonstrated as to how a writing skill could be integrated with other language skills as well as with CT as a discursive practice through the use of pictorial presentations and dualities and controversies involved in them. The paper emphasizes that students need to participate in activities

that engage their interest and attention so that the interaction, to use Rivers' (1983) approach to skill getting and skill using, becomes natural and normal (pp. 104-13). Through interaction and interpersonal relationships, argumentative use of language plays an important role as the learners engage in argumentative discussion to meet the mutual understanding and thereby shape and strengthen their voice, agency and subject-hood / inter-subjectivity. Through such an approach, the students are able to expand their ability to be original and skeptical in reflecting upon various issues based on their own thinking and experiences and as a result they become more informed and responsible individuals. Therefore, the paper explicitly and unambiguously underlines that addressing the centrality of interaction and thereby making the notions of skill-getting and skill-using a reality in the teaching-learning processes and to promote CT as a mutually-cooperative practice are of paramount importance given the seriousness of pedagogical issues under consideration. The paper strongly advocates that the key to better educational planning and its success lies in promoting CT as a social practice and shaping students' voice, agency and inter-subjectivity in a cohesive framework as demonstrated in the present paper.

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Proposing a Syllable-based Account of Phonological Processes: Epenthesis and Deletion in Mostaganem Spoken Arabic

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Abstract

The study at hand explores the crucial position that the syllable holds in phonological analysis and theorizing by highlighting the analytical issues that might follow the exclusion of the syllable from phonological study. Effectively, the present study attempts to answer three main research questions, namely 1. Can rule-based phonology provide a satisfactory account of non-assimilatory processes such as epenthesis and deletion in Mostaganem Spoken Arabic? 2. Can a syllable-devoid account of epenthesis and deletion in Mostaganem Spoken Arabic be satisfactory? 3. Is the syllable indispensable in accounting for epenthesis and deletion in Mostaganem Spoken Arabic? Indeed, the present study demonstrates that a syllable-devoid analysis provides unsatisfactory accounts of certain phonological epenthesis and deletion. In order to attain the aim of this study, instances of epenthesis and deletion in the Mostaganem spoken variety of Algerian Arabic are analysed. Such instances of epenthesis and deletion were obtained from the recorded speech of a randomly selected sample of fifty native speakers of Mostaganem Spoken Arabic. The findings of this study reveal the indispensability of the syllable in describing and explaining epenthesis and deletion in MTG by comparing a syllable-devoid account and a syllable-based account of such processes. Effectively, syllable-devoid account pertaining to *The Sound Pattern of English* (Chomsky & Halle, 1968) tradition proved short of explanations as to why epenthesis and deletion take place in Mostaganem spoken Arabic as contrasted to a syllable-based account which provides adequate and convincing explanations of those processes.

Keywords: Account, deletion, epenthesis, Mostaganem Spoken Arabic, phonological processes, syllable, The Sound Pattern of English

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Introduction

The modular nature of language divides linguistics into a set of sub-disciplines each one of which emphasizes a certain aspect or else constituent unit of language. Effectively, while branches like syntax and morphology study units like sentences and words respectively, phonology has the segment or else the phoneme as its centre of concern. The elementariness of the phoneme can be traced back to the earliest instances of phonological theorizing within generative phonology, notably in *The Sound Pattern of English* (SPE) as set by Chomsky and Halle (1968). In this book, which introduced a quite influential approach in phonological analysis known as rule-based phonology or linear phonology, the phoneme is the basic unit of phonological analysis. Indeed, account of quite common phonological phenomena as sound change, addition or omission which are all enclosed under the umbrella term phonological processes, was achieved in reference to the phoneme and its constituents without further concern to other sound units. Thus, the phoneme was the sole unit of analysis in SPE. Hence, the aim of the present study is to prove that the syllable is an indispensable unit for explaining epenthesis and deletion in MTG and to demonstrate that a syllable-devoid analysis fails to account for those processes. Moreover, this study attempts to answer the following research questions:

1. Can rule-based phonology provide a satisfactory account of non-assimilatory processes such as epenthesis and deletion in Mostaganem spoken Arabic (MTG)?
2. Can a syllable-devoid account of epenthesis and deletion in MTG besatisfactory?
3. Is the syllable indispensable in accounting for epenthesis and deletion in MTG?

The following hypotheses result from the abovementioned research questions:

- Rule-based phonology provides an unsatisfactory account of non-assimilatory processes such as epenthesis and deletion in MTG since it neglects the unit of the syllable.
- A syllable-devoid account fails to provide a satisfactory description and explanation of non-assimilatory processes such as epenthesis and deletion in MTG.
- The syllable is an indispensable unit in accounting for non-assimilatory processes such as epenthesis and deletion in MTG.

Phonological Processes and a Phoneme-centred Analysis

Chomsky & Halle (1968) indicated the possibility of a phoneme-centred analysis by developing a distinctive feature theory which was inspired from Jakobson's theory (1952). Such a theory pinpointed the possibility of accounting for phonological processes like assimilation by analysing the constituent features of phonemes solely without having recourse to another sound unit. Thus, account of assimilatory processes like nasalization in French could be achieved in terms of the distinctive features of the vowel that is target to nasalization and the features of its adjacent phonemes without having recourse to any other sound unit. The instance of nasalization in French involves the change of an oral vowel like /a/ in /an/ 'year' to a nasal vowel [ã] yielding the output form [ãn] (Katamba, 1993, p. 121). Such a change is explained as being the result of a change of the feature [-nasal] which constitutes the vowel /a/ in /an/ to the feature [+nasal] which yields the vowel [ã] in the output [ãn]. The reason behind nasalization of /a/ is the [+nasal] /n/ which follows

/a/. Rule-based account of SPE uses a rule to represent and describe processes as nasalization as illustrated in figure 1.

[+consonantal]→[+consonantal] /_____[+consonantal]
[-nasal] [+nasal] [+nasal]

Figure 1. Rule-based account of nasalization in French (Katamba, 1993, p. 123)

Obviously, Chomsky & Halle (1968) focused only on the phoneme or the segment in their account of different types of phonological processes, especially assimilatory process and discarded any other sound unit. At first, their focus was embraced and welcomed by phonologists as no analytical problem was encountered in the case of assimilatory processes. Indeed, phoneme-centred account proved to be a reliable and useful method of analysis for describing assimilatory processes. However, soon after another type of phonological processes was discovered and the necessity for other sound units to account for them became obvious. Such a type of processes is known as non-assimilatory processes as they do not involve a featural change, so that a sound becomes more like an adjacent sound. In contrary, non-assimilatory processes involve the insertion or deletion of certain sounds in order to serve some principle of phonology (Sloat et al, 1978, p. 117).

The most common types of non-asssimilatory processes are insertion or epenthesis which involves the addition of a sound and deletion or syncope which involves the omission of a sound (Shane, 1973, pp. 53-54). Account of this type of processes requires appeal to another sound unit in addition to the phoneme as indicated by Khan (1968), Vennemann (1974), Hooper (1976) and Féry &Vijver (2003). This other sound unit is the syllable and its significance in phonological analysis became quite obvious because of various reasons. We outline in this paper the most relevant reasons.

The Syllable as a Significant Unit in Phonological Analysis

The syllable as defined by Kahn (1968) is a "unit of perception and production larger than the segment and smaller than the word" (p. 20) . The syllable is thus a group of segments or phonemes each one of which occupies a certain position in the syllable. Vowels are the central part of the syllable and are accordingly called peaks or nuclei, whereas consonants are optional and are found on the margins of the syllables; either preceding or following the vowel (Katamba, 1993, p. 154). As indicated by Katamba (1993) a word like bats /bæts/ consists of one syllable which is / bæts/ with vowel /æ/ as its nucleus, the consonant /b/ as its margin called the onset and the consonants /t/ and /s/ as its other margins called coda.

Representation of syllable constituents or structure is achieved by using a tree diagram that is reminiscent of the tree diagram of sentences structure in syntax (Spencer 1996, p. 73). Such a tree diagram involves more than one level and is thus in clash with SPE's linear representation which assembles all phonological elements in one line that is referred to as a rule (Spencer, 1996). The tree diagram for the syllable / bæts/ can be represented as follows:

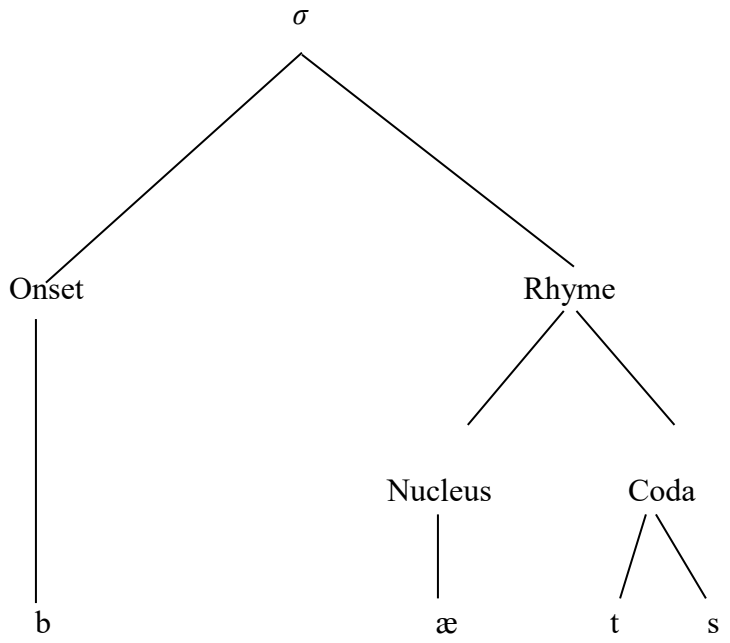

Figure 2. Tree diagram of / bæts/ (Katamba, 1993, p. 154)

The importance of the syllable relates to different aspects of phonological analysis. Among those aspects is the role it plays in formulating those conditions on sound combination and distribution which are dubbed phonotactic constraints (Spencer, 1996, p. 73). Indeed, syllable structure facilitates the formulation of phonotactic constraints of the sort the sounds /k/ and /n/ cannot combine at the beginning of words. Using syllable structure helps us understand why such a sequence is prohibited in cases as 'know' (/nəʊ/ not */knəʊ/), but is allowed in others like /əknɔːlidʒ/ 'acknowledge'. Including syllable structure in the phonotactic constraint concerning the sequence /kn/ indicates that the sequence /kn/ is disallowed when /k/ and /n/ are tautosyllabic or when they occur as onset of one single syllable. This explains why the sequence /kn/ is allowed in acknowledge. In fact, /k/ and /n/ are part of different syllables in this case with /k/ syllabifying as coda to the first syllable /ək/ and /n/ as onset of the second syllable. /nɔː/.

The relevance of the syllable is also noted in the case of voiceless stops aspiration in English as indicated by Kahn (1968, p. 68) and Spencer (1996, p. 207). The classical phonotactics of voiceless stops aspiration is that /p,t,k/ are aspirated at the beginning or middle of English words like pacific, tomorrow, collide, appear, attempt and account, but not after /s/ as in spin, stem and skin (Kahn, 1968, p. 70). Nevertheless, other forms do not follow this classical version of the aspiration phonotactics. In fact, in words like 'acknowledge' /k/ is not aspirated even though it occurs in the same position as in 'account' which is word-medial. In order to overcome such a problem, phonologists like Kahn (1968) proposed to include syllable boundaries in the phonotactics of aspiration. Hence, rather than using word boundaries like beginning and middle of the word, syllable boundaries, namely onset of the syllable are more adequate in this case. As a matter of fact, /k/ of acknowledge /ək-nɔː-lidʒ/ is a coda of the syllable /ək/ which explains the

failure of applying aspiration in this case unlike in 'account' /ə-k^{h}aʊnt/ in which /k/ is the onset of the syllable /kaʊnt/ an d is thus aspirated. Furthermore, word boundaries cause a representational problem since the boundary middle of the word is difficult to represent in a rule-based form and may correspond to two different syllable boundaries, namely onset and coda. Thus, rather than using word boundaries in rule-based representations, it is more adequate and simple to use syllable boundaries. The rule of English aspiration is represented as follows in Spencer (1996, p. 205):
/p, t, k/ → [+spread glottis] / *σ*[_____

Figure 3. Rule of English aspiration
The rule indicates that /p, t, k/ are aspirated or acquire the feature [spread glottis], which represents aspiration, when they are in syllable-initial position or else in onset position.

The relevance of the syllable does not only relate to phonotactics of allophonic distribution as in the case of aspirated and unaspirated allophones of /p,t,k/ in English. The syllable is also an essential unit in accounting for a number of phonological processes which have been assumed by some phonologists, as Shane (1973), Kahn (1968), Katamba (1993), Spencer (1996), Archangelli (1997), Kager (1999) and Féry&Vijver (2003) among others, to apply in order to obey some principles of syllable structure. Indeed, Katamba (1993, p. 167) demonstrates that the process of obstruent devoicing which is observed in German can be better explained if syllable structure is included. The devoicing of German obstruents in cases like /rak/ 'day' /tagə/ 'days' was traditionally represented by the following rule as indicated in Katamba (199, p. 167):

[-sonorant]→[-voice] /_____{C
#}
Figure 4. Devoicing in German

The rule above indicates that voiced obstruents in German are devoiced when they occur either before a consonant or word-finally. The environment before a consonant (C) and word-finally (#) both indicate the same syllable boundary which is coda position or syllable-final position. Indeed, in both cases the obstruent which is object to devoicing is part of a coda be it with another consonant or alone. Thus, using syllable structure rather than the traditional (C or #) assures a more economical and general reformulation of rule (4). Hence, reformulation of rule (5) including syllable boundaries can be written as follows:

[-sonorant]→[-voice] /_____]σ
Figure 5. Reformulation of devoicing in German rule

The significance of syllable structure is also observed in French in cases of vowel nasalization in cases like /bon/ 'good' →[bõn] and /anfle/ 'swell/swollen' →[ãnfle]. These instances of vowel nasalization in French are represented by the following rule as indicated in Katamba (1993167):
V→[+nasal] /_____N{C
#}
Figure 6. Vowel nasalization in French

The rule implies that a vowel changes from oral to nasal in French when it is followed by a nasal consonant like /n/ before a consonant or in word-final position. It seems like the same problem that is encountered in the case of German obstruent devoicing is encountered here. Effectively, in both instances of nasalization, namely [bõn] and [ãnfle], the vowel is nasalized if it is followed by a nasal consonant in coda position. As demonstrated earlier both C and #represent coda position. Thus, rule (6) can be reformulated as follows including syllable structure:

V→[+nasal] /_____N] σ

Figure 7. Reformulation of vowel nasalization in French rule

Obviously, syllable-based rules of both German obstruent devoicing and French nasalization provide more adequate, economical and general representations both processes. Furthermore, the fact of using syllable structure in these rules provides a common environment, which is coda position, for all instances of obstruent devoicing in German and all those of nasalization in French. As a result, all instances of obstruent devoicing occur because the targeted obstruent occurs in coda position. Similarly, all instances of vowel nasalization take place because the vowel is followed by a nasal occurring in coda position.

The Significance of the Syllable in Accounting for MTG's Epenthesis and Deletion

In addition to the relevance of the syllable in providing an economical and general account of processes like obstruent devoicing and nasalization as demonstrated above, the syllable is also significant in accounting for other processes, namely epenthesis and deletion. The present study analyses the relevance of the syllable in accounting for epenthesis and deletion in the Algerian dialect spoken in Mostaganem and known as Mostaganem Spoken Arabic (MTG).

Method

The corpus of the present study consists of the recordings of the speech of fifty native speakers of the Mostaganem spoken dialect of Algerian Arabic. The settings of the recording sessions include the supermarket, the beach, taxi, and the researcher's home. The sample of the study was randomly selected from the surrounding of the researcher and the age range of the participants is diversified combining children, adolescents and adults. Furthermore, both males and females were recorded. The participants are all inhabitants of the city of Mostaganem, and thus speak the urban accent of Mostaganem spoken Arabic.

After the recording sessions were completed, the speech was transcribed using IPA symbols. Then, the transcription was analyzed by the researcher in order to identify the recurrent instances of epenthesis and deletion. After epenthesis and deletion were identified, analysis of these processes was accomplished by comparing between a syllable-devoid account and a syllable-based account. The results and interpretations of such an analysis are outlined in the subsequent section.

Analysis of Epenthesis and Deletion in MTG

Epenthesis

The findings of the study revealed the existence of a type of epenthesis in MTG called glide insertion. Glide insertion involves the insertion of the glide /j/ between two vowels in MTG as in

/ʕlabali ana/ 'I know' →[ʕlabali **j**ana]. Such process happens as when the vowel-initial personal pronoun 'ana' (I) follows a word that ends with a vowel such as 'ʕlabali' (I know). The following sample which is extracted from the findings of our study illustrates glide insertion in MTG:

Table 1. *Glide Insertion in MTG*

Input	**Output**	**Word translation**	**Gloss**	**Ill-formed forms**
ʕlabali ana	ʕlabali jana	Know I	I know'	*ʕlabali ana
jəʃrili ana	jəʃrili jana	Buy I	'he buys me'	*jəʃrili ana
ħawdʒi ana	ħawdʒi jana		'oh my God'	*ħawdʒi ana
ʕi ana	ʕi jana	Just I	'just me'	*ʕi ana
gatti ana	gatti jana	She told I	'she told me'	*gatti ana
jdiːruli ana	jdiːruli jana	They do I	'they do me'	*jdiːruli ana
jəxt̲uni ana	jəxt̲uni jana	They leave I	'they leave me'	*jəxt̲uni ana
jfutuni ana	jfutuni jana	They bail I	'they bail on me'	*jfutuni ana

This case of epenthesis is the result of a common principle in phonological analysis which is avoidance of vowel hiatus. Most languages of the world disallow vowels to occur in a sequence without any intervening consonant in between (Spencer 1996, p. 234). Thus, if a vowel hiatus emerges as the outcome of affixation or at word boundaries, a remedy strategy is adopted in the language in question. In the case of MTG, the remedy is to insert the glide /j/ between the two vowels /i/ and /a/ in /ʕlabali ana/. The glide /j/ is inserted and not any other consonant since, as indicated by Uffmann (2007, p. 465) /j/ is the most suitable consonant in this case as /j/ shares the feature [+high] with the vowel /i/ in [ʕlabali jana].

Account of glide insertion in MTG from SPE's rule-based perspective can be formulated as follows:

$$\emptyset \rightarrow j \;/\; V_____V$$

Figure 8. Rule-based account of glide in MTG

Such a rule is satisfactory as far as formal description and representation are concerned. Yet, when one seeks explanation of the process, the rule is not sufficient on its own. Indeed, vowel hiatus is disallowed because of a quite clear reason in this case and such reason is impossible to formulate unless syllable structure is taken into account. In fact, different types of syllables exist in MTG or in any other dialect of any other language. However, one type of syllables is found in all languages of the world, comprehending Arabic and its dialects. This type of syllables has been dubbed the unmarked type of syllables since it is favoured by all languages of the world and is the type of syllables which start with a consonant and ends with a vowel (Féry & De Vijver 2003, p. 6). Such type of syllables is known as the CV-type or open onsetful syllable and vowel hiatus is disallowed because it results in a syllable that has no onset. Thus, when /ana/ follows / ʕlabali/, the syllable /a/ of the word /ana/ is of a V-type which lacks an onset and is thus in clash with the preferred CV-

type. In order to turn the V-type syllable /a/ into the unmarked CV-type, the glide /j/ inserted before /a/ yielding /ja/ which has an onset and is of a CV-type. Obviously, syllable structure is necessary for explaining glide insertion in MTG. In addition, to epenthesis, MTG also displays some instances of deletion. The following section examines deletion in MTG.

Deletion in MTG

MTG displays a case of deletion in instances of affixation like /wȧʒəd-a/ →[wȧʒ da] 'ready'. In such cases, the vowel /ə/ of the adjective [ɣal ət] 'ready, masculine' is deleted after the feminine suffix 'a-' is added to it in order to form the feminine form of [wȧʒ əd] which is [wȧʒda]. The following sample which is extracted from the findings of our study illustrates deletion in MTG:

Table 2. *Vowel deletion in MTG*

Input	**Output**	**Gloss**	**Ill-formed forms**
wȧʒəd-a	wȧʒda	'ready'	*wȧʒədiːn
fȧhəm.-a	fȧhma	'wise'	*fȧhəma
raf̍ əd-a	rȧfda	'carrying'	* raf̍ əda
ʕȧqəl-a	ʕȧqla	'kind'	*ʕȧqəla
ɣaj̍ əb-a	ɣaj̍ ba	'absent'	*ɣaj̍ əbiːn
dʒaj̍ əb-a	dʒaj̍ ba	'bringing'	*dʒaj̍ əba
kaṫ əl-a	kȧtla	'killed'	*kȧtəliːn
ɣȧləṯ-a	ɣal_ta	'mistaken'	*ɣal ə̱ta
gȧbəd-a	gȧbda	'grabbing'	*gȧbəda
daj̍ ər-a	daj̍ ra	'doing'	*dȧjəra

It appears from the above sample that whenever the feminine suffix 'a-' is added to an adjective or participle, the /ə/ of the root is deleted. Having recourse to rule-based phonology to account for this case of deletion would be in vain since rule-based phonology cannot provide the environment that conditions deletion in this case. On the other hand, if syllable structure is included in the account, deletion in MTG can be explained and adequately described. Indeed, /ə/ is deleted in /wȧʒəd-a/ which is realized like [wȧʒda] since it occurs in an open unstressed syllable which is /ʒə/.

As indicated by Btoosh (2006) "weak nuclei cannot stand in open syllables in most Arabic varieties" (p. 201). After the feminine suffix 'a- 'is added to /wȧʒəd/, the resulting form is /wȧʒəda/ with /d/ syllabifying as the onset of the new syllable which is formed by the suffix /a/ yielding the syllables /wa/, /ʒə/ and /da/. Such syllabification satisfies the preferred CV-type. Indeed, syllabifying /d/ as coda to /ʒə/ would yield the output [waˈːʒəd.a] with the syllable /a/ lacking an onset. Such syllabification is in clash with the unmarked CV-type which requires syllables to have onsets. As a result, the vowel /ə/ is no longer nucleus of a closed syllable as in the masculine form [wȧʒəd]. Given that /ə/ is the weakest vowel in any language and is never stressed (Ryu & Hong, 2013, p. 317), it cannot occur in open syllables as indicated by Btoosh

(2006). Thus, /ə/ is deleted and /ʒ/ resyllabifies as the coda of the first syllable /waʒ/ yielding the final output [wȧʒəd]. Such cases of deletion are common in most dialects of Arabic since weak nuclei as /ə/ are disfavoured by most dialects of Arabic (Kabrah, 2011, p. 36).

It is clear from the above analysis that syllable structure is essential in accounting for deletion in MTG. To further prove this point, let us compare between a classical rule-based account in which syllable structure is disregarded and another which takes syllable structure into account. The two accounts are presented in the following rules:

V→∅ /_____?
Figure 9. Rule-based account of vowel deletion in MTG

[-stress]→ ∅ / σ [C_____
Figure 10. Rule-based account of vowel deletion in MTG including syllable structure

The first rule which discards the syllable fails to provide the environment that conditions deletion, whereas the second rule which tales syllable structure into account succeeds to account for deletion in MTG and to provide the conditioning environment which is open syllable and is symbolized by σ [C_____. Rule (10) is then read; weak vowels [-stress] are deleted when they occur in open syllables (σ [C_____).

Conclusion

As demonstrated in the analysis of the findings of our study, the syllable is indispensable in accounting for the most common types of non-assimilatory processes, viz epenthesis and deletion. Indeed, as indicated for MTG's epenthesis and deletion, those processes cannot be satisfactorily described and explained if syllable structure is discarded. For this particular reason, rule-based accounts of epenthesis and deletion which were syllable-devoid were short of explanations for the occurrence of those processes. Effectively, epenthesis and deletion often apply in order to obey some principle of syllable structure such as the necessity of an onset. This link between syllable structure and epenthesis and deletion led to the labeling of epenthesis and deletion 'syllable structure processes' by some phonologists as Shane (1973, p. 52).

It is doubtless now that the syllable is an integral part of speech and is as significant to phonological analysis as the individual sounds. This resolution was to influence a number of phonologists who developed approaches and theories that recognized the importance of the syllable in phonological analysis in addition to the individual sound of course. Among those approaches and theories, one may cite *autosegmental phonology* set forth by Goldsmith (1976) and *optimality theory* introduced by Prince & Smolensky (1993) and McCarthy & Prince (1995). These two waves of phonological theorizing preserve the basic foundations of generative phonology and of SPE. Yet, each one of them brought some useful additions to phonological analysis one of which is the significance of the syllable in phonological analysis.

Interestingly, by demonstrating that the fact of including the syllable in accounting for non-assimilatory processes such as epenthesis and deletion in MTG is indispensable, this study

calls for future studies that will take into account the syllable in their account of other non-assimilatory processes in MTG or for epenthesis and deletion in other varieties of the Arabic language. Such a consideration for the unit of the syllable would further prove the import of the syllable in phonological theorizing and analysis. Besides, such a consideration would justify the necessity for the representational shifts that were established by both autosegmental phonology and optimality theory from phonological rules to multi-tiered representation and to constraints respectively.

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Iraqi EFL Teachers' Assessment Literacy: Perceptions and Practices

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Abstract
In current educational approaches, the purpose and functions of assessment have extended, and teachers are expected to have good knowledge of the principles of modern assessment. In line with this fact, the present study investigated the assessment literacy levels of Iraqi English language teachers through Classroom Assessment Literacy Inventory (CALI) based on the seven standards of teachers' assessment competence for educational assessment of students developed by the American Federation of Teachers, National Council on Measurement in Education and National Education Association (1990). The data were collected from 101 teachers working at secondary and preparatory schools of Suleymaniyah and Arbil governorates in the North of Iraq. The findings revealed that Iraqi English language teachers responded less than 15 correct responses out of 35 questions. According to the findings, teachers got the lowest score from standard seven (recognizing unethical, illegal, and otherwise inappropriate assessment methods and uses of assessment information). The highest score was from standard four (using assessment results when making educational decisions). Although 77% of teachers reported to have been adequately trained for assessment, the results revealed that they had low level of assessment literacy. Revisions in teacher preparation programs and preparation of professional training courses for in-service teachers are recommended.

***Keywords*:** assessment, assessment literacy, Iraqi EFL teachers, teachers' assessment literacy
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Introduction

Teachers' assessment literacy is a crucial part of teachers' quality and professional requirements. As stated by Mertler (2003b), teachers' assessment literacy can enhance or limit the education process and student achievement. Scholars mentioned that the lacks in teachers' beliefs, knowledge and practice on assessment have negative consequences on student achievement and education (Brookhart, 2011; Chapuis & Stiggins, 2002; Plake, 1993; Rogier, 2014). Studies on this issue have made it clear that teachers' preparation programs are not well organized to address teachers' needs for classroom assessment (Mcmillan, 2005; Mertler, 2003b, 2004, 2009; Popham, 2009; Stiggins, 1988, 2002, 2007, 2008.).

Although there are studies on assessment literacy, Fulcher (2012) accentuates that research on this field is not well developed yet. When the related literature is examined we can say that assessment literacy has been studied and presented in three phases: (1) teachers' concept of assessment, (2) teachers' knowledge and skills and (3) teachers' classroom practice of assessment.

Teachers' concepts and value of assessment is the most significant factor in assessment interpretation and decision-making (Mcmillan, 2005). The misperceptions of assessment that restrict teachers' assessment literacy include the wrong view of assessment as non-related to teaching process (Brown, 2004; Shepard, 2000), the classical concept of scientific measurement (Shepard, 2000) and teachers' underestimation of the role of assessment. Another element in teachers' assessment literacy is their knowledge. Most teachers and principals engage in assessment performance without trusting their knowledge and ability (Stiggins, 2008).

Teachers' inappropriate beliefs and lack of knowledge lead to poor assessment practice. Teachers, who have no explicit views on students' performance, base their teaching methods and objectives on vague standards and lead to inadequate assessment practice (Stiggins, 1988). Research has shown that assessment practice lacks several important principles and procedures. Teachers collect a lot of evidence through classroom assessment without using them for instructional decisions (Valencia, 2002). Another problem is the evidences used only for reporting learning achievement. Most teachers do not use assessment to boost learning; they are likely to misinterpret assessment results (Rogier, 2014) and teachers only focus on constructed responses rather than critical thinking (Mcmillan, 2005). In most of the cases, teachers do not refer to authorities; there is no significant application of experts' recommendations and research findings in classroom practice (Mcmillan, 2005). There may also be a problem of translating knowledge and concept into practice by teachers for classroom assessment performance.

The problem in the field of assessment literacy may well be that there are many claims and recommendations asserted by scholars, but few are supported by empirical evidence. There is real need for expanding empirical research in teachers' assessment knowledge and its impact on learning achievement to support the principles and recommendations of scholars.

The role of classroom assessment

Classroom assessment can be regarded as one of the most challenging aspects of teachers' profession (Mertler, 2003a; 2009), and has a powerful impact on teaching and learning processes (Stiggins, 2012). Since teachers design, score and evaluate activities, classroom assessment needs

time and effort. Stiggins (1988, p. 364) emphasizes this issue stating "Teachers may spend as much as 20% or 30% of their professional time directly involved in assessment-related activities". Literature supports the claim that despite the complexity and importance of classroom assessment, the current level of practice is not satisfactory (Davidheiser, 2013; Brown, 2004; Mertler, 2003b). Several factors influence the quality of classroom assessment including external tests, teachers' assessment literacy and classroom realities (Mcmillan, 2005; Zhang & Burry-Stock, 2003). The prominent power of external tests affects national teaching plans, learning objectives and assessment performance. These tests affect teachers' plans in a way that they almost ignore classroom assessment (Mcmillan, 2005; Stiggins, 2007).

Other obstacles can be the misconception of assessment among teachers, students and education community as a general, objective and accurate scientific measurement administered in certain times non-related to teaching. This classical view of assessment does not support students' motivation and confidence in learning (Shepard, 2000). Teachers' lack of knowledge is another obstacle in front of adequate practice of quality assessment in classroom education because teacher preparation courses and professional trainings are not preparing teachers well to challenge classroom assessment (Mcmillan, 2005; Rogier, 2014; Shepard, 2000; Zhang & Burry-Stock, 2003)

Additionally, there are some classroom realities and learning environments that affect classroom assessment practice negatively such as inappropriate behaviors of learners, heterogeneity of learners' abilities (Mcmillan, 2005), crowded classrooms and very limited classroom time especially in public schools.

In order to accomplish improvement in learning achievement and raise students' academic standards, necessary actions should be taken to promote the quality of classroom assessment. Training programs need to have courses that are more intensive on assessment literacy to prepare teachers well for the challenge of classroom assessment. The practice of assessment in classrooms should change to assessment for learning not of learning for obtaining learning goals (Mcmillan, 2005; Stiggins, 2002, 2008, 2012; Valencia, 2002). Any improvement in the quality of assessment for learning leads to students' greater achievement (Stiggins, 2012). The gap between external factors on classroom assessment and principles of assessment literacy need to be minimized.

The present study examines whether teachers are prepared to assess students' performance and tries to discover teachers' perceptions of their level of assessment literacy. In addition, this research tries to reveal teachers' views about the courses they received in their initial teacher education programs as teacher candidates. It also tries to find out the weak and strong aspects of teachers' knowledge about classroom assessment in relation to what kind of skills or ability they have or tend to develop.

This study tries to determine the assessment literacy levels of Iraqi teachers of English in Northern Iraq regional governorate. To this aim, the following research questions are to be investigated:

1. What are the assessment literacy levels of Iraqi English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers?
2. What are the weak and strong aspects of Iraqi EFL teachers' assessment literacy when compared to the standards of teacher competence?

Research design

This study applied a quantitative method with a descriptive approach to define Iraqi EFL teachers' assessment literacy levels in terms of the seven standards of teachers' assessment competence proposed by AFT, NCME and NEA (1990).

The researchers used Classroom Assessment Literacy Inventory (CALI) designed by Mertler & Campbell (2005) to collect the data. The survey form was adapted from "Teacher Assessment Literacy Questionnaire" (Plake, Impara & Fager, 1993). The questionnaire consists of two parts: the first part has 35 items to investigate teachers' assessment literacy based on the seven Standards for Teacher Competence in the Educational Assessment of Students (AFT, NCME, & NEA, 1990).

The second part consists of seven questions about participants' academic achievement, gender, age, classroom level they teach, and their views on the courses they received in initial teacher education.

The population of this research was EFL teachers in Northern Iraq, specifically from Sulaymaniyah and Arbil governorates. All the teachers are speakers of Kurdish as a first language. Some are not graduates of faculties of education and teaching departments; therefore, they have not been prepared for teaching and assessing students.

Teachers of both basic schools and preparatory schools in private and public education sectors are covered in data collection. The sampling method was convenience sampling. Although 150 questionnaires were distributed, 101 teachers completed the questionnaire.

Data analysis

Descriptive analysis was conducted to explore teachers' assessment levels according to the seven standards of teachers' assessment literacy. Each subscale was investigated individually to determine the weak and strong aspects of teachers' assessment literacy. Means and standard deviations for each standard and the whole instrument were examined. All the statistical analyses were carried out by using SPSS to find answers for the research questions.

Findings

Perceptions of Qualification for Assessment

Table 1 gives information about the frequency analysis of the question of whether teachers have received a stand-alone course on classroom assessment as part of their undergraduate program.

Table 1 *Descriptive Statistics for Stand-alone Course on Classroom Assessment*

		Frequency	*Percent*	*Valid Percent*
Valid	yes	43	42.6	42.6
	no	58	57.4	57.4
	Total	101	100.0	100.0

Table 1 shows that 42.6% of the teachers (n= 43) took a stand-alone course on classroom assessment; on the other hand, 57.4% of participants (n= 58) did not take a stand-alone course on classroom assessment.

Table 2 presents description of the frequency levels of teachers' perceptions about undergraduate preparation program.

Table 2 *Perceptions of Undergraduate Preparation for Classroom Teaching*

		Frequency	*Percent*	*Valid Percent*
Valid	very unprepared	6	5.9	6.4
	somewhat unprepared	11	10.9	11.7
	somewhat prepared	47	46.5	50.0
	very prepared	30	29.7	31.9
	Total	94	93.1	100.0
Missing	System	7	6.9	
Total		101	100.0	

In Table 2, it is seen that only 16.8% of teachers (n= 17) think that the undergraduate preparation program did not prepare them for classroom teaching, while 76.2% of teachers (n= 77) think that undergraduate preparation program prepared them to be a good teacher in general.

Table 3 illustrates teachers' perceptions of undergraduate preparation program for students' assessment in the classroom.

Table 3 *Perceptions of Undergraduate Preparation for Classroom Assessment*

		Frequency	*Percent*	*Valid Percent*
Valid	very unprepared for assessing student performance	8	7.9	8.2
	somewhat unprepared for assessing student performance	15	14.9	15.5
	somewhat prepared for assessing student performance	42	41.6	43.3
	very prepared for assessing	32	31.7	33.0
	Total	97	96.0	100.0
Missing	System	4	4.0	
Total		101	100.0	

Frequency analysis presented in Table 3 demonstrates that 7.9 % of teachers (n= 8) report being very unprepared, while 14.9% of them (n= 15) answered to be somewhat unprepared. On the other hand, 41.6% of teachers (n= 42) reported being somewhat prepared and 31.7% of teachers (n= 33) believe that they are very prepared for assessing students' performance. The descriptive frequency statistics show that 73.3% of English teachers (n= 74) feel prepared for assessing student performance.

Analysis of teachers' assessment literacy

Research question 1: What is the assessment literacy level of Iraqi teachers of English as a foreign language measured by Classroom Assessment Literacy Inventory?

Descriptive analysis was conducted to investigate Iraqi EFL teachers' assessment literacy levels. Table 4 shows the descriptive statistics of their assessment literacy levels.

Table 4 *Descriptive Statistics of Teachers Assessment Literacy Levels*

	N	*Minimum*	*Maximum*	*Mean*	*Std. Deviation*
Total correct answer	101	5.00	28.00	14.3465	4.45968

As seen in Table 4, the average scores of teachers *(N=101)* was less than satisfactory. Teachers answered less than 15 questions correctly *(M*=14.34, *SD*= 4.45) out of 35 questions. The minimum correct response was five and the maximum correct response was 28. The statistics showed that Iraqi EFL teachers' assessment literacy level in the current study was found to be less than all the previous studies around the world (Perry, 2013; Plake, Impara & Fager, 1993; Mertler, 2003b; Yamtim & Wongwanich, 2013).

Research question 2 What are the weak and strong aspects of Iraqi English language teachers' assessment literacy according to the standards of teacher competence?

Descriptive data was collected through Classroom Assessment Literacy Inventory in order to explore the strong and weak points of teachers' assessment literacy. Details about strong and weak points of teachers' assessment literacy are presented in Table 5.

Table 5 *Statistical analysis of teachers' scores for each standard*

	Mean	*Std. Deviation*
Standard 1- Choosing appropriate methods of assessment	2.2475	1.12611
Standard 2- Developing appropriate methods of assessment	2.3465	1.12637
Standard 3- Administering, scoring and interpreting assessment results	2.3366	1.07030
Standard 4- Using assessment results for decision making	2.4059	1.12408

Standard 5- Developing valid grading practice	1.8317	1.15818
Standard 6-Communicating assessment results	1.6931	.99742
Standard 7- Recognizing unethical or illegal assessment practice	1.4851	1.01601
Total correct answer	14.3465	4.45968

Maximum possible score for each standard is five. The results showed that teachers' highest score was on standard four: "*Using assessment results for decision-making"* (*M*= 2.41, *SD*= 1.12), then the second highest score was on standard two: "*Developing appropriate methods of assessment"* (*M*= 2.34, *SD*= 1.13). The lowest score was found in standard seven: "*Recognizing unethical or illegal assessment practice"* (*M*= 1.48, *SD*= 1.01). The second lowest standard was standard six: "*Communicating assessment results"* (*M*= 1.69, *SD*= .99).

Discussion

Iraqi EFL teachers' assessment literacy level

The findings of the current research showed that Iraqi EFL teachers' assessment literacy level was much less than satisfactory. Teachers responded less than 15 items correctly out of 35 items. However, teachers' correct response ranged from 17 to 24 in the previous studies (Campbell, Murphy & Holt, 2002; Davidheiser, 2013; Mertler, 2003b; Perry, 2013; Plake, 1993; Plake et al.1993; Yamtim & Wongwanich, 2013). A study conducted by Campbell et al. (2002) in the United States showed that pre-service teachers' correct response was 21 and in-service teachers' was 23. Another study conducted by Plake (1993) revealed that teachers' overall correct response was 23. In another study, Plake et al. (1993) found teachers' correct response as 22.

Mertler (2003b) carried out a study with both pre-service and in-service teachers to determine their assessment literacy level; as can be expected, pre-service teachers' score was less than in-service teachers'. A study was conducted by Davidheiser (2013) with Drexel University participants indicated that assessment literacy level was found higher than all the previous studies. Further, in a study conducted by Perry (2013), teachers' assessment literacy was found to be above average. Despite contextual differences, all the above-mentioned research showed that teachers' assessment literacy score was higher than the findings of the current study.

On the other hand, in a study conducted by Yamtim and Wongwanich (2013) in Taiwan, primary teachers' assessment literacy level was found to be 17.11. In the comparison with the findings the other studies on teachers' assessment literacy, we can conclude that Iraqi EFL teachers have the poorest level of assessment literacy so far. This low score in assessment literacy may result from poor teacher education programs, lack of in-service training courses for teacher development, limited resources in assessment, and the dominant role of national testing on the teaching/ learning process.

Strong and weak aspects of Iraqi EFL teachers' assessment literacy

The weakest aspect of teachers' assessment literacy in this research was found in standard seven, which is "*teachers should be skilled in recognizing unethical, illegal, and otherwise*

inappropriate assessment methods and uses of assessment information". The results showed that teachers' highest score was on standard four, "*teachers should be skilled in using assessment results when making decisions about individual students, planning teaching, developing curriculum and school improvement"* (AFT, NCME, & NEA, 1990).

The findings revealed that the strong aspect of teachers' assessment in the current research is similar to the study by Perry (2013) in which teachers' highest score was also in standard four. The weak points of teachers' assessment literacy were also similar to Perry's study in standard seven. The second weakest aspects of teachers assessment literacy found in this study is slightly different from the study by Plake et al. (1993) in which teachers' weakest point was in standard six. The strong aspect of this research was found to be different from the study that was done by Plake et al. (1993) in which the highest point of score was in standard three: "*Administering, scoring and interpreting assessment results".* Mertler (2003b) found strong points of performance in standard three and lowest score was in standard five, which was different from the current study. Yamtim and Wongwanich (2013) found different strong and weak points of assessment literacy as well; the weakest point was in standard five and the strongest aspect was on standard one.

The strongest and the weakest aspects of teachers' assessment literacy show moderate variety across the related literature. The various results may be due to the difference in courses related to assessment in teacher education programs, curriculum differences and education policy. Another reason may come from the fact that teachers learn from colleagues (Stiggins, 1988) and revise their own samples; as a result, the strong and weak points may be shared among them in similar contexts.

Iraqi EFL teachers' conception on assessment

The findings of the present study showed that more than 57% of participants reported that they had not received a stand-alone course on assessment during their undergraduate education. Improvement in learning is inevitably connected to teachers' assessment literacy (Arter, 2001). In the context of this study, teachers have not received any in-service training course on assessment, at least for the last 10 years. Although teachers' quality is one of the most crucial factors of learning achievement (Lee & Wiliam, 2005), there have rarely been courses for in-service teachers' quality improvement in Iraqi context.

This poor level of assessment literacy may result from the misconception of assessment practice and role. Teachers got the lowest score on average in comparison to all studies done about assessment literacy so far; yet more than 73% of teachers believed that their undergraduate program had prepared them for classroom assessment. Teaches' claim of being prepared can be regarded as false statement because the contradiction between their claim and assessment literacy scores may be due to teachers' misunderstanding of classroom assessment. Similar to previous studies, most of the teachers who performed much better reported that they had not been prepared well for assessment (Mertler, 2009; Stiggins, 2002, 2007). The results showed that teachers in the context of the present study are unaware of the principles of assessment literacy. Therefore, as mentioned by Mertler (2004) teacher education programs should be seen as the foundation of core teaching skills including assessment literacy and assessment skills which are of great importance in actual teaching practice.

Despite the limitations of this study, in which the data collection was a single stage survey and only teachers of English participated in the data collection process, there is enough evidence in hand to claim that teachers assessment literacy is much less than satisfactory. Teachers need in-service training courses for professional development. Teachers are not aware of the principles of assessment literacy and even they are not aware of their need to improve. Teachers need to be trained about unethical and illegal practice of classroom assessment more than other aspects.

Conclusion

This study was an attempt to determine Iraqi EFL teachers' assessment literacy level. Population and sampling were restricted to Northern part of Iraq, specifically in Sulaymaniyah and Arbil governorates. The findings provide empirical evidence in hand supported by 101 survey samples to claim that Iraqi EFL teachers' level of assessment literacy is too low according to Standards for Teacher Competence in the Educational Assessment of Students (AFT, NCME, & NEA, 1990). The results indicated that Iraqi EFL teachers perform the weakest level of knowledge as compared to all the previous research in this field (Campbell et al., 2002; Davidheiser, 2013; Mertler, 2003b; Perry, 2013; Plake, 1993; Plake et al. 1993; Yamtim & Wongwanich, 2013). Teachers' weakest perception was found in "*recognizing unethical or illegal assessment practice"* but they performed somehow better "*in using assessment results for decision-making"*. Although most of Iraqi EFL teachers reported as being prepared, the findings proved the opposite. They underestimate or misunderstand the role of assessment and their own potential need for improvement.

It is clearly proved that Iraqi EFL teachers are not prepared well to assess students' performance adequately and determine the true level of achievement. Teachers need improvement in assessment through reform in teacher education programs and training courses in Iraq.

Suggestions

Based on our findings, revision and improvement in teacher education programs in Northern Iraq is definitely needed as suggested in many studies for other contexts (Brookhart, 2001; Chapuis & Stiggins, 2002; Mcmillan, 2005; Popham, 2011; Zhang & Burry-Stock, 2003). Education reform should not only focus on changing course books and pedagogy. Curriculum reforms need to cover assessment concept, principle and procedures alongside with other aspects. The important role of assessment in education should receive enough consideration by the schooling system.

There is also an urgent need of appropriate in-service training courses for teachers' professional development. The training courses need to address all the principles and procedures of sound assessment. There should be a standard for teachers' quality and a clear policy for recruitment to raise the standards of teaching and learning.

One suggestion for further studies could be about the methodological considerations. This study employed a survey research method, which gives general information on teachers' perceptions, however, inclusion of classroom observation and assessment interpretation in further studies may bring in-debt understanding of the assessment perceptions and practices of teachers.

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