Acknowledgment
I would like to thank all those who contributed to this volume as reviewers of papers. Without their help and dedication, this volume would not have come to the surface. Among those who contributed were the following:

Dr. Holi Ibrahim Holi Ali
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Conversing in L2 English with Saudi Arabic (L1) Children at Home

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Abstract
This qualitatively based research study aims at critically examining the linguistic practises of a particular group of Saudi parents who chose to use the host country's language (English L2) instead of the mother tongue (Arabic L1) with their children. Specifically, the study aims at answering two research questions: Why Saudi do parents chose to speak English to their child/children? And What are the effects of mostly speaking English on the children and their home language: Arabic? A total of ten participating parents took part in this research study where semi structured interviews were utilised to gather the primary data. Thematic analysis of the data revealed three main emerging themes and six subthemes. The findings from the data analysis revealed that Saudi parents speak English with their children so as to allow them the opportunity to be bilingual and linguistically (English – L2) proficient as well as the fact that those parents were pleased to see their children speak English with a British accent. Also, the analysis revealed that that children of Saudi parents speaking English only has led to the weakening and loss of their Arabic L1 language. The study concludes that parents should provide a linguistic balance for their bilingual children in order to preserve the native language. Additionally, the study recommends that further parallel research studies with bilingual children of various L1(s), are conducted.

Keywords: Bilingualism, critical period hypothesis, language loss, language and identity

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.1
1.0 Introduction
It is estimated that more than 150,000 Saudi students have been given the opportunity to study outside of Saudi Arabia to gain graduate and postgraduate degrees in more than 25 countries all around the world (Al-Iqtisadi, 2015). On top of the list of countries are the US, UK, and Australia. According to the UNESCO report on student movement in 2009, Saudi Arabia was the fourth country around the world in the number of students studying abroad and the first with regards to the number of students on scholarships in comparison with the total number of Saudi citizens (M.O.H.E, 2018).

In this small study, a critical approach will be adopted to explore the reasons behind Saudi Arabian students living in the United Kingdom neglecting their children's mother tongue (Arabic) and mostly speaking English to them. This study would also address issues related to the children's identity and sense of belonging. By adopting the critical paradigm, this practice is problematised and argued that the parents here are depriving their children of their basic human right to speak their mother tongue. This is supported by Skutnabb-Kangas and May (2017) in their book *Linguistic Human Rights in Education* in which they state that each child in the world has the right to maintain and develop his/her mother tongue. They clarify that most individuals can identify positively with their mother tongue (MT), this identification should be accepted by others regardless of it being a minority or a majority language.

1.1 Theoretical Framework
The nature of the current research is inspired by the theoretical framework that believes that ‘social reality’ is historically constructed and that it is produced and reproduced by people (Olssen, 2017). As such, this research aims to raise the awareness of the parents and possibly to change their linguistics practices with their children in the future.

2.1 Literature Review

2.1.1 Language Maintenance and Language Loss
This issue of first language loss is relatively a new concern when compared with what policymakers have considered as more important, namely acquisition of the language of the host society (Kormos, Csizér, & Iwaniec, 2014). This could be understandable in situations of permanent immigration. However, in the case of the children of Saudi students where immigration is a temporarily issue, then language loss should be a huge concern. This loss of confidence in the home language may occurs as a result of the restricted use of the language (Murtagh, 2011). The younger the children are, the greater the risk of losing their home language (Brady, 2018). This issue of home language loss, however, might not always be under the control of the parents. However, the research warns that some parents, after living in the host country for a couple of years, report that their children's English is better than theirs and that their children are completely ignoring and/or avoiding the use of their home language (Verdon, McLeod, & Winsler, 2014). Only then, do the parents try to reverse this trend to encourage the children to learn the home language, but their efforts are usually rejected by the children. Al-Jarf (1992) argues that this could be avoided when the home language is perceived in a respectful manner within the family and the community as possibility of its loss becomes less likely.
Language and Identity
Both identity and language are dynamic and change depending upon time and place (Oxford, 2016). A person’s identity and language are strongly related, but in a very complex way partly due to the dynamic nature of these concepts and partly due to the human subject involved. Weber (2015) argues that language influences culture and thus identity, and that culture is sometimes regarded as a marker of a persons’ identity. Tato, Menter, Burn, Mutton, and Thompson (2017) argue that our perceptions of ourselves are constantly changing and this change with our community of practice is allowing us multiple identities. With regards to immigrants, this depends on how they view their ‘home language’ and that determines whether they are going to make an effort to maintain it or not. For example, Daher (1988) presents a case study of Lebanese immigrants living in the United States who do not intend on going back to Lebanon for various reasons. He clarifies that they are in search of a new ‘identity’ in the US; therefore, these parents do not see any value in their home language—Arabic. This resulted in parents not making any effort of maintaining it. Their children do not attend any Arabic schools and parents choose not to speak any Arabic to their children believing that it would affect the English learning, thereby affecting the ‘new’ identity. On the other hand, one of the ways minority groups choose to maintain their children's language and identity is through establishing community language schools. Saudi schools have been established in most of the major cities in the United Kingdom where a recognizable population of Saudi students was present. Before 2010, the attendance of the children at these schools was relatively mandatory each weekend. However, a new law was established at the end of 2010 and the attendance of these schools became optional as the Saudi Ministry of Education started accepting and recognizing the school degrees obtained from British schools. The Saudi Educational system now allows returning Saudi students children to continue from where they stopped in their UK schools without the loss of one year like the system was prior to 2010. Unfortunately, this encouraged many parents to withdraw their children from the Saudi schools thereby depriving them a chance to learn more about their religion, culture, identity and home language: Arabic.

Critical Period Hypothesis
Although there is no certain age for a child to start learning a second language, the critical period hypothesis first introduced by Lenneberg (1967) is the name assigned to the idea that children acquire a second language better than adults do, therefore it supports introducing the second language early in a child's life (Smalle, Muylle, Szmalec, & Duyck, 2017). This hypotheses also indicates that any language acquisition that happens after puberty is not quite the same as learning the language as a first language (Snow & Hoefnagel-Höhle, 1978). However, a number of studies were conducted that prove the hypothesis while others argue that advantages of learning English at an early stage are less clear when the target is learning a language as a foreign language. However, many researchers favour learning a second language at an early age, while others argue that older learners acquire the language at higher levels of proficiency than younger learners do (Richards & Yamada-Yamamoto, 1998). For example, a study was conducted on 17,000 British children who were learning French over a five-year exposure in school indicated that older children learned French at a much higher rate than younger children (Stern, Burstall, & Harley, 1975).
Bilingualism

Most Saudi Arabia students studying in the United Kingdom want their children to be bilingual. However, some families enable this more than others for example if one parent speaks one language while the other parent speaks a different language and both of the parents interact with the children on regular basis this usually provides the children with the perfect opportunity to learn both languages at the same time (Baker, 2014). Another scenario is when children learn one language at home and another language at school or a community school. In some families, bilingualism is more challenging than in others. For example, when the parents are very busy studying or working and they are the sole source for the home language, this will result in the children being completely immersed in English because most of the interaction and learning will happen in school in English. (Baker, 2014) argue that children who have strong foundation in their mother tongue are better learners with better cognitive abilities that enable them to learn reading and writing much easier in the host language if they already know about reading and writing in their first language.

3.0 Methodology

In order to carry out this piece of research, two research questions were formulated. They aim to explore the reasons behind the parents’ choice to speak mostly/only English with their children as well as the consequences that choice is having/ had on the children. The two research questions are:

1. Why Saudi do parents chose to speak English to their child/children?
2. What are the effects of mostly speaking English on the children and their home language: Arabic?

3.1 Participants

The 10 Saudi parents who took part in the study have been chosen based on two reasons: purposiveness and accessibility (Orcher, 2016; Robinson, 2014). Participants were either graduate students on scholarships from the Saudi government attending universities or spouses of graduate students in the UK. Ten parents who have been in the United Kingdom for three years and more and who chose to speak only/mostly English to the children, were interviewed. They all had child/children aged 0-4 years when they first came to the UK and therefore children had not completely developed their home language yet.

3.1 Research Instrument

Due to the high importance of the validity of the data, the researcher tried to minimize as much as possible the amount of ‘bias’ in the interview questions (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2013). Participants were interviewed individually for about 30-45 minutes each. This allowed the ease with which to involve participants in both the transcribing and translating the data by emailing the full transcriptions to them after each interview in order to validate what has been documented in the interviews. Then, the participants were requested to correct, add or delete any part of the transcription which they do not think that they have mentioned, or it might have been mistranslated since the interviews were conducted in Arabic and then translated into English while transcribing. Four of the participants slightly corrected their interview transcripts while the remaining six sent e-mails confirming their approval of the transcripts. All of the previous steps were taken to make the researcher’s data valid, true, and ready for analysis.
3.2 Ethical Issues
The conventional ethical procedures for undertaking qualitative research were followed by filling an Ethical Approval Form at the Graduate School of Education, University of Exeter. The form was approved thereby giving me permission to start data collection. After that, permission was obtained from each of the parents interviewed prior to each interview. Each participant was assured of their right to withdraw from the study at any time and that all the information and transcriptions would be confidential, and their identities will be hidden (BERA, 2004).

3.3 Analysis and Findings
Data analysis of the gathered data revealed three main themes. Two of these themes were major while the third emerged from the data. The following Table 1. shows the themes used in the data analysis.

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<td>B. Belief that learning language is better while children are young</td>
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<td>C. Parents want children to be bilingual.</td>
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1. Emerging Theme

A. Children to have a perfect British accent

3.3.1 Reasons Saudi Parents Spoke Mostly English to the Children

3.3.1.1 To Help the Children Adapt in British Schools
The data revealed that seven out of 10 parents try to speak English to their children to help them adapt in the schools. For example, one parent said that his four-year-old daughter was reluctant to speak English at school when they first came to the United Kingdom:

“Only after her mother and I started speaking only English to her... and explaining how wonderful and beautiful it is that she started to like school and eventually stopped giving us a hard time going to school every day” (P3).

This belief was also shared by another parent, who started speaking English to her children before they even went to school in order to familiarize them with the language that is going to be used in school, so they do not get surprised or shocked when they join the nursery:

“It helps in making [the new language] familiar” (P7).
The same view of using English in order to help children cope in school, was shared by five other parents in this study indicating that the majority of participants in the study believe that speaking English to children will help them adapt to the British educational system. On the other hand, the remaining three parents believe that a child coping in school has nothing to do with what language their parents speak to them at home:

“It wouldn't really affect them... they're going to learn English in schools anyways” (P8).

Another parent supports this by saying that:

“They benefit from school more than they benefit from home... yes they are taking the ‘proper’ English from school, I don't add anything to their language knowledge at home expect for the odd vocabulary input from time to time” (P1).

In addition, one parent explains:

“I don’t think speaking to them in English will help them in school . . . this is the language they know and talk all day in school” (P8).

3.3.1.2 Learning language is better while children are young

Analysis of the data also revealed that parents speak to the children in English because they believe that learning English is better and more beneficial while their children are young. This was rather shared by all the parents in the study. For instance, one parent commented:

“Because children learn English while they are young, it will stick with them hopefully for all their life” (P3).

This was shared by another parent who stated that:

“They tend to learn it faster and easier ...and even to perfection” (P1).

Another mother stated that:

“Learning English is better when we are young... I have no doubt in that... this is from my personal experience... it doesn't have to be English it could be any other language like Turkish, French or any other language ... at this age would be easier for the child” (P7).

Although the literature mentions that it is a common misconception that parents believe that learning two languages at the same time might confuse the child (Baker, 2014), the data in this research clearly indicate that this misconception is not the case. This is because all of the 10 participants acknowledge that they are aware that children are capable of learning two languages at the same time and even more. Surprisingly, the same parents with the previous beliefs are the ones speaking only English to their children thereby providing them with access to only one language (English). This leads us to the second theme, which is that parents want their children to be bilingual.

3.3.1.3 Parents want their children to be bilingual.

The data revealed that all 10 parents wanted their children to be bilingual. One parent said:

“It would have been great if my children knew both languages equally” (P1).
He justifies this by stating that he wants his children to be able to communicate in their British school in addition to being able to communicate with their grandparents, which is currently not happening due to their lack of Arabic. Along the same line, another parent stated that:

“Ideally, I really would have loved it if my child was strong in both languages” (P9).

However, the data also revealed that most parents prioritized their children’s progress in school over their ability to speak their home language ‘Arabic’. One parent clearly indicated that:

“I think we are concentrating on our children’s education in school more than we are concentrating on preserving their mother tongue... they will eventually learn ‘Arabic’ however we want them to concentrate on English while we are in the United Kingdom” (P3).

Another parent also stated that their children’s progress in their British school comes first. This is because when they go back to Saudi Arabia:

“They will learn Arabic ultimately... whether they want it or not” (P6).

In the same vein, one parent also clarified that:

“I’m going to focus on the academic achievement here... our concentration would be on her progress in school more than whether she loses the Arabic language or not” (P4).

The remaining seven parents had more or less the same attitudes of prioritizing the children's progress in school over their ability to speak their mother tongue. So, to summarise, under the category ‘Reasons’, parents gave three explanations for their use of English with their children. These included the parents wanting to help their children adapt in British schools, wanting them to be bilingual, and their belief that learning language is better when children are young. This led to the formulation of Finding 1 below.

**FINDING 1:** Saudi parents chose to speak mostly English with their children because they wanted them to adapt in school, to be bilingual, and their belief that language learning is better when children are young.

After examining the reasons parents gave for their use of mostly English with their children, I wanted to explore the consequences of this choice on the children from the parents’ perspectives. It appears that there were two consequences, which are explored below.

3.3.2 Consequences of Saudi Parents Speaking Mostly/Only English to their Children

3.3.2.1 The Loss of the Home Language: Arabic

The data revealed that all parents in this study are having difficulty with their children’s Arabic. One parent stated that he has three daughters and has started having communication problems:

“The problem is that they don’t understand Arabic anymore” (P2).
Another parent declared that:

“Learning English came at the cost of Arabic, unfortunately” (P5).

More clarification was provided by a parent, who stated that his two children can barely speak Arabic and they cannot produce full sentences, but rather scattered words:

“Our speaking is not as bad as their reading and writing in Arabic” (P6).

Parents were slightly concerned about their children's identity. Losing Arabic is not about just losing the language because any language carries with it a sense of culture and identity. Six of the parents raised the concern about their children's identities in the interviews, while the remaining four did not raise this concern. The following extracts reveal the tone of concern from the parents about their children's identities. For example, one parent emphasized that:

“As a family, we would really like [our] children to be strong in both languages... in addition we don't want them to lose their identities” (P4).

Another parent also stated that his children losing the ability to speak and communicate in Arabic is really a sensitive issue:

“. . . especially for us as Muslim Arabs... it has to do with her identity... unfortunately there is a slight loss of this identity as we are Muslims and Arabs and should be proud of our language” (P4).

Also explaining that she was worried that her children could not read the Quran very well, one mother added:

“My children are Muslims...they should have memorized one chapter of the Quran by now” (P9).

So, to summarise, under the category ‘Consequences’, parents felt there were two consequences of their use of English with their children. These included the loss of their children’s home language and a concern for the children’s identity. This led to the formulation of Finding 2 below.

**FINDING 2:** Saudi parents’ choice to speak mostly English with their children resulted in the loss (or weakening) of their home language and a concern for their identity.

### 3.3.3 Emerging Theme
#### 3.3.3.1 Children to Have Perfect British Accents

A final theme, which emerged from the analysis of the data and which was not quite a reason nor a consequence, was the issue surrounding the children’s ‘accent’. The data analysis revealed the theme that this paper did not intend on uncovering. Nine parents out of 10 mentioned how proud they are of their children's native-like British accents. One of the parents stated that his children now have:

“. . . perfect British accents, which would definitely help them when they return back to Saudi Arabia as that English would be better than their peers in school” (P1).
Another parent stated that:

“My younger daughter is completely fluent in English; she is better than her sister... if you would listen to her accent you would see it is flawless” (p8).

On the same note, one parent stated that:

“When children learn a language, they usually take the accent perfectly” (P6).

He also added that many of his colleagues’ children who studied abroad came back to Saudi Arabia and their children had:

“. . . very good English with perfect American or British accents” (P6).

All of the previous extracts indicate how Saudi parents value that their children are not only getting the opportunity to learn English but also with the perfect native like accent, which led to the third and final Finding 3 below.

**FINDING 3:** Saudi parents applied emphasis on the issue of their children’s British accents and were openly proud of this.

4.0 Discussion of Findings

As demonstrated in the analysis and findings section of this paper, this study produced three findings; these will be discussed critically and in light of the relevant literature.

**FINDING 1:** Saudi parents chose to speak mostly English with their children because they wanted them to adapt in school, to be bilingual, and their belief that language learning is better when children are young.

Saudi parents in the UK using mostly English with their children so as not to confuse them is an idea that is contradicted in the literature since a child’s language development in school is not to be affected by the parents speaking another language at home. In fact, speaking the ‘host language’ to the children -in this case English- will feel unnatural for the child and the parents together. In other words, it will be as the L2 English is spoken artificially by the parents (Baker, 2014). This ‘settling down period’ is important for the children because by moving to the United Kingdom they had been facing a lot of change in their language, country, and home. This will definitely put a load of pressure on children psychologically (Barron-Hauwaert, 2004). Baker (2014) also argues that if the parents start to speak the host country’s language to the children, then level of conversation will differ. This means that parent-child conversation will decrease since the parents’ level of proficiency in the host language is not the same as their home language and this simple and artificial language with the children is very likely to affect the children’s ‘conceptual growth’. Moreover, the data revealed that the majority of parents in this study think that they are helping their children cope in schools by speaking English to them, however, what they might not be aware of is that this ‘artificial’ communication with their children might actually harm them rather than help them in adapting to their new school and environment. The fact remains that children do not need the parents to speak the ‘host language’ when they are home as they will have several sources for learning the ‘host language’ outside the home, such as schools, neighbourhood children, and playgrounds (Harding & Riley, 2003). However, in the context of this research since Saudi students do not intend on continuing to live in the United Kingdom and...
have to go back to Saudi Arabia after they finish their degrees along with their children, the level of importance allocated to ‘English’ should be equal to the level of importance allocated ‘Arabic’. The data in this study revealed that parents believe that learning English is better when their children are young however; they are neglecting that fact that learning the home language is also better when the children are young. It appears that parents are replacing their children's home language with the host country’s language.

Finally, participants appear to want their children to be good in school in addition to being bilingual as their quotes around bilingualism clearly indicate. However, I am arguing that they are not doing what needs to be done in order to ensure that their children become bilingual. Concentrating on English and speaking mostly the ‘host language’ will not contribute to bilingualism. Porter (2017) cautions that parents tend to fall in this trap of wanting their children to be bilingual, however, concentrating on only one language. The literature provides many solutions for this problem. Baker (2014) suggests two scenarios that lead to successful bilingual children. For example, in the first scenario parents are capable of speaking only Arabic to their children at home and leave the English to be used outside the house. Another suggestion is for one parent to speak English to the children and the other one only Arabic thereby providing the children enough exposure to both languages. Along with many other parents around the world, Saudi parents wanted their children to maintain their home language and at the same time acquire the host language.

**FINDING 2:** Saudi parents’ choice to speak mostly English with their children resulted in the loss (or weakening) of their home language and a concern for their identity.

With regards to the consequences of speaking only/mostly English to their children, all of the participants made it clear that they wanted their children to be bilingual as discussed in the previous section. However, it seems that what happened is during their stay in the UK they did not manage to add English to their children’s Arabic, but rather English replaced Arabic. Their ‘home language’ (Arabic) was marginalized and the ‘host language’ (English) took its place. McKay (2012) and Skutnabb-Kangas and May (2017) discuss this as they clarify that learning an international language like English should be ‘additive’ and not ‘subtractive’, which is happening to the Saudi children in this study. The literature presents us with examples where children lost their mother tongue or home language due to studying and extensive focus on the foreign language. Hansen-Strain (1990) conducted a study on four American children aged three, four, seven and nine, who studied Japanese for two years and six months while living in Japan and he found out that the younger the children are, the more likely they are to forget and lose their mother tongue. Another study was done by Merino (1983) on 41 bilingual children -from kindergarten up to fourth grade- in the US for the duration of two years in order to monitor the loss of their mother tongue Spanish. She found out that younger children suffered more mother tongue loss than their older peers did. Orellana (1994) also did a study on 5-6-year-old children studying in the United States with Spanish speaking parents. She found out that after three years, children shifted to speaking only English and were resistant to Speaking Spanish or very hesitant. They would only do so when the parents asked them or pressured them to speak their mother tongue. In addition to the loss of their mother tongue, parents voiced some concern over the children’s identity. In contrast to Beetz (2016) arguing that there is no “intrinsic link between language and
“identity”, the current data suggests that there is a strong relation between language and identity, this is also supported by Beetz (2016) and Meakins (2008).

FINDING 3: Saudi parents applied emphasis on the issue of their children’s British accents and were openly proud of this.

The third finding indicates that Saudi parents value the fact that their children are not only getting the opportunity to learn English, but also with the perfect native-like accent. This could be understood in the context of parents want what is best for their children. However, according to Smith (2015), English language teachers around the world seem to be moving away from native speakers forms, while the data in this research suggests that Saudi parents in this study are doing the opposite and heading towards valuing and admiring their children's native-like speakers’ forms and maintaining it during their stay in the United Kingdom. This paper argues that the previous reasons were factors in determining the level of English the Saudi parents living in the UK want for their children, it is embedded in the minds that having native-like accent would make their children have perfect English. The previous two reasons suggest that parents did not develop this accent obsession while living in the United Kingdom but already came with that from their own context and backgrounds in Saudi Arabia.

5.0 Limitations of the Study
From a methodological point of view, for example, the interviews might not have been the best research tool for asking about the parents’ language practises with their children as this could have been addressed better with actual observations of parent-child or child-child interaction, which did not take place due to the time limits of this research. Another limitation was doing telephone interviews due to geographical reasons as some of the participants were already back in Saudi Arabia after finishing their studies. In addition to that, the data was interpreted by only one researcher making the analysis of the data subjective, while having the data looked at by different, researchers would have given the analysis more robustness (Cohen et al., 2013).

6.0 Conclusion
This study set out to critically examine the linguistic practises of a particular group of Saudi parents who chose to use the host country's language instead of the mother tongue with their children. The nature of this study enabled the researcher to investigate how these parents marginalize their home language Arabic and replace it with English when communicating with their children during their temporary stay in the United Kingdom. Through the data obtained from interviews with those parents, the study revealed the reasons behind these practices and their consequences on the children. One of the major reasons the parents gave for their practice is their wish for their children to be bilingual. However, the literature maintains that there are many ways to have bilingual children, but it takes dedication and planning on both part of the parents to give the children the best bilingual environment (Wooden & Hurley, 1992). This environment should include books, stories, media from both the home language and the host language. The interviews themselves seem to have raised some awareness since the parents' responses also showed some concern regarding their children’s identity and loss of the Arabic language. Finally, involving the parents in this critical research is an initial step to introduce change in their linguistic practises.
with their children, however, this possibility of change needs to be transparent and transformative (Cornips, 2018).

7.0 Recommendations for Future Research
It would be truly beneficial to explore parallel studies with bilingual children with various L1 (e.g. Spanish, French, Japanese…etc). It would also be recommended to conduct research studies with mixed race parents and their bilingual (or even trilingual) children.

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Dr Mazin Mansory joined the English Language Institution (formerly the ELC) at King Abdulaziz University in 2008 after receiving his MA degree in English Language Teaching from Nottingham Trent University, UK. In the ELC, he contributed to the teaching and development of the General English and English for Science programmes. As part of his Doctorate thesis at Exeter University, completed in October 2016, he carried out research on teachers’ roles in English Language Assessment, which remains a focal point of his research interests. Mazin is now an Assistant Professor teaching in the MA in TESOL programme in addition to being the Head of Academic Students’ Affairs Unit at the ELI.

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Fossilized Use of Active and Passive Simple Present by Iraqi M.A. Students

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Abstract
Interlanguage fossilization is a crucial dilemma that foreign language learners may fall in. The problem of the present study is shown clearly in the answers of Iraqi students of Master of Arts in the College of Education for Women University of Baghdad. In spite of all the previous years of studying English language, some still have the problem of fossilized active and passive simple present tense. The present study aims at shedding light on the reasons behind the Iraqi students’ problem. An error analysis is applied to critically examine the students’ answers in their final course exam of two courses namely; pragmatics and discourse analysis. Depending on Selinker’s model (1972) of error analysis, students errors are all traced back to the language transfer of their native language. Among the results of analysis the researchers have arrived at a suitable solution for the current problem embodied by Sharwood’s Consciousness-Raising Approach (1981). It is recommended as a psycholinguistic model for defossilization. It is very suitable for mentally matured learners and help to solve the dilemma.

Keywords: active and passive simple present tense, Consciousness-Raising, interlanguage-fossilization, Iraqi M.A. students

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.2
1.0. Introduction

Being a university teacher or an M.A. degree holder in linguistics is a great job that makes a person stand as a model for all his university students to follow. That is why it is a dilemma to prepare university teachers that have fossilized minds in the linguistic system of interlanguage. In terms of the current paper, the selected a number of Iraqi M.A. students of linguistics have fossilized use of simple active and passive present tense. Spending many years of studying English language, its grammar and sentence structure has no positive impact on the student use of language now. That appears clearly in the error analysis of the collected data from the M.A. students’ answers of the final course exam of pragmatics and discourse analysis. The researchers diagnose the reason behind this fossilization that is traced back to the native language transfer and how they are still affected by the grammatical rules of their native language i.e. Arabic. A psychological model is recommended to solve the dilemma and defossilize the use of simple active and passive present tense.

1.1. What is Interlanguage

Crystal (2008) defines interlanguage as a type of language that is not similar to the learners’ native language nor to the foreign language they intends to study along the process of learning.

Corder (1981) says that interlanguage is the temporal change in grammatical rules that is made by the learner to approximate the grammar of the target language. He states the interlanguage of the second or foreign language should be developed continually and gradually until it becomes similar to the target language.

The transactional stage of learning a foreign language has its own grammatical system and rules created by the learners themselves in order to reach the target language proficiency. This stage is named interlanguage. The term is first discussed and brought foreword by Selinker at the Cambridge International Confyexence in 1969. Then the term became prominent in 1972 in Selinker’s paper “Inter-langu”. In this regard, Stern (1983) states that Selinker suggests the term of interlanguage refers to the fact that the ill-formed language produced by the learners in this period can be classified as an independent language variety that has its own rules and properties.

1.1.1. Inter-language Theory

This theory stems from two different views of second or foreign language acquisition:

1. The first view is based on the mentalist or psycholinguistic theory of language acquisition. Those who work within this view believe that learners have an inbuilt faculty of language acquisition that makes them acquire a foreign language in the same manner they acquire their native language. They depend on Chomesky’s Universal Grammar (1959) that people have inborn linguistic rules which find a middle ground for the ‘initial state’ and control the structure of any given language (as cited in Ellis, 1985, p. 43).

2. The second view is based on the behaviorist concept of foreign language acquisition that is affected and shaped by the interference of their environment and native language (Ellis, 1985). That is shown clearly in Selinker’s processes of language acquisition and language transfer.
1.1.2. Selinker’s Processes of Language Acquisition

Selinker (1972) proposes five major processes that shape the interlanguage behavior and lead to fossilized production of language. They are:

1. Language transfer,
2. Transfer of training,
3. Procedures of second language communication,
4. Procedures for second language learning,
5. Overgeneralisation of the target language linguistic material (p. 37).

1.1.2.1. Language Transfer

It has other names including first language interference, linguistic interference, cross linguistic influence. It is the case when knowledge is applied from one language to another by the speaker or the writer transferring all the linguistic features between languages (Weinreich, 1953). Selinker (1969) regards language transfer as a well-known phenomenon for all linguists causing a problem because the structural rules of the learners’ native language are moved to the foreign language they intend to study.

Lado on the other hand (1957) defines language transfer with emphasis on the transfer of the form, meaning and culture of the native language in the productive and receptive cases as in:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of the native language and culture to the foreign language and culture … both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the language and the culture as practiced by natives (as cited in Selinker & Gass, 1992, p. 234).

Odlin (1989) describes language transfer in terms of the positive and negative influences of one’s native language as is in “transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously acquired” (p. 27).

Odlin proposes two types of transfer depending on the similar and different properties between languages. They are “positive and negative transfer”. The positive one refers to the similarities between the native language and the foreign one that result in “positive transfer”. The similarities in semantics, phonetics, writing patterns, and syntax have the function of facilitating the process of acquisition and can save the time needed. An example of this case is the large range of similarities between French and English language. Learners with French as their first language are a head in acquiring English language system than Spanish. “Negative transfer” is caused by different characteristics between the native and the foreign language that lead to an inter-language that is deviated from the norms of the target language (Odlin, 1989).

1.1.2.2. Transfer of Training

Selinker (1972) states that errors in Interlanguage process can be traced back to the process of training. It is represented by the drills of English language school course. If these drills have some shortage or ill-formed structures, they will cause fossilization in the interlanguage performance and result in “transfer of training” (p. 37).
Unlike the language transfer that deals with the influence of native language in the interlanguage process of the foreign language, transfer of training is the result of the consequence of drills in textbooks as it is believed by Selinker. He exemplifies this process by the speakers of Serbo-Croat that have the problem of using only “he” and never using “she” in spite of having gender distinction in their first language. That is because of the drills in their textbooks. They always produce sentences with the use of pronoun “he” and never with the pronoun “she’ (Selinker, 1972).

This fact is also asserted by Richards (1972) who illustrates the phenomenon of training transfer with the situation when the learners receive errors from their only input represented by the teacher instructions and the drills in textbooks. Those errors become fossilized because of the training transfer.

1.1.2.3. Procedures of Learning foreign Language

Selinker (1972) states that the procedures of learning foreign language are found when the grammatical rules are displayed in interlanguage of an individual result from a distinguishable approach by the learner to the target language.

There are two basic procedures implied in the settlement of interlanguage rules including hypothesis formation. They are simplification and inferencing.

a) Simplification

Selinker defines simplification as one example of the procedures of foreign language learning. In this strategy learners try to make their task easier to learn and communicate in the foreign language. Such as when the Japanese attempt to omit articles or use plural forms as singular. They try to reduce the target language by omitting the small parts details and focus on the main linguistic elements.

Ellis (1985) indicates that simplification refers to the situation when the learners try to reduce the range of hypotheses formation in order to make the process of communication easier in the interlanguage period.

Thus, in simplification, learners try to facilitate their task of learning and communication in the target language. The learners’ reduction leads to some strategies such as omission, insertion, addition, substitution or mis-ordering of linguistic elements. That is why Selinker (1975) considers simplification as a super-ordinate strategy representing a step taken by the learners to solve their learning and communication problems.

The second or foreign language learners use a reduced language in order to simplify their task of learning but not to simplify the target language system. Caretakers of children and language teachers try to simplify the language system to communicate with children and language learners. That is called “linguistic simplification” (Mahmoud, 2014, p. 279).
b) Inferencing

Ellis (1985) points out that inferencing come when the second or foreign language learners form hypotheses by attending to the input. He mentions an example of Spanish learner who cannot obtain the rule of sentences with negative forms by simplification, so he attends the input of the target language and forms a suitable hypothesis.

1.1.2.4. Procedures of Learning and communication

Selinker (1974) states that learners of foreign language are usually influenced by their culture. That is why they vary in following certain strategies for the sake of communication. It is shown clearly in his words when he states:

little is known in psychology about what constitutes a strategy … even less is known about strategies which learners of language use in their attempt to master TL and express meanings in it… It has been pointed out that learner strategies are probably culture-bound to some extent (p. 39)

This can be revealed clearly in Selinker’s example of Japanese learners who tend to consult dictionaries or ask their colleagues rather than asking their teachers. They are afraid of making errors in front of others and tend to be shy (Selinker, 1974). So, learners often follow certain strategies so that they can communicate in the foreign language. But these strategies are affected by cultural factors that are different from one culture to another.

1.1.2.5. Over-generalization

It is the case when the learner uses previous knowledge and experience in the inter-language to have the characteristics that far away from the rules of the foreign language. That is shown clearly through the definition of Jacobvits (1969) that is when the learners over-generalize what they have already learned in the foreign language and use it in new situations. Sometime, it could be helpful but most of the time cannot be applied and lead to mistakes.

For example inter-language features can be seen in “she can plays” the third person singular “-s” because of the pronoun “she”, the learner here overgeneralizes the rule of adding “-s” to the verbs that concord with the pronouns “he, she and it”. But the learner here doesn’t recognize the necessity of putting the verb in its base form because of the model “can”.

Over-generalization, as one of the inter-language processes, is linked to the simplification strategy in which learners also try to reduce the linguistic elements by omission. This is revealed clearly in the sentence “she like sushi” the learner here omits the third person singular “-s” in the verb “like” to simplify the process of learning for himself/herself.

1.3. Inter-language Fossilization:

The term fossilization is borrowed from paleontology that conjures up the image of dinosaurs that no more alive. They become hardened ruins enclosed in sediment like rocks. This metaphoric expression is used in foreign language acquisition to refer to the earlier language forms that are enclosed in the learners’ inter-language. This language cannot be changed or developed like rocks even with awareness and practice of the foreign language. The learners’ mind is fossilized to use...
the wrong form of inter-language that is not similar to the foreign language or to their mother tongue.

Selinker (1972) postulates that fossilization is a linguistic phenomenon... and

Fossilizable linguistic phenomena are linguistic items, rules and subsystems which speakers of a particular native language will tend to keep in their inter-language relative to a particular target language, no matter what the age of the learner or amount of explanation or instruction he receives in the target language (p. 41).

Selinker assumes that the fossilized linguistic items, rules etc. from the learners’ native language are stored in their brain by a fossilization system throughout one of Selinker five processes. He states that there is an interlingual unit exists in the learners’ minds. When learners want to produce any target language this unit will be available. It has three linguistic systems; namely: “native language”, “inter-language” and “target language”. So when the learner wants to produce any target language and fails then he immediately goes back to use his inter-language unit and creates it.

Thus, Selinker states that the mechanism of fossilization is found in the interlingual unit of the learners’ brain no matter how much the instruction is given or the age of the learner. Selinker then says that not only the errors can be fossilized but also the correct forms of the target language can be fossilized. This point is also emphasized by Ellis (1985) who states that fossilization can be recognized as errors or correct forms in the target language. If a learner has a certain feature in his/her interlanguage which has a similar form in the target language then it proves the fossilization of the correct form. On the other hand, if a learner has a certain feature in his/her interlanguage which has no similar form in the target language, then it will lead to fossilized error.

1.4. Reasons of Fossilization

In order to find suitable remedies and overcome the dilemma of interlanguage fossilization, we need to diagnose the reasons stand behind it. There are two types of reasons; the first one concerns the leaner and it is called “internal reasons” and the second concerning the “external reasons”:

1.4.1. Internal Reasons

Selinker neglects three important points as factors in the process of interlanguage fossilization. These points stand as the possible reasons behind fossilization. The first reason is the age. Depending on the contemporary universal grammar, Chomsky (1959) argued that children’s brain is ready to acquire new language by their innate ability that is gradually lost by the age progress when they become matured (as cited in Ellis, 1985, p. 44). Researchers have revealed that the critical period for human language acquisition is the age from 12 to 15. Interlanguage fossilization rarely occurs before this age and that is why learning a target language is easier before that critical period of age (12-15). Thus, interlanguage fossilization can occur clearly after that period showing the inability to acquire new language characteristics and structures (Yang, 2015).

The second reason is related to the purpose of learning a foreign language which is classified into a comprehensive purpose and an instrumental purpose. A comprehensive purpose is when the
learner intends to acquire the target language for the purpose of communication accepting the cultural and historical background of that language. On the other hand, the instrumental purpose is that when a learner studies the target language in order to pass the examination. It is short-way learning because learners care about passing the exam only and don’t care about the use of that language in the future (Yang, 2015).

The third reason behind fossilization is related to the mentality of a foreign language learner. The changes in the students’ minds affect the process of learning. Therefore, some students start to learn a foreign language with a strong interest and when they reach a certain level they will feel anxious and lose their interest and motivation to learn more. At this moment, fossilization clearly appears (Yang, 2015).

1.4.2. External Reasons

The external reasons behind fossilization are reflected by sociolinguistics. The first reason can be represented by the influence of the target language culture and the learners’ chance of communication. Brown (1980) focuses on “acculturation” in order to explain fossilization. It is the state of being part of a new culture. Thus, when an adult cannot cope with the target language community and adapt their culture, then s/he will not be able to communicate with them using their mother tongue. In this case, learning will be fossilized. The second sociolinguistic reason of fossilization is the influence of communicative feedback on the foreign language learner. Learners in interlanguage communicate with the external world with a high possibility of making mistakes. These mistakes, do not affect the process of sending and receiving the understood messages in interlanguage. But if the communicators do not provide suitable feedbacks to correct these mistakes the interlanguage fossilization will occur (Yang, 2015).

1.5. The Method

The present study focuses on the fossilized minds of some English language learners who cannot master the target language in spite of spending years of studying and training to acquire English as a foreign language. In order to answer the question presented in the current study why Iraqi M.A. students of linguistics cannot produce well formed active and passive simple present, an error analysis is carried out on Iraqi M.A. students of English linguistics. Their written answers in the examination of two different courses are the data for this study in order to identify the ill-formed and ungrammatical production of language that is fossilized through the interlanguage period in which they study hard for years to acquire English as a foreign language.

The research participants are six Iraqi students of master degree of linguistics in the College of Education for Women/ University of Baghdad. Their native language is Arabic. They have studied English as a foreign language for ten years including three years in intermediate school, three years in the secondary school plus four years in the college to get a B.A. degree in English language.

The data are elicited through the students’ answers in the course exam of two subjects namely; pragmatics and discourse analysis. Their written answers constitute the subject of error analysis to shed light on their interlanguage production of English language. There have been 60 ill-formed sentences that denote the fossilized use of simple present tense in its active and passive forms. It is hypothesized that if those students match between their implicit and explicit knowledge
accompanied with a continuous practice they will acquire any foreign language and be fluent. That is why a psycholinguistic model is recommended to perform this solution.

1.6. The Scheme of Analysis
The researchers analyze the collected data by making error analysis for the production of the students’ interlanguage following three procedures:
1. Identifying the students’ errors in the use of the active and passive simple present tense
2. Drawing the patterns, the students use to represent active and passive present events.
3. Discussing and explaining the data to draw a conclusion.

1.7. Analysis of the Data
1.7.1. The students’ fossilized use of the verb tense to denote active present event
Producing a sentence in a simple present tense is done when it describes factual or habitual events. The present tense uses the basic form of the verb like (write, work) with a singular subject and uses the basic form with –s ending with the third person singular subjects like (he works, she works and it works). The present tense refers to actions that occur in the present but that are not necessarily exist right now: "It rains a lot in Portland" is a kind of timeless statement while the present continuous is something like "It is raining in Portland" which means that something is going on right now. Similarly, "I use my bike to get around town", is in the present, but “I'm not actually on my bike right now”. Moreover, the present tense is also used to describe events that are scheduled (by nature or by people): "High tide is at 3:15 p.m. The Super Bowl starts at 6:15 p.m."(Quirk & Greenbaum, 1973, pp. 40-1).

The students have studied the above rules of using the simple present tense along their years of studying English but they are still in their interlanguage stage. They cannot move to master the foreign language. Thus, based on the analysis of the collected data, the students have made three fossilized patterns to denote the simple present tense:

1. [singular subject + base verb + object]
For example:
- “This study increase the learners’ interest.”
- “How the speaker use language.”
- “The husband promise his wife that he will be faithful next week.”

The students here omit the –s ending for the verb of the sentence. The omission of –s ending is not for simplification but it goes back to the language transfer. The mother tongue of the students has no such rule in its present form. So they are still influenced by their native language. The first example is said in Arabic like this "تزيد هذه الدراسة من أهتمام المتعلمين" This is the only present form for the verb “increase” or "تزيد" in Arabic. It has no addition of –s ending with the verb and no progressive form for the present continuous tense.

2. [plural subject + verb+s +object]
For example:
- “Moves consists of acts.”
- “The linguists points out that the residents in the Narwiagion village … have two languages.”

The students here add –s ending to the main verb to denote simple present tense but with a plural subject. The addition of the third person singular (–s) is traced back to the over-generalization. The students try to over-generalize the previously learned rule of adding –s ending to the main verb of the sentence with a singular subject to indicate a simple present tense. In this case, they add –s ending to the verbs that have plural subject to produce ill-formed simple present tense.

3. [subject + be + verb-ing + object]
For example;
- “Critical discourse analysis is exploring the connection between the use of language and social and political contexts.”

The students here use the progressive present to denote a simple present tense. This error is traced back to the transfer of language reason of fossilized interlanguage. Students are still influenced by their native Arabic language because there is no present continuous; there are only present and past in Arabic language and that is why they cannot master the situation in which they have to use the present continuous or simple present. As long as the simple present tense is used to describe factual events, it is the most suitable tense for describing and defining Critical discourse analysis as one branch of linguistics.

To sum up, the students’ fossilized interlanguage patterns with some examples from the collected data are shown in table 1 to make it clear:

Table 1. A comparison between native, interlanguage and target language patterns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Native Language Patterns in Arabic</th>
<th>Fossilized Interlanguage Patterns</th>
<th>Target Language Patterns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 [Subject+verb+object]</td>
<td>[Sing. Subject+verb+Object]</td>
<td>[Subject+(verb+s)+Object]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>تزيد هذه الدراسة من أهتمام المتعلموون</td>
<td>“This study increase the learners’ interest”</td>
<td>“This study increases the learners’ interest”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 [Subject+verb+object]</td>
<td>[Plural subject + verb+s +object]</td>
<td>[Subject+(verb+s)+Object]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يشير اللغوييون الى</td>
<td>“The linguists points out that the residents in the Narwiagion village … have two languages.”</td>
<td>“The linguists point out that the residents in the Narwiagion village … have two languages.”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 [Subject+verb+object]</td>
<td>[Subject +verb (be)+(verb-ing)+Object]</td>
<td>[Subject+(verb+s)+Object]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>يعرض تحليل النص النقدي الصلة بين اللغة والسياسة وألجتماع والنص</td>
<td>“Critical discourse analysis is exploring the connection between the use of language and social and political contexts.”</td>
<td>“Critical discourse analysis explores the connection between the use of language and social and political contexts.”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.7.2. The Students’ fossilized use of the verb tense to denote the passive present event

The passive present tense is also used by students to denote that something happened by an unknown subject. A passive verb tense refers to the time of the action. First of all, it is important to differentiate between the passive verb tense and the passive voice. We need a passive verb tense when we write in the passive voice. In this case, tense refers to the time of the action whereas the voice refers to the verbs function with the absence of the subject. Thus, we cannot write in the passive voice without using the passive verb tense.

The structure of the passive verb tense is created by using the past participle form of the verb that should be preceded by verb “be”. The past participle is structured by adding –ed or –en to the main verb. It depends on the regular and irregular form of the verb. The object of the verb comes in the position of the subject to receive the action of that verb.

The M.A. students have studied the rules of the passive simple present along all the previous years of study. Some use different fossilized patterns to denote passive simple present as follows:

1. [Object+ verb (base) + by + Subject]
   Example:  
   - “How the spoken or written discourse affect by social or cultural factors”.
   The students here do not use a verb “to be” followed by a past participle form of the verb to create the passive simple present. They are not familiar with the use of verb “be” because they do not have such a type of verbs in their native language. This fossilized misuse of verb “be” is traced back to the language transfer stage of interlanguage. Students are still influenced by the rules of their Arabic native language. The passive simple present of the above example in Arabic is as follows:
   "تتأثر ال
   تفاعلات الاجتماعية والحضارية
   للنصوص المكتوبة والملفوفة بالعوامل ا
   "
   In Arabic the form of the main verb is only changed from its active "تشوهر" in its passive form "تشهر" without adding any more verbs or articles. Students omit the –ed or –en ending of the past participle form of the main verb in order to simplify the structure of the passive simple present.

2. [Object + verb “do” + past participle]
   Example:  
   - “Stylistics does not concerned only with syntax of text but it concerns with the context by itself”
   In the above pattern, students use verb “do” instead of verb “be” in order to achieve the passive simple present. This fossilized error is also traced back to language transfer; the fact that in the Arabic language they have no such a use of verb “be” they just change the form of the main verb in order to create the passive form.

3. [Object + past participle]
   Example:  
   - “adjacency pairs considered as basic unit in conversation.”
In pattern 3, students omit verb “be” form in the passive simple present. This error is also traced back to the language transfer that affects the students’ interlanguage. Because students have no such a type of verbs, they omit its use in order to simplify the passive structure.

4. [Object + verb + (-s)]

Example:
- “Critical discourse analysis reveals the hidden meaning that implies between lines of the text.”

The students in pattern 4 are not aware of the necessity of using passive simple present. The demonstrative “that” refers to the noun “meaning” that should be “that is implied” instead of “implies”. This example shows how students are really confused between the use of simple present and its passive form signified by preceding the main verb by verb “be”. Table 2 summarizes the students’ use of passive as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Native Language Patterns in Arabic</th>
<th>Fossilized Patterns</th>
<th>Interlanguage Patterns</th>
<th>Target Language Patterns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 [main verb in passive form + Object] Example: نتأثر النصوص المكتوبة والمؤلفة بالعوامل الاجتماعية والحضارية.</td>
<td>[Object + verb (base) + by + Subject] Example: “How the spoken or written discourse affect by social or cultural factors”</td>
<td>[Object + verb “be” + past participle] Example: “how the spoken or written discourse is affected by social and cultural factors”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 [main verb in passive form + Object]التعليمي لم أهلية العناصر والنص المتعلق بالأفكار والمفاهيم.</td>
<td>[Object + verb “do” + past participle] Example: “Stylistics does not concerned only with syntax of text but it concerns the context by itself”</td>
<td>[Object + verb “be” + past participle] “Stylistics is concerned only with syntax of text but it concerns the context by itself”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 [main verb in passive form + Object] تعبير أزواج الإجابة توجّه غير ذاتي في اللغة العربية.</td>
<td>[Object + past participle] Example: “adjacency pairs considered as basic unit in conversation.”</td>
<td>[Object + verb “be” + past participle] “adjacency pairs are considered as basic unit in conversation.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 [main verb in passive form + Object] نتفاوت تحليل النص النقدي المعنى المخفى متضمن بين سطور النص.</td>
<td>[Object + verb + (-s)] Example: “Critical discourse analysis reveals the hidden meaning that implies between lines of the text.”</td>
<td>[Object + verb “be” + past participle] “Critical discourse analysis reveals the hidden meaning that is implied between lines of the text.”</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.8. Remedies for Fossilization

There are two types of remedies; the sociolinguistic and psycholinguistic remedies. The sociolinguistic solution is related to the external sociolinguistic reasons of fossilization. This solution is represented by the communicative approach to teach English as a foreign language.

Following Lightbown and Spada (1999), the communicative approach depends on the real practice of the target language in actual situations. The main purpose of this approach is to send and receive the meaningful message that is understood by the sender and the receiver. The only weak point that leads to fossilization in this approach is its lack of sufficient feedback i.e. correction of errors and explicit instruction. This will pave the way for fossilization of the uncorrected errors to occur.

Learners of a foreign language are always in need of explicit instructions and continual correction of instant errors in order to acquire the target language. Iraqi M.A. students of linguistics cannot overcome their problem of fossilization by the aid of the communicative approach because they have no chance to communicate in English outside their classrooms. The target language does not have enough time and practice to be transformed into their competence and in this stage fossilization occurs. Learners of a foreign language need the explicit instructions that with practice will be transformed into the competence of the learners’ mind and finally the acquisition of the target language will happen.

In order to match the learners’ needs to acquire a language, Sharwood-Smith’s consciousness-raising approach (1981) is the perfect way to reach the de-fossilization. This approach depends on the psycholinguistic aspect of the learning process. It is defined as the interaction between the explicit and implicit knowledge about the target language in order to reach the acquisition. What is meant by explicit knowledge is “a conscious analytic awareness of the formal properties of the target language” and the implicit knowledge is “the intuitive feeling of what is correct and acceptable” (p. 159).

The explicit knowledge is represented by giving the learners information about the target language structure like rules and lists of words meaning. This property is very similar to the grammar-translation method of teaching language in which the learners have to receive rules and list of words meanings to acquire the foreign language (Sharwood, 1981). Reaching the acquisition of a language cannot be achieved by merely giving the learners that explicit knowledge. This knowledge should be accompanied with practice that what is found in the direct method that matches the conscious raising approach in some properties. Students have to use their competence to perform a life-like communication in the foreign language. There is no use of the native language inside the classroom. They use long complicated phrases in order to explain the structure of the target language. Thus, learners of a foreign language have to add the explicit knowledge they receive to their competence accumulated by the previous experiences of learning and by practice and with time this knowledge will be transformed into the implicit knowledge that is fixed in mind to achieve language acquisition and leave no space for fossilization. That is why the conscious raising approach is very suitable for mentally matured learners because they have previous competence and experience that will increase their interest to get more and more explanation about the target language. They have the sufficient awareness of the structure of the target language. In
order to apply this approach on our students as the paper unit of analysis, the following model is going to be the solution to overcome fossilization:

![Consciousness-raising model of de-fossilization](image)

**Figure 1** Consciousness-raising model of de-fossilization

This model will be very beneficial for our unit of analysis represented by the Iraqi M.A. students of linguistics because it summarizes all the three aforementioned schools of teaching methods and integrate their properties in one approach. It matches our students needs because they are mentally matured enough to receive the explicit knowledge related to the rules of active and passive simple present tense and add it to their implicit knowledge that is stored in their competence. They spend long time in receiving those rules throughout their previous years of study. Following the stages of development shown in the model the students have to match between what they previously know about the structure and the suitable situations of active and passive simple presents and what they always receive as more supporting information and explicit knowledge about the same tenses and reinforce them with more and more practice inside and outside the classroom. In this case, after a suitable period of time the active and passive simple present will be transformed into their implicit knowledge. They will overcome their fossilized errors and put the present tense in its well formed shape and de-fossilize it. Finally they can write and speak English language specifically the simple present tense in its active and passive form inside and outside the classroom very well. As a result of more and more practice they will have fluency in using the target language.

**Conclusion**

The occurrence of fossilization in the use of active and passive simple present tense is a serious problem for English language learners. But it is a crucial dilemma for Iraqi M.A. students of
linguistics, College of Education for Women, University of Baghdad because they are future university students and mentally matured but their minds get fossilized when learning the basic structures of a foreign language.

In terms of the error analysis, the main reason behind fossilization is traced back to the lack of communication outside the classroom and the influence of their native language namely language transfer. Iraqi students are unfamiliar with adding third person singular (–s) to the main verb in the active simple present tense and unable to use verb to be in the passive form of the simple present tense. So in spite of all the previous years of studying English language they get fossilized minds and stand helpless to correctly use the two forms of simple present tense.

De-fossilizing the aforementioned use of the two forms of present tense needs a psycholinguistic approach represented by Sharwood Smith (1981) “Consciousness-Raising” that suits learners who are mentally matured and have competence of stored information about language. A psycholinguistic model has been developed to help learners match between implicit and explicit information supported by practice and communication in order to reach the production of a well-formed language. Following this model, students can overcome fossilization by raising their awareness of a foreign language.

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References
The Influence of Locality, Training and Teaching Experience on the Approaches to Teaching Literature

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Abstract
Teaching and learning literature could be a daunting task for both instructors and learners. It requires teachers to employ suitable approaches and methodologies to ensure the effectiveness of the lesson. This serves as the main purpose of this study which is to discover the approaches employed by literature teachers. In addition, three significant dimensions will also be scrutinised which are locality, literature training and teaching experience. Utilizing questionnaire as the research instrument, this study involved 271 teachers as the respondents. Comparisons pertaining to the approaches employed based on locality, training and teaching experience were shown in the findings. To note, the majority of the respondents were found to be in favor of using simple terminologies as the most preferred approach. Meanwhile, the least favored approach was eliciting information from students. In addition, out of the three main variables, only teaching experience was found to show no significant difference. To summarise, locality, training and teaching experience may have significantly impacted teachers in selecting the approaches to be employed in a literature lesson. This may also assist in ensuring that the teaching and learning of literature reach its visions.

Keywords: English literature, approaches to teaching literature, literature training, locality, teaching experience

Cite as: Suliman, A., Yunus, M. M., & Nor, M. Y. M. (2019). The Influence of Locality, Training and Teaching Experience on the Approaches to Teaching Literature. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 31- 46.
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.3
Introduction

In the English language subject, literature is an inevitable element embedded in its curriculum. It is regarded to be a form of art, combining the expression of meaning and linguistic repertoire. Chen (2012) asserts that literature enhances and nurtures the cultural knowledge of an individual as the inter-relation between language, culture and literature is prevalent and significant. Furthermore, it transforms a contextual form into abstract imagination by means of wonderful poetic devices. Similarly, Carter and Long (1991) believe that due to its importance in language learning, literature aids in developing students’ cultural knowledge. Holding to these two premises, the association between language and literature is crucial as they complement each other in the learning process.

It is interesting to note that a number of countries in which English is not their official language have integrated the teaching of English literature in their schools. Novianti (2016) affirms that English literature study in Indonesia is highly inseparable from English language studies, and it does not differ much from other countries, where English is a foreign language. Chen (2012) points out that there is a reform and opening-up in promoting the teaching of literature besides learning English in China though it is less promising in the country. On top of that, Njagi, Muriungi & Peter (2014); Okwara, Shiundu & Indoshi (2009) affirm that English teaching as well as Literature teaching in Kenya are taught simultaneously via an integrated approach, implying that Literature would be the means of teaching English and vice versa. Other countries executing similar discipline include Turkey (Saka, 2014), Bangladesh (Farjana, 2016) and Romania (Padurean, 2015).

The wave is also indisputable in Malaysia. English literature has been made a compulsory component in the teaching of English syllabus since 2000. The literature component which is perceived as a means to elevate the proficiency level among Malaysian students encompasses various genres such as poem, short stories, drama and novel (Yusof, Lazim & Salehuddin, 2017; Suliman & Yunus, 2014). Two primary objectives demonstrated via the teaching of the component are engaging learners with enjoyable literary texts suitable to their language proficiency and enhancing creativity in being expressive. Muthusamy et al. (2017) state that the teaching and learning of literature in Malaysia is fast becoming a recognized force in acquiring language proficiency. Learning literature indirectly assists in developing English language mastery. Learners will be introduced to new words and poetic devices which are rarely uttered in daily conversations besides being able to explore different settings portrayed in the literary texts. These are some of the beautiful elements gained by learning literature.

Teaching literature might be easy as it is associated with language teaching as asserted by Chalikendy (2015) and Violetta-Irene (2015). However, this view is opposed by Novianti (2016) who claims that teaching canonical texts poses many challenges and needs to be undertaken well. On top of that, literature teaching would still pose a big challenge to schools as faced by teachers and students (Ortells, 2013; Tuncer & Kizildag, 2014). Even though literature is associated with language learning, there will be difficulties if suitable approaches and methodologies are not employed. This requires teachers to arm themselves with the skills needed to teach literature. The methodologies and approaches might differ from what is practiced in the language lessons because as claimed by Padurean (2015), English Literature should be approached differently since the
language used is too complicated. Hence, teaching approaches, methods and strategies employed in teaching literature should be suitable, varied, innovative and effective to maximize the teaching process (Chen, 2012; Yunus & Suliman, 2014; Hussein & Al-Emami, 2016; Muthusamy et al., 2017).

Teaching and learning foreign literature could be a daunting task for both the instructors and learners (Hussein & Al-Emami, 2016). This affirms that literature teaching and learning requires a distinguishable method for it to be mastered. Though it may be similar to language teaching and learning, the pedagogical and methodological aspects vary. As the use of literal meanings is common in literature, it may require special assistance from teachers to assist students’ understanding. As revealed by Yunus and Suliman (2014), teachers lack ideas in making a literature lesson meaningful, and this is supported by Muthusamy et al. (2017) whose study showed that most teachers claimed that teaching literature is the most difficult thing to do. On the contrary, students might face difficulties to fathom a literary text as a result of limited language mastery as affirmed by Novianti (2016) and Sunardi et al. (2018), that limited language proficiency impedes students in understanding literary texts especially classical ones. In detail, the most common problem is the teachers’ uneasiness to cope with a wide range of genres (poetry, novel, short stories, and drama) besides the absence of training in literature and the issue of literary jargon mastery (Berrarbi & Bahous, 2018).

This leads to the foundation of this study. Locality, training and teaching experience are imperative in influencing teachers’ approaches to teaching literature. This study intends to answer the following research questions:

a. What is the comparison in the teaching approaches employed based on locality, training and teaching experience?

b. What is the relationship between locality and teaching approaches employed?

c. What is the relationship between training and teaching approaches employed?

d. What is the relationship between teaching experience and teaching approaches employed?

**Literature Review**

Moody as cited in Hwang and Embi (2007) explains that the relevance of an approach is “to provide a framework, a sequence of operations to be used when we come to actualities”. The right approach will aid teachers’ teaching which in return leads to students’ better understanding. There is a link between approaches and types of activities conducted in literature lesson. Whenever a teacher uses a suitable approach, it may affect students’ interest in and comprehension of the lesson. Especially in the context of second language, literature should be taught using a different pedagogical approach for non-native speakers (Padurean, 2015). Therefore, it matters for the teachers to select the appropriate approaches in literature lesson. The four literature teaching approaches are as follows:

**Information-based Approach**

This approach relies heavily on teachers’ giving students the input related to the lesson. According to Carter, as cited in Hwang and Embi (2007), this approach is seen to offer a source of information to the students and a means of imparting knowledge on literature. The teachers are required to provide students the needed input for them to engage in the lesson. Carter and Long (1991) also believe that the approach involves critical concepts, literary conventions, and meta-language which
entitle students to make use of the terms and concepts during their discussion of a literary topic. The input may vary in terms of historical, cultural, political and social aspects apart from the historical background of the text. This highlights the role of the teacher in providing input to the students. Lecturing, reading notes, giving critiques and explaining are among the activities listed under this approach.

**Language-based Approach**
This approach reiterates what Carter and Long (1991) describe as the Language Model. This approach entitles students’ language proficiency and competency to be developed. It exposes students to the language and teachers will then need to introduce the language elements involved. This is seen to be a two-pronged approach in which literary texts cater language activities besides functioning as a source of knowledge and information. Too as cited in Rashid, Vethamani and Rahman (2010), asserts that, with the use of language-based approach, the focus shifted to the learner, the reading process and creating language awareness in the learners. This approach exposes learners to various kinds of language elements such as lexis, syntax, phonology, semantics and graphology. Poetry recital, debate, role play, prediction, ranking tasks and forum are among the suggested activities in this approach since it is more students-centred.

**Personal-response Approach**
As opposed to information-based approach, this approach emphasises students’ roles in learning literature. Hwang and Embi (2007) assert that this approach emphasises on students giving responses about a text. Moreover, as students will have to respond to the issues discussed in the text, their personal development will indirectly be enhanced. The reason is to motivate and encourage students to read by making a connection between the themes of a text and his or her personal life and experiences (Talif, 1995). Students’ responses are perceived to be personal as it deals with the affective aspect. For this approach, brainstorming, group discussion, writing students’ reactions, question-discussion and journal writing are among the suggested activities.

**Paraphrastic Approach**
According to Hwang and Embi (2007), this approach deals with the surface of the text. It refers to paraphrasing or re-telling the text in a simpler version. The purpose of this approach is to ease students’ understanding apart from translating it into another language. Talif (1995) argues that this approach assists beginners as it aids in formulating an initial idea of a text. In the context of Malaysian classrooms, some foreign literary texts may halt students’ understanding as the language used is slightly different from what is commonly uttered. This requires paraphrastic approach to be applied. Hence, the suggested activities are retelling the text in a simpler language, translating using the mother tongue and reading the paraphrased version of the text.

**Studies on Literature Approaches**
In Romania, Padurean (2015) finds that literature teachers employed less student-centered learning and note-taking was the only student activity. In fact, 43% of the respondents claimed that they were never asked opinion on the text learnt. Farjana (2016) discovers a reliance on teachers and a preference for simplified versions of literary texts. In Malaysia, Hwang and Embi (2007) disclose that the paraphrastic approach was a popular approach to teaching literature among the teachers in their study. However, Rashid, Vethamani, and Rahman (2010) reveal that the information-based
approach was the most popular approach in eighteen secondary schools in Kelantan. Due to students’ incompetency of the language, teachers had to resort to spoon-feeding the students in literature lessons.

Sidhu, Chan, and Kaur (2010) inform that teachers spent a lot of time on individual comprehension work, had lesser literary elements integration and lacked creativity in managing learning activities. In addition, Suliman and Yunus (2014) explain that their respondents preferred to use simpler terms in giving explanation as well as probing questions in the teaching process. Yunus and Suliman (2014) as well as Muthusamy et al. (2017) come to disclose that different preferred techniques and approaches in teaching literature such as note-copying, presentation, class discussions and autonomous learning. All these studies have demonstrated that different settings may opt for different approaches in teaching literature.

Locality Factor

The learning of English language in the rural area can be seen challenging because the students might have limited exposure to the target language. The integration of literature serves as a challenge especially to students with low English proficiency, even though it is a promising move in language and literature learning for Malaysian students (MELTA, 2012). Therefore, they face difficulties in learning English language in schools. Suliman and Yunus (2014) argue that the teaching and learning process may be affected by the surrounding the teacher is in. Yang (2014) claims that most rural teachers are young and have just graduated from schools. They might lack working experiences and might be novice in the teaching field. As opposed to schools in the rural area, urban schools recruit more highly qualified teachers and provide greater curricular variety and educational resources (Khattri et al. cited in Freeman & Anderson, 2005). Mahmud and Bray (2017) ascertain that since the costs of living are higher in urban than rural areas, the pressures on urban teachers may be higher and the teachers in turn exert pressures on their students. Furthermore, the quality of teachers is often lower in rural than urban areas because better qualified personnel prefer to live in cities.

In relation to the quality of rural area teachers, Lin (2011) argues that many rural teachers were found to be working in a more mechanical way than allocating time in preparing a lesson using various techniques. This may be due to the lack of facilities in rural schools, leaving teachers to employ more traditional methods in the lesson. This requires critical improvement to better the situation. U.S. Department of Education as cited in Hudson and Hudson (2008) states that rural and remote schools teachers may be isolated, requiring them to be supported, monitored and mentored. This highlights the positive sides of the rural area to the novices by focusing on the pre-service teachers level. This also describes the worrying situation occurring in rural schools which needs to be upgraded and improved.

Trained versus Non-trained

In the teaching of literature, it is deemed crucial for the teachers to equip themselves with proper training so they will be better prepared in teaching. The training encompasses both content knowledge and methodologies in making a lesson meaningful. It was also discovered earlier by Subramaniam, Hamdan and Koo (2003) that only 42% from the 500 respondents assured that they had sufficient methodological skills in teaching literature. Having said that, Yunus and Suliman
(2014) affirm that most respondents in their study relied heavily in getting students to copy notes from resource books. This indicates that teachers lack methodological and pedagogical skills that can be maximised in a literature lesson. Perhaps, this is caused by a lack of training that the teachers are in dire need of. Trainings are not only restricted to those obtained during student teachers’ study years. In fact, on-going and continuous trainings are essential as they would be the avenue to disseminate more updated and current skills in teaching literature.

On another note, on-going training may develop the quality of teachers especially for those who are non-option English Language teachers. According to Goh and Kwong, as cited in Bipinchandra, Shah and Aziz (2014), sustained language training programmes are essential to improve the quality of non-option English language teachers. Indubitably, the courses and trainings will enable teachers to arm themselves and refresh their existing knowledge related to literature. Literature requires different ways of teaching, unlike any language lesson. Teachers need to vary their strategies to ensure students are engaged with the lesson. With proper training, teachers may be better in managing the lessons as well as arousing students’ interest in literature lesson. Classroom practices are influenced by the interaction between teachers’ beliefs and several dimensions such as schooling, professional training and contextual factor (Shah, Othman & Senom, 2017). Hence, getting involved in trainings and courses related to literature is highly recommended to exude a more positive learning environment.

**Experienced versus Novice Teachers**

It is imperative to get to the literal meaning of experienced and novice teachers. As defined by Hsu (2009), novice teachers are those who are still undergoing training, have just completed training, or have just commenced teaching and still have very little experience behind them. On the other hand, Gatbonton (2008) defines experienced teachers as those with many years of teaching experience behind them, at least four to five years. It can be deduced that novice teachers are new in the teaching field whereas experienced ones would have at least gained a few years of experience in the teaching industry. Novice may also infer to the ones still searching for the solid ground in teaching while at the same seeking assistance from experienced teachers. Abbas and Nilooifar (2012) further define qualified teachers as those using their experience as the foundation in the strategies employed besides planning both long-term and short-term plans as opposed to the novices. Novice teachers were also found to see a class as a whole as compared to the experienced who perceived a class as comprising of unique individuals. However, Abbas and Nilooifar (2012) mention that both teachers view the effect of motivation on their efficacy indifferently.

Meyer (2003) makes a comparison between experienced and novice teachers. He believes that the novices lack experiences to organise their thinking into useful constructs for making predictions about future events. On the opposite, the experienced teachers have well-developed knowledge bases and organizations that are responsive to multiple external and internal cues and are highly linked allowing for flexible patterns of organization and problem solving. He even adds that, through the strategies employed, novice teachers reinforce their conceptions of prior knowledge and its importance in learning to find out their students’ prior knowledge. This opposes the practices of the experienced teachers because experienced teachers act intentionally when they assess their students’ prior knowledge. In another view, Hattie (2003) claims that experienced teachers concentrate more on what they are doing and saying in a class, while the novices
concentrate more on students’ behaviour. Thus, novices are more focused on students, unlike the experienced ones who perceive classroom management as their fundamental goal. This is agreed by Unal and Unal (2012).

Methodology
The study is quantitative in nature, employing a survey research design. A questionnaire was used in order to obtain the data. The instrument, which is a four-point Likert-scale questionnaire was adapted from Hwang and Embi (2007). The instrument of the study is made up of two sections, demographic profile of the respondents and the approaches employed in teaching literature. There are five questions in the demographic profile of the respondents namely gender, option, locality, teaching experience and literature training. Meanwhile, the construct on the approaches to teaching literature has thirteen items. Overall, there are eighteen questions in the instrument. A pilot study was conducted for reliability of the instrument. Cronbach’s Alpha value of 0.88 obtained indicated the reliability of the instrument.

Regarding the samples of the study, 271 secondary school English teachers who teach English literature were invited to be involved in the study. They were selected based on cluster sampling. The data obtained were analysed using a statistical software. Descriptive statistics involving mean and frequency were generated in order for the comparison of each category to be made. Meanwhile, inferential statistics – T-test and ANOVA – were employed to determine the relationship between the variables. This is meant to investigate the differences between all categories and the approaches employed in teaching literature. The results are in the following section.

Findings and Discussions

Demographic Profile of the Respondents

This study involved 271 respondents and their profiles are as follows.

Table 1: Demographic profile of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Sub-category</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Locality</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>119</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>152</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training</td>
<td>Trained</td>
<td>157</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Not Trained</td>
<td>114</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Experience</td>
<td>1 – 10 years</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11 – 20 years</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21 years and more</td>
<td>103</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparison between Urban and Rural Area Teachers in Approaches Employed
Table 2: Comparison in approaches employed based on locality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Approaches Employed</th>
<th>Urban Area</th>
<th>Rural Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Elicit information from students about the text</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Explain the content of the text</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ask students questions to check their understanding</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Provide students with background information of the text</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Encourage students to relate the text to their personal experiences</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Elicit students’ responses to the text</td>
<td>3.19</td>
<td>3.25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Encourage students to express feelings towards the issues in the text</td>
<td>3.18</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Guide students to express opinions towards the text</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Set language activities in the lesson</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Generate language practice using the text</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Re-tell the text to help students’ understanding</td>
<td>3.20</td>
<td>3.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Get students to tell the storyline of the text</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Use simple terminologies to explain about the text</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>3.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the mean score for the approaches employed by teachers based on locality. It is prevalent that rural area teachers have higher mean score in comparison to urban teachers. In detail, teachers from the urban area were more interested to use simple terminologies to explain about the texts. This is also reflected in rural area teachers’ findings. For the second most preferred approach, urban area teachers were in favour of encouraging students to relate a text to their personal experiences and asking students questions was ranked third. On the other hand, rural teachers’ second most preferred approach was asking students questions while explaining the content of a text appeared to be the third most preferred approach. Regarding the lowest scoring item, both groups showed that eliciting information from students about the text was the least favoured approach. In fact, the other two lowest scoring items were similar, setting language activities and generating language practice using the text, which were ranked twelfth and eleventh. To prove the difference between the two localities and the approaches employed, the table below reveals the result.

The Relationship between Approaches Employed and Locality

Table 3: T-Test result on locality factor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale</th>
<th>Locality</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Approaches</td>
<td>Urban</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>3.164</td>
<td>.305</td>
<td>2.767</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed</td>
<td>Rural</td>
<td>152</td>
<td>3.270</td>
<td>.322</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the approaches employed by the respondents in terms of locality. There was a significant difference in the scores for the teachers in the urban area (mean=3.164, s.d.=.305) and those in the rural area (mean=3.270, s.d.=.322); (t=2.767, p=.006).

It is interesting to note that rural area teachers were more positive with the approaches in literature lesson. This finding opposes Mahmud and Bray (2017), who state that the quality of teachers is often lower in rural than urban areas because better qualified personnel prefer to live in cities. The findings are in line to Yang (2014) who claims that rural area teachers are commonly the novices who have been teaching for a few years. This may imply that they are very enthusiastic about teaching and willing to try various approaches that may suit their teaching best. Their ideas and suggestions may differ from the urban area teachers who are more into traditional pedagogical skills as proposed by Khattri et al. as cited in Freeman and Anderman (2005). This may also be reflected in the findings through the second most favoured approach by the urban area teachers, encouraging students to relate a text to their personal experiences. As they are more experienced in teaching, they can utilize this approach better, unlike the rural area teachers who might lack experience.

Talif (1995) proposes that using simple terminologies assists novice teachers as it aids in formulating an initial idea of a text. In addition, Berrarbi and Bahous (2018) assert that students are less encouraged to be exposed to linguistically or culturally complex texts by teachers. For students who have just started learning literature, they need something light and easy to read and comprehend. As literature revolves around poetic and literary devices which are uncommon among the students, teachers need to explain the text in a simpler version that could ease students’ understanding. This further supports Carter and Long (1991) who claim that literature is teacher-centred in which teachers pass knowledge and information to the students. Hence, using simple terminologies in explaining a text is crucial for the benefits of the teaching and learning process. In relation to this, explaining the content of a text was also found to be among the favoured approaches to teaching literature in the context of this study.

**Comparison between Trained and Non-Trained Teachers in Approaches Employed**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Approaches Employed</th>
<th>Trained</th>
<th>Non</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Elicit information from students about the text</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>3.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Explain the content of the text</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ask students questions to check their understanding</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Provide students with background information of the text</td>
<td>3.33</td>
<td>3.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Encourage students to relate text to their personal experiences</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Elicit students’ responses to the text</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Encourage students to express feelings towards the issues in the text</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Guide students to express opinions towards the text</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on table 4, it is prevalent that those trained in literature were more positive with their approaches in literature lesson. It is interesting to note that though those trained were more positive with their approaches, both groups shared similar preferred approach. They agreed that using simple terminologies in explaining a text is a highly favoured approach in teaching literature. The trained group in addition also favoured asking student questions, explaining the content of the text and encouraging students to relate the text to their personal experiences. It also appeared similar for the non-trained group except for explaining the content of the text approach as they opted for re-telling the text to help students’ understanding as their second most favoured approach. Both trained and non-trained teachers also showed that eliciting information from students about the text, setting language activities and generating language practice using the text are the three least favoured literature approaches. The significant difference between the two groups is shown in the following table.

### The Relationship between Approaches Employed and Literature Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Approaches Employed</th>
<th>Literature Training</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>t-Value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>157</td>
<td>3.301</td>
<td>.327</td>
<td>5.022</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>3.117</td>
<td>.275</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, an independent sample t-test was conducted to compare the approaches employed by the respondents who have received literature training and those who have not. There exists a significant difference in the scores for the teachers with literature training (mean=3.301, s.d.=.327) and those without literature training (mean=3.117, s.d.=.275); (t=5.022, p=.000).

In comparing between those who have received literature training and those who have not, it appears that training indirectly prepares the teacher better. This is concurrent with MELTA (2012), that attending plays and literary events would indirectly add to literature teachers’ experience. Furthermore, the Ministry of Education Malaysia (2013) encourages teachers to attend courses as trainings enable teachers to constantly develop their skills to the competency level expected of a teacher. This emphasises the critical need for teachers to arm themselves with the current and updated knowledge pertaining to teaching and learning which can be acquired through trainings. In addition, MELTA (2012) reports that due to the lack of training besides not majoring in literature itself, many English teachers were found to have low confidence in teaching the component.

Another favoured approach to teaching literature as shown by the respondents of this study is asking students questions as a means to check their understanding. Questioning approach is vital...
as it helps teachers to identify the students’ progress. As disclosed by Rashid, Vethamani and Rahman (2010), this approach is the avenue for teachers to countercheck students’ learning process. Furthermore, it assists teachers to be more reflective on their teaching strategies. Students’ responses may serve as indicators on the effectiveness of a lesson. Hwang and Embi (2007) also reveal that this approach emphasises on the students’ giving responses about a text. Teachers should make full use of this approach as it is the platform for them to observe the effectiveness of their teaching. Moreover, the questioning approach is also prevalent in Sidhu, Chan and Kaur (2010); Suliman and Yunus (2014); Yunus and Suliman (2014).

**Comparison between Teaching Experiences in Approaches Employed**

Table 6: Comparison in approaches employed based on teaching experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Approaches Employed</th>
<th>1-10</th>
<th>11-20</th>
<th>21 and above</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Elicit information from students about the text</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>3.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Explain the content of the text</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>3.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Ask students questions to check their understanding</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Provide students with background information of the text</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Encourage students to relate text to their personal experiences</td>
<td>3.26</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Elicit students’ responses to the text</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Encourage students to express feelings towards the issues in the text</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>3.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Guide students to express opinions towards the text</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Set language activities in the lesson</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.08</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Generate language practice using the text</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>3.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Re-tell the text to help students’ understanding</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>3.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Get students to tell the storyline of the text</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>3.21</td>
<td>3.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Use simple terminologies to explain about the text</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>3.46</td>
<td>3.34</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third category looks into the teaching experience. Although the middle group (11 – 20 years) seemed to have higher mean score as compared to the other two groups, the choice of the most preferred approach between the groups differed. For the first group (1 – 10 years), the most favored approach was asking students questions whereas the other two groups (11 – 20 years and 21 years and more) were in favour of using simple terminologies to explain a text. This resembles the findings from the other categories earlier. Then, the 1 – 10 years group also obtained a high mean score for the following approaches – using simple terminologies and explaining the content approach besides re-telling the text to help students’ understanding. The second group, however, opted for explaining the content of the text and encouraging students to relate the text to their personal experiences as their preferred approaches. The most senior group (21 years and more) were more inclined to encourage students to relate the text to their own experiences, encourage students to express feelings towards the issues in the text, ask students questions and guide students to express opinions towards the text. On the contrary, as elucidated from the earlier findings, all
three categories of teachers agreed that eliciting information from students about the text, setting language activities and generating language practice using the text were the three least favoured approaches to teaching literature. The table describes the difference between teaching experience and the approaches employed.

**The Relationship between Approaches Employed and Teaching Experience**

Table 7: ANOVA result on teaching experience factor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variance</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between groups</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0.321</td>
<td>0.160</td>
<td>1.583</td>
<td>0.207</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>268</td>
<td>27.132</td>
<td>0.101</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>270</td>
<td>27.453</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table above shows the relationship between teaching experience and approaches employed. However, the result revealed no significant difference between the three groups. This is shown via sig = 0.207 (p > 0.05) and F value (2, 268) = 1.583. Thus, it is indicated that there was no significant difference between teaching experience and approaches employed.

As reflected in the ANOVA result, there was no significant difference between the three groups of teaching experience. This reflects the finding by Sii Ling and Chen (2016) that years of teaching was not an influencing factor in deciding the teaching approaches to be employed. On the other hand, this finding refuted what have been claimed by Unal and Unal (2012) and Abbas and Nilooofar (2012) regarding the difference between the experienced and novice teachers. The majority of the respondents revealed that the least favoured approach to teaching literature was eliciting information from students about the text. This may indicate that teachers still employ teacher-centred approaches. This reflects the finding by Carter and Long (1991) that literature is teacher-centred in which they pass knowledge and information to the students. In fact, this finding is similar to those in previous studies (Hwang & Embi, 2007; Suliman & Yunus, 2014).

The other two least preferred approaches are setting language activities and generating language practices. It is surprising to note that language activities are not highly favoured by the respondents of this study though Novianti (2016) affirms that the study of language has been inseparable from the study of literature. Irrefutably, literature is associated to language and one cannot discard the influence of language learning in literature. However, the respondents in this study might agree to Padurean (2015) who proposed that English literature should be approached differently because the language used is too complicated. Hence, they might believe that language learning should be excluded from literature leading them to employ less language-based approaches in the lesson. This may be misleading because Carter and Long (1991) emphasise that literature is able to enrich the cultural knowledge of students, which is an integral part in language learning. Thus, literature has a connection to language learning, and it is essential in understanding any literature lesson.
Conclusion
The results have revealed two fundamental findings of the study. First, the respondents of this study were more inclined to use simple terminologies in giving explanation about a literary text taught as compared to getting students eliciting information about the text. This emphasizes the reliance on teacher-centeredness as compared to focusing on students-centeredness. Secondly, in examining the significant difference among teachers with regard to locality, training and teaching experience, only two variables indicated significant difference. Teaching experience did not disclose any significant difference though the middle group (11 to 20 years of teaching experience) had the highest mean score. In addition, the rural area teachers and those who have received literature training were found to be more receptive of their approaches to teaching literature.

This study has suggested that teachers teaching literature need to vary their approaches in order to arouse students’ interest towards a lesson. There are various approaches to teaching literature that can be employed by teachers. Lively approach such as conducting performance activities may also be employed to cater to students who are interested in arts performance. Regardless of locality, training and teaching experience, teachers should be more optimistic and dare to take risks in employing different kinds of approaches in teaching literature since relying on one approach may not better the teaching and learning process. Future research may look into areas such as activities conducted in the literature lesson besides teachers’ attitudes towards literature and their relationship with locality, training and teaching experience. Furthermore, future studies may also look into students’ perspectives and how they perceive literature lesson based on locality, gender and types of school.

All in all, this study has shown that locality, training and teaching experience had impacts on the selection of approaches to teaching literature. This may affect the process of teaching and learning literature. Teachers have a crucial role in the teaching and learning process. Teachers are the centre of an educational journey and play a crucial role in engaging students in the learning process (Suliman, Nor & Yunus, 2017). Teachers are welcome to attend any courses and training to update themselves with current approaches and methodologies pertaining to literature teaching. This is even reinforced by the Ministry of Education Malaysia (2013), stating that ever since teachers enter the pre-service training, they will be given the best training possible up to the point of their retirement. Hence, this highlights the needs for teachers to always keep abreast with the relevant knowledge and skills in order to uphold the quality of the education system.

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References


Electronic Educational Environment Moodle in English Language Training

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Abstract
The article deals with the causes, methods and functions of using E-learning in the process of training students English, as well as changing teacher’s and learner’s roles in the educational process. The introduction of information and communication technologies in educational and research processes is a compulsory requirement to implement the concept of modernization in Russian education. Recently, interest in English as a means of international communication has increased significantly, it has already been recognized as the language of professional communication in various fields of activity. The relevance of this work is undoubted. Modern higher school teachers are constantly looking for more effective approaches in training English and in the process of creating an electronic educational environment that would allow students access to various sources of information and help satisfy the interests of the modern student. The goal of the research is to increase the efficiency of training English in the system of higher professional education through the development and use of educational software products that apply modern information technology. Methods to achieve this goal include the method of using computer technology, methods of network planning and project management. The research showed that the organization of the information-instrumental educational environment uses a student centered approach, the development of an electronic educational and methodological complex (EEMC) is a search for an algorithm, most adapted to the student's cognitive needs, and EEMC in English creates the best conditions for the principle of interactivity. The practical significance of the study is determined by the fact that its materials related to the method of creating multimedia tasks and virtual environments can be used in the practical work of universities, as well as in the system of further training for specialists.

Keywords: information and communication technologies, education modernization, e-learning, virtual educational environment, English language training

Cite as: Butova, A.V., Dubskikh, A. I., Kisel , O. V., & Chigintseva, E. G. (2019). Electronic Educational Environment Moodle in English Language Training. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 47- 55.DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.4
Introduction
With the increasing development of computer technology, electronic and telecommunications, information and Internet technologies, new opportunities for their use in education are being revealed. The introduction of new pedagogical technologies makes it possible to change the very education paradigm, and new information technologies help realize the opportunities inherent in new pedagogical technologies most effectively. In particular, the computerization in the field of communication defines a new level of English language proficiency requirements. It has led to changes in the definition of the goals and objectives of its study (Aldrich, 2003; Maurer, Sapper, 2001; Clark, 2007).

The use of new information technologies in teaching is one of the most important aspects for improving and optimizing the educational process, enriching the arsenal of methodological tools and techniques, which make it possible to diversify the forms of work and make the process of English training interesting for students (Stockley, 2006).

Information and communication technologies are a wide range of digital technologies used for creating, transmitting and distributing information and providing services “computer equipment, software, cellular communications, electronic mail, cellular and satellite technologies, wireless and cable communications networks, multimedia, and the Internet” (Koptyg, 2000, p. 54-59; Rosenberg, 2001).

The modern educational paradigm, built on computer-based teaching aids, takes as its basis the inculcation by students of self-education skills, but not the transfer to them ready-made knowledge and skills. At the same time, the student activities in class are the communication with a teacher, mediated through interactive computer programs and audiovisual media (Azman, Dollsaid, 2018; Rossett, Sheldon, 2001; Zarutskaya, Kisel, and & et al., 2018).

The use of information and communication technologies in teaching English makes it possible to present educational material more visually. It is also essential that the student can work in a self-pacing form, returning to the misunderstood, if it is required, or running ahead (Podoprigorova, 2003). In addition, computer-based training programs make it possible to train various types of speech activity and combine them in different combinations, understand language phenomena, contribute to the formation of linguistic abilities, create communicative situations, automate language and speech actions, and ensure the implementation of individual work and students' independent work.

Methodology
The systematic approach to the informatization of foreign language education allowed to consider the principles of this process at three levels (methodological and technological, system-integrative and conceptual-strategic). Their implementation will create a universal educational environment for training English. At the methodological and technological level, the principles of mastering certain aspects of the English language are developed, strategies and techniques for the formation of skills using information and communication technologies are determined. At the system-integration level technologies and teaching methods are synthesized within a single electronic educational environment. At the conceptual-strategic level, the existing educational programs in
the English language are adapted to the new technological conditions (Chemezov, Buhanova, 2012).

The methodological principles governing foreign language professional communication through information and communication technologies are also emphasized: the principles of conditionality, necessity, information content, reliability, interactivity, adaptability, complexity, polysensory, methodical support (Tsarkova, Ivachev, & Kulikov, 2013).

Results and discussion
Learning Management Systems (LMS) are widespread in Russian universities. One of the most popular open information systems is the Moodle system (Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment) (Behterev & Loginova, 2013; Loginova, 2011; Ovchinnikova, 2011; Rymanova, 2013).

It is a virtual learning environment that allows you to create a complete workspace for all participants in the educational process (Khusainova, 2013).

Moodle gives the teacher the opportunity to use electronic resources to organize information interaction between the teacher and students for solving different tasks during both classroom and extracurricular work, expanding cooperation in training, transmitting large amounts of information and knowledge control, organizing training in a more rational way, leaving easy topics for independent work (Andreyev, 2010; Dubskikh, & Zerkina, 2018; Obraztsov, 2000).

Considering the possibilities of the electronic educational environment, the authors of the article developed an electronic educational and methodological complex (EEMC) in the English language. It is a structured set of electronic educational and methodical documentation, electronic educational resources, teaching aids and knowledge control containing interconnected educational content for sharing applications to learn English effectively (Sritulanon, Chaturongakul & Thammetar, 2018). The main areas for application this complex are:

- full-time and part-time forms of education support;
- competitions, contests, quizzes in the English language;
- computer testing (Dyrdina & Zaporozhko, 2012).

The purpose of the EEMC is the development of professional foreign language communicative competence and all its components: knowledge acquisition about the language system and the rules to operate it in speech activity, mastering all types of speech activity in English, the basics of oral and written culture, language skills in everyday and professional communication situations, acquiring knowledge about speech behavior in certain standard situations based on understanding of national and cultural features of the foreign country and on the ability to exercise their verbal behavior in accordance with this knowledge, the formation of the ability to understand the interlocutor, to plan verbal behavior and transmit information in cohesive, logical statements (James, 2016; Mineyeva & Krasikova, 2010).
The content of EEMC reflects the requirements of a point-rating system, an activity and communicative approach to bachelors training. The course is based on modern e-learning technologies that ensure the implementation of individual learning trajectories under the continuous teacher guidance, and increase the efficiency of English training process (Daricheva, 2012; Sritulanon, Chaturongakul, & Thammetar, 2018).

EEMC has a thematic structure and includes the following blocks:

- instructional unit having organizational and methodical character. In this block, there is a news forum to inform students about all the events taking place in the training process; goals, tasks and educational results to master the discipline are stated; explanations of technologies and teaching aids, types of control are shown; the working program of the discipline, thematic plan and the individual rating plan of the student are presented; instructions and recommendations for the implementation of all kinds and forms of educational activities are given;

- resources for studying the course in the form of reference materials on grammar, vocabulary, English spelling, teaching and methodological information of the discipline, hyperlinks to open full-text educational and scientific literature, periodicals, Internet resources and other electronic educational resources (EER) for self-education of the student are presented in this unit;

- the didactic block consists of specially selected and clearly structured didactic materials, which are a combination of various educational and methodical materials allowing to optimize the process of interaction “teacher-students”;

- the control unit includes materials for entrance, current, boundary and control, materials for midterms (test/exam).

Thus, the teacher has diverse tools for organization of educational activities with students, training English practical classes, using such forms as the forum, the glossary, the lecture, the task, the test. A different combination of course elements is possible to achieve certain goals of classes.

Each topic of the e-learning course has a clear structure: at the beginning of the topic there is the “Glossary”, containing the main lexical units on the studied topic. It is important to emphasize that students are active participants in the development of a thematic glossary. They complement and edit the list of terms, and it helps to learn new vocabulary and refresh the previously studied. For example, in the Great Britain study course, one of the tasks for working with the text “Russia and Great Britain compared to each other” is adding vocabulary to the glossary on the topic. Then each unit of the glossary will be highlighted by the system in any of the texts (in a lecture, assignment, test). It allows students to focus on these words and expressions and, therefore, to remember them more firmly.

The system element "Lecture" is used to organize students' independent work on new theoretical material (grammar, teaching the principles of summarization and annotation, correspondence in English) (Gosper, Green and & et al., 2011). The most positive result in student work is observed in the assimilation of grammatical material. As an example lectures on such
grammatical topics, “Passive voice”, “Modal verbs”, “Complex Subject”, developed in Moodle, can be given. Thanks to the lecture settings specified by the teacher, students have the opportunity at their own pace to study new material and make a summary in the workbook. To increase active interaction and control the understanding of the material, the teacher uses various questions and tasks at the end of each section (page) of the lecture. Without understanding the reading material and checking the quality of the knowledge gained, it is impossible to continue studying the topic. Depending on the answer chosen by the student and the strategy developed by the teacher, students, answering the questions correctly, go to the next page or return to the previous page in case of an incorrect answer, having the opportunity to read the theoretical material once again and answer the control questions. The teacher evaluates the lecture, marks are recorded in the grade book.

In our opinion, the element “Task” possesses a large didactic potential in training English. The authors of the article widely use this electronic system tool both during the classroom work and for organizing independent work and homework. The algorithm for working with the “Task” element may be the working out of a new lexical and grammatical material, reading or listening to authentic texts on general or professional topics. After reading listening to the text, students do a series of lexical-grammatical exercises. In addition, the work on the content is accompanied by communicative exercises, and the result of the work may be the performance of creative tasks (preparation of the abstract, presentation, annotations). Students post them in the "Forum". The element "Forum" is a tool for organizing training in a group. Based on essays, presentations, annotations, etc., students with a teacher discuss questions, leave their comments, and evaluate each other's works. For example, the result of the work on the theme “Study” (“Study in High School”) is the presentation “Our University”. The students' task is not only to compile and place a presentation in the forum, but also to evaluate the presentations of other participants of the course.

The next function of the “Forum” is an advisory function, thanks to which students have the opportunity to ask questions, get a teacher’s advice.

In the process of creating EEMC in the English language, the authors attach great importance to such a structure element as the “Test”. We consider it is essential to use tests not only to control but in the teaching function, too. Depending on the test function its settings are made. The program editor allows you to customize the rating scale, the number of attempts, deadlines, time limit and the accrual of fines. If the test is of a training nature, the authors of the course indicate in the settings that the test time is unlimited and give students two attempts to solve the test. This will provide them with the opportunity, after the first attempt to analyze the mistakes made, to estimate the depth of the knowledge gained, to repeat and study the theoretical material more carefully, and then pass the test again. In this case, the average rating of both attempts will be set in the rating log. The final test students pass once for a limited period of time. Thus, we emphasize that the Moodle e-learning environment provides monitoring and evaluative monitoring of the educational process. The system of final testing allows students to check their knowledge at the end each topic. Tests developed by the teacher make it possible to check the level of learning quickly.

We especially note that the element "Test" allows you to implement the elements of the rating system for bachelors’ preparation in English, as the testing system developed by the authors has a level character. Level A tests have a reproductive nature. They use the types of questions...
"true / false", "multiple choice", "matching", "location in the right sequence." The “B” tests have a reproductive-productive nature: productive questions used in the “A” tests are supplemented with questions like “short answer”. Students should type in one or several words or small sentences as an answer. The “C” tests have a creative character and consist of questions like “short answer,” “description” and “essay”.

A significant advantage of using the “Test” element for the teacher is quick processing of the results – most of the test tasks are processed and evaluated automatically. All results are stored in a statement that allows you to give a fair assessment of students’ work and monitor their learning activities.

Moodle is equipped with a good rating system. EEMC in English has its own “gradebook”. It shows all types of students’ works, the maximum number of points for each work and the number of points a student has scored.

Conclusion
Using the tools of the Moodle distance learning system made it possible to make the process of training English for students of non-linguistic specialties personally-oriented, communicative and professional-oriented, and the teachers noted the following advantages and positive aspects of this platform:

- improving the educational process and ensuring effective independent work of students learning English;

- the optimal implementation of the content in training English in connection with the creation of a fairly extensive resource base. The Moodle system allowed teachers to solve the problem of providing students with educational and methodological materials, to present a training manual in a more accessible and convenient electronic format directly in the learning environment;

- flexibility and mobility of learning, achieved due to the fact that EEMC is available at any time and outside the university, so students could plan their curricula and course time, perform tasks at a convenient time;

- taking into account the specificities of students. The Moodle system gives students with different levels of learning and unequal abilities the opportunity to study at an individual pace. It creates a learning and educational environment that is conducive for a student and gives the prerequisites for more effective learning;

- active introduction of new information technologies in the training process using interactive tasks, computer and multimedia technologies, that helps to improve the process of forming students’ foreign language skills, increase the level of such professional personal qualities as independence, creative activity and communication skills.
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Incorporating Professional Initiatives in EFL Classrooms: A Way to Treat Pedagogical Solitude

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Abstract
In this climate of the expansion of globalization, in today’s classrooms, encouraging student investment in writing is paramount. Due to the complicatedness of this skill, many teachers find it difficult to make their learners aware of the divergent phases of writing so they produce better compositions. Thus, the professionalism of teachers is inevitably essential in shaping the learners’ writing ability (assisting students as they develop a piece of writing, and boosting their engagement with writing), and learners can achieve successful learning outcomes if they grasp how best to improve their work. To make language learning more effective, there is a need for pursuing professional growth and providing conditions where teachers cooperate to attain higher levels of learning among their students. Indeed, professional development for a teacher is about acquiring new skills, creating a potent learning atmosphere, surmounting the barriers, rectifying the failures and moving forward. It provides ongoing opportunities for educators to continue to identify teaching/learning problems, develop solutions, raise their performance, address students’ needs and up their achievements. The present paper sets out to take a closer look at how teachers work with writing among the first year English as foreign language (EFL) students. It tends to offer an instruction based on a set of professional development methods that provide practitioners with several avenues to implement them in classroom practice. To this end, findings of the research indicate that the proposed strategies can lead to a virtuous bond between the teaching/learning process of written expression that may generate beneficial knowledge, valuable teaching, and constructive learning results.

Keywords: EFL students, professional development, writing, written expression

Introduction

Within information technology age, and in an ever-changing world of education, English under the flux of innovations is the nowadays tool for international organizations. In this way, it is the window to new opportunities, connections, and growth. It is a commodity that assists students in improving their literacy skills, expanding their own cultural awareness, and increasing the possibility of a better grasp and appreciation of alien cultures. According to many studies, English has become the dominant foreign language used around the globe and has been appropriated by its speakers in diverse ways. Consequently, both the needs of learners and the aims and objectives of English Language Teaching (ELT) have changed.

Being a recursive and dynamic process, where learners plan, organize, check, edit, and produce, writing is seen as a challenging aspect. It is one of the basic macro skills which has given a significant contribution to alien culture learning and also considered as a thinking process that demands intellectual effort to promote the progress of language proficiency. Writing entails more than adhering to writing conventions, it encompasses creative aspiration, problem-solving, reflection, and revision. Being a demanding process, in Sasaki’s (2000) view, it consists of eight writing strategies namely: planning, retrieving, generating ideas, verbalizing, translating, rereading, evaluating, and others. (as displayed in table 1).

Table 1. Key Writing Strategies and Sub Strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing Strategies</th>
<th>Sub Strategies</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Planning</td>
<td>Global planning</td>
<td>Detailed planning of overall organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Thematic planning</td>
<td>Less detailed planning of overall organization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local planning</td>
<td>Planning to write next</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Organizing</td>
<td>Organizing the generated ideas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Conclusion planning</td>
<td>Planning the conclusion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retrieving</td>
<td>Plan retrieving</td>
<td>Retrieving the already constructed plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information retrieving</td>
<td>Retrieving appropriate information from long-term memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Generating ideas</td>
<td>Naturally generated</td>
<td>Generating an idea without any stimulus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Description generated</td>
<td>Generating an idea related to the previous description</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbalizing</td>
<td>Verbalizing a proposition</td>
<td>Verbalizing the content the writer intends to write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rhetorical refining</td>
<td>Refining the rhetorical aspects of an expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mechanical refining</td>
<td>Refining the mechanical or (L1/L2) grammatical aspects of an expression</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sense of readers</td>
<td>Adjusting expressions to the readers</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translating</td>
<td>Translating</td>
<td>Translating the generated idea into L2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rereading</td>
<td>Rereading</td>
<td>Rereading the already produced sentence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Evaluating</td>
<td>L2 proficiency evaluation</td>
<td>Evaluating one’s own L2 proficiency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Local text evaluation</td>
<td>Evaluating part of generated text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>General text evaluation</td>
<td>Evaluating the generated text in general</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>Resting</td>
<td>Resting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Questioning</td>
<td>Asking the researcher a question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impossible to categorize</td>
<td>Impossible to categorize</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: (Sasaki, 2000, pp. 289-291)
In highlighting the importance of writing professionally, Bolton and Delderfield (2018) declare that this type of writing is: “the key that can unlock the reflective imagination” (p. xvi). Writers should vary and employ different strategies; the main purpose of writing is to aid students to learn and produce quality-efficient discourse. In order to create an inviting climate for students as well as teachers, Fu and Townsend (1998) expounds:

To help diverse students become competent and confident writers we must help them become bilingual and bicultural learners. The process may be slow and often frustrating for both students and instructors. And, at best, this process will not be one of accommodation or assimilation, simply replacing or adding on another language, another set of values. Rather, it should involve both students and teachers in the process of mutual transformation, so that each becomes an entirely new type of language user (p. 132).

In an attempt to build up a meaningful and successful educational context, there are two elements to consider: the learners and the teachers. The former should be encouraged to become autonomous and have the willingness to take greater responsibility for their own learning, the latter being major catalysts for change should possess an active teaching practice via an unending round of professional development strategies to keep the currency of their knowledge updated.

Accentuating learner’s autonomy is pivotal. Teachers should encourage learners to learn autonomously, collaboratively, and ceaselessly. Vanijdee (2003) in explaining the meaning of autonomy writes that it is “a capacity -a construct of attitudes and abilities- which allows learners to take more responsibility for their own learning” (p.76). Therefore, students should see their learning process as a personal discovery. Learning to write helps students improve aptitudes for the negotiation of differences, develop their own worldviews, and respond to unfamiliar or changing settings. Further, thanks to the availability of technological means these students have plenty of possibilities to ameliorate their learning such as exposure to knowledge about various topics and issues arising from real-world scenarios.

The role of teachers has grown immensely. In the current times, they go through a vast array of practices from being the major source of knowledge, leaders, managers and educators to supporters and facilitators; they are expected to be tech-savvy, computer literate and at the cutting edge of education. Their task is to cope with the 21st –century learners; they should have a repertoire and reservoir of instructional techniques, effective teaching methodologies, and robust directional capabilities in such a way that they can foster their students’ interest and creativity, and elevate their motivation. Accordingly, instructors need to take on new roles in order to face numerous changes emerging from their internal and external environment to confront the modifications in curriculum and learners’ needs that are met in present-time ELT.

**Theoretical Foundation: Professional Development**

Becoming an instructor is unique and there is no single path or direct map to follow. This journey involves being open to new experiences and capable of reflecting on one’s own skills and abilities. In the fast changing globe of the early 21st century, teachers are urged to ensure best learning outcomes for their students, help them become independent, and provide them with
motivation and interest for lifelong learning. So to handle ongoing changes and strengthen the quality of education, teachers should be equipped with the needed strategies to make real transformations in their day-to-day surroundings.

**Major Merits of Professional Development**

Continuing ongoing education opportunities can help teachers:

- keep abreast of the most recent developments and innovations in teaching in general and the world of ELT in particular
- select more appropriate teaching resources
- develop materials required to match the future needs of the learners
- become reflective practitioners
- create a safe, supportive learning atmosphere
- teach their learners how their own culture aids them to understand other alien cultures
- offer multiple opportunities to their students to better their linguistic output
- elevate their learners’ intercultural awareness to interact effectively in diverse multicultural encounters
- teach their students how to actively engage in a variety of language learning opportunities with manifold audiences
- take appropriate decisions and actions to correct students’ misbehaviours that do not meet classroom expectations
- modify and readdress the teaching and learning experiences and stay well-informed of the current practices in language education

**The Suggested Types of Professional Development Procedures to be Implemented**

Two kinds of methods were conducted Teaching portfolios and Analysing critical incidents:

- **Teaching Portfolios:**
  
  A teaching portfolio—also termed a dossier or profile, is regarded as an effective way for teachers to reflect on, select, organize, portray, and document their teaching philosophy, objectives and accomplishments. Evans (1995) typifies the nature of a portfolio:
  
  A professional portfolio is an evolving collection of carefully selected or composed professional thoughts, goals, and experiences that are threaded with reflection and self-assessment. It represents who you are, what you do, why you do it, where you have been, where you are, where you want to go, and how you plan on getting there (p. 11).

  The eminence of reflective practice in educational circles is widely recognized as a means of extending, evidencing and supporting professional growth, and this may offer prospects for more innovative teaching resolutions. Numerous educators make the point that the portfolio serves some purposes (either formative i.e. developmental or summative i.e. evaluative), which can be to:

  - facilitate quality teaching
  - help set goals for further development or improvement
  - demonstrate individual capabilities and achievements
  - aid in refreshing skills and updating one’s depth of knowledge
  - support reflection and self-evaluation
encourage collaboration with colleagues

Therefore, it appears that by using a portfolio, written expression teachers will maintain individual actions and find out a kind of a framework of reference for continuous learning and deep reflection.

Analyzing Critical Incidents:

The concept of ‘critical incidents’ is variously interpreted by researchers and practitioners; in the educational context, the useful technique used for self-reflection is critical incident analysis, it is seen as an empowering and supportive process that deals with problems or challenges that educators encounter in day-to-day practice. Critical incidents are instruments for boosting one’s awareness and comprehension of human behaviors, attitudes, expectations, and interactions. For Flanagan (1954): “The critical incident technique consists of a set of procedures for collecting direct observations of human behavior in such a way as to facilitate their potential usefulness in solving practical problems and developing broad psychological principles” (p. 327).

This technique helps teachers know how they operate, question their own practice, and then explain and provide a solution. Many scholars take the view that examining and uncovering critical incidents can have a number of merits, it can:

• promote self-directed professional growth
• create a heightened sense of self-awareness
• allow for building collegiality, sharing expertise, and identifying a possible resolution
• aid teachers to fine-tune their instructional repertoire
• serve as a valuable resource for both novice teachers and expert ones
• give teachers support to pose critical questions about many aspects of teaching
• assist in raising the instructors’ deeper level of reflective thinking

Valuing the importance of analyzing critical incidents as a profitable professional way, written expression teachers are recommended to use it in order to capture plenty of different events that take place on the terrain, and to record the learners’ attitudes and misconducts. As a result, the instructors can gain useful insights into how:

• to improve their methodologies and practices
• to correct the misbehaviors and help their students develop positive attitudes towards their learning experience
• to produce possible transformations and readjustments

The Study in Context

This research took place at the University of Oran 2 in Algeria. It was undertaken with first year students majoring in EFL. This population was made up of 127 learners (male and female). Two teachers covering the module of Written Expression took part in this study.

Results and Discussion

Students were given assignments, homework and subjected to many tests throughout one academic year; the objectives were to provide each participant with an opportunity to learn from
writing mistakes made on each previous task, edit those errors on the next work and consequently improve the student’s writing skills. The majority of learners do not possess the skills necessary to effectively communicate in a written format that will help them become successful writers in the real world of work. The data revealed that 62.20% of the students showed a significant progress in their writing skills throughout the year. What is more, the results indicated that the inclusion of the cited strategies led to a change in the instructor’s pedagogical beliefs and practices, respectively.

This research aims to address the following question:

- How is it possible to enhance the writing skills among first year EFL learners?

For a better investigation of this teaching, a case study approach is utilised in this research to gain an insightful account of the situation before suggesting any changes. It gives opportunity for more scientific aspects that make probably the yielded data to be realistic. Be it descriptive or explanatory or exploratory, the case study provides the investigator with an instrument to conduct comprehensive, intensive, qualitative as well as quantitative research. Creswell (2007) depicts:

> Case study research is a qualitative approach in which the investigator explores a bound system (a case) or multiple bound systems (cases) over time through detailed, in-depth data collection involving multiple sources of information (observation, interview, audiovisual method, documents etc.) and reports a case description or case-based themes (p. 73).

This study, then, comprises a vast array of tools of thorough check involving questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observation procedures. A questionnaire was given to first year EFL students (male and female). This instrument aims to gather complete and valid data; it is made for the purpose of understanding, analyzing and interpreting the views, attitudes, and experiences of a given group of people from a target population. The researcher has utilised the questionnaire as an effective mechanism for efficient collection of specific data from a large group of students in addition to other useful information obtained from teachers. Confidentiality being highly respected, the questionnaire allows for a reliable method of analysis as all respondents are asked the same standardised questions.

Described as a discussion that has a structure and a purpose, interviewing is a way to assemble information as well as to gain knowledge from individuals; it is a thoughtful questioning and listening method with the aim of having an in-depth description of a particular subject. An interview is conducted with written expression teachers to investigate issues deeply and to capture the instructor’s attitudes and personal opinions. It was first recorded and later transcribed for analysis. It provided an insightful idea about possible suggestions for enhancing the situation of teaching/learning writing.

In order to gain an understanding of some aspects of teaching, learning, or classroom interaction, classroom observation is used. The main purpose behind this self-report method is to allow a room for getting feedback about one’s strengths and weaknesses, and it is a way of developing self-awareness on one’s own teaching and obtaining suggestions for further
improvements. Additionally, this useful process can help determine professional learning, support collegiality among peers, and provide opportunities to discuss challenges and concerns. As a powerful research strategy, it helps to record the teacher’s practices and the students’ actions and offers detailed and precise evidence about several aspects of the class than other data sources. It has also allowed having comprehensive knowledge and a close examination of the subject under study, and to view the target group (first year students) in its natural circumstances.

As an elemental answer to the problematic, some major themes emerged from the examination of obtained findings:

1- A Noticeable Increase in Good Academic Writing and a Reduction in Classroom-related Stress:

The findings indicated the emergence of greater interest towards the task of writing and a considerable enthusiasm among the classmates. Responding to a question, one of the participants opines:

“The great amount of exercises and homework we were given has really motivated us, and we were taking pleasure in doing it”

Moreover, through the implementation of the professional approach, the researcher has observed that the students taking part in this study were able to shape their ideas and to challenge new thoughts. They became more familiar with the process of writing and obeyed its steps which has led them to produce coherent and meaningful paragraphs and essays. The proposed strategies have demonstrated that the researcher has established some key elements that permit to lessen anxiety and stress through offering a conducive and relaxing atmosphere and to discover and record the learners’ weak areas, attitudes and misbehaviours. Thus, the teacher can gain a thorough analysis and can later refine his/her teaching methodology.

As an illustrative response of the teachers’ interview, the following can be cited:

“I was carefully monitoring and following up what occurred through the learning experience”

2- Gain of Basic Instructions To Be Respected when Producing a Piece of Writing:

The results pictured that the students have utilized more complex expressions and appropriate content. That is, this experience fostered their writing abilities. It was remarked that incorporating the professional approach has contributed to the refinement of learners’ writing capacities through a selection of more complex expressions, the use of the convenient substance and the acquisition of useful vocabulary.

3- A Constructive Awareness about Examining and Developing One’s Own Practices through:

- Discovering the students’ strengths and downsides
- Posing significant queries then exploring them
- Trying to find out specific areas of teaching practices that need to be improved
Therefore, these techniques have demonstrated that they enable the teachers to gain key reflections on their own instruction and on their learners’ interactions and conducts throughout time.

**Concluding Reflections**

As concluding thoughts, promoting the quality of instruction has always been the subject of salient discussion in teacher education; thus, aiding teachers to reshape their classroom practice is key to their success. Ameliorating teachers’ professional growth is seen as a prerequisite for addressing a continuous stream of changes in their environments. Further, ongoing professional advancement does not only allow teachers to learn new approaches, but also enables them to grapple with divergent issues and refine the pedagogies required to support students to increase the knowledge, skills, and competencies they need to thrive in the 21st century. Our findings make a case for future scholarship exploring the extent to which teachers readjust and revise their specific existing practices.

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A Study of Language Anxiety among English Language Learners in Saudi Arabia

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Abstract:
Classroom anxiety is a recurrent phenomenon for language learners. There are various factors that cause language anxiety, the most common of which include learners’ excessive self-consciousness and self-awareness concerning their oral reproduction and performance and their peculiar, and quite often misplaced and mistaken, views and beliefs regarding different approaches. Other potential reasons for this problem could include the fear, and the consequent deterrence occasioned thereof, of encountering difficulties in language learning, specifically learners’ individual problems regarding the culture of the target language and the varying social statuses of speakers. The most important fear is, perhaps, the deterrent fear of causing damage to one’s self-identity. Therefore, while needing to paying special attention to language learners’ anxiety reactions, language teachers have a crucial role in helping their students achieve the expected performance goals in the target language. Another factor that could potentially lead to language anxiety is simply the poor command of the target language. This problem could be attributed to linguistic barriers and obstacles language learners encounter in learning and using the target language. In the current study, using a qualitative, semi-structured interview and the focus-group discussion technique, the researcher aims to investigate the factors that contribute to language anxiety among Arab language learners. It focuses on learners both within the classroom setting and without, i.e. in the social context, and recommends a number of approaches to manage and overcome this problem.

Keywords: language anxiety, language learners, classroom anxiety, anxiety reaction, situation-specific anxiety

Cite as: Hakim, B. M. (2019). A Study of Language Anxiety among English Language Learners in Saudi Arabia. *Arab World English Journal, 10* (1) 64-72.
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.6
Introduction
The worldwide popularity and the increasing, even exponential, rise of English as an international language has made the demand to learn it (with good communication skills) all the more essential and inescapable. However, learners of the English language frequently face and report emotions such as fear, stress, nervousness, and anxiety in their journey towards attaining their desired competence and communicative skills in the language. In some extreme instances, it leads to learners’ complete inability, occasioned by fear, even to attempt to speak English at all (what is oftentimes termed a “mental block” against learning a language).

In their *Introduction to Psychology*, Hilgard, Atkinson, & Atkinson (1979), discuss anxiety as a psychosomatic concept, commonly considered by psychologists as “a state of uneasiness and fear, a vague anxiety that is specifically associated with the particular object or phenomenon”. Language anxiety is, in another interpretation offered by Horwitz (2001), a spontaneously shown reaction by the majority of language learners that negatively impacts the language learning process and has come to represent one of the most studied variables in all of psychological themes of education.

Language anxiety can inhibit all kinds of learning processes, but, when it is specifically associated with learning a second or foreign language, it is called “second/foreign language anxiety”. According to Tanveer (2007), studying learners’ reactions operating under anxiety is of paramount importance, since it enables the teacher to help them, in turn, to achieve the required performance goals in the target language. Discussing, and trying to answer, two fundamental questions should precede any discussion of language anxiety. First, what ‘is’ language anxiety? And, why is it considered so important in learning and speaking a new language? Second, how, and if, is foreign language anxiety different from the language anxiety experienced in the process of learning the first language? There are two approaches that account for the onset of language anxiety. In the first one, language anxiety is a comprehensive concept of anxiety and a rudimentary human reaction possibly induced by numerous amalgamations of situational factors (McIntyre, 1995; McIntyre & Gardner, 1989, as cited in Tittle, 1997). According to Horwitz et al. (1986), a feeling of awkwardness experienced by a ‘shy’ student when delivering a short speech in front of an entire class can be regarded as language anxiety; it is an intrinsic mode of anxiety triggered by the combination of language anxiety and other anxieties that results in an odd type of internal hindrance in language learning. In the other viewpoint, it is argued that there is an element inherent to the language learning experience that turns certain individuals anxious and fearful of language learning. When this nervousness or fear occurs in a language-learning context, it is termed language anxiety. Psychologists tend to use the term “anxiety reaction” to separate people who are usually fearful in general circumstances from those who become nervous only in language-specific situations (Horwitz et al., 1986).

The obstacle that language anxiety poses is an additional trial to both language learners and their teachers/educators. The increasing modern-day pressure to communicate ‘only in English’ in language classes leads to anxiety in some student, since, for them, it exposes their weaknesses in front of their fellow learners. Therefore, in order to support learners to develop their communication skills in the target language effectively, it is essential to take learner anxiety into particular consideration in modern language classroom settings.
Definitions and Types of Anxiety
In psychology, anxiety is a psychosomatic concept generally defined as a condition of anxiety and fear and a vague apprehension usually linked to an object and or phenomenon (Hilgard, Atkinson, & Atkinson, 1971; cited in Scovel, 1991). Many language learners experience anxiety as a spontaneous and inevitable reaction. This reaction has a negative effect on language learning and has, thus, come to constitute one of the most vastly scrutinized variables among the psychological themes of education (Horwitz, 2001). Psychologists distinguish three different types of anxiety, i.e. trait anxiety, state anxiety, and situation-specific anxiety. For Scovel (1991), trait anxiety is a relatively unwavering and enduring personality-specific quality and a tendency to be anxious most of the time. State anxiety, on the other hand, refers to a fleeting state and/or a reaction to a specific anxiety-provoking stimulus such as an important test (Spielberger, 1983; cited in Horwitz, 2001). Situation-specific anxiety refers to the insistent and multi-dimensional nature of some anxieties (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991a; cited in Horwitz, 2001) that can be provoked by an explicit type of state or stimulus such as speaking before an audience in public (stage fright), certain interactive exams, and classroom participation (Ellis, 1994).

Foreign language anxiety
Anxiety experienced while learning a second or foreign language is called “second/foreign language anxiety”. According to Horwitz & Young (1991), it is a composite and multi-faceted phenomenon. McIntyre & Gardner (1994) believe it to be “a particular state of tension, anxiety, uneasiness, and fear linked with the provocation of the involuntary nervous system”. In their study, Horwitz et al. (1986) observed that anxiety is mostly associated with the two basic and interactive skills of learning a foreign language, i.e. listening and speaking. This might be due to the fact that, in any linguistic communicative interaction, it is impossible to separate these skills from one another.

Cause(s) of language anxiety
For Schwartz (1972; cited in Scovel, 1991), language anxiety is associated with learners’ self-consciousness and a fundamental internal stimulus such as individual self-perceptions about other people (peers, teachers, etc.). It could be observed in various situations that require communicating in the target language and expressing one’s individual opinions using the foreign/second language. Among other reasons, language anxiety could be possibly caused by an incompetence to use the target language and, also, a lack of knowledge (Sparks & Ganschow, 1991; cited in Horwitz, 2001). Overall, it may be due to the linguistic difficulties language learners face while learning and using the target language.

Within a social context, language anxiety may be caused by external stimuli (Schwartz, 1972; cited in Scovel, 1991) and could include diverse social and cultural settings, predominantly situations where second language (L2) and foreign language (FL) learning takes place. The target language is, in other words, an alternative communicative tool, and, consequently, as in any human interaction, there is a tendency in some individuals to experience anxiety (Gardner 1990; cited in Horwitz & Young, 1991). The assumed public identity of the L2/FL speakers, the power relations and hierarchies between/among them, and many other issues and factors (such as gender discrimination) could play a big role in causing language anxiety. Investigating the factors that
cause anxiety helps language teachers to lessen fear and nervousness in the classroom setting and create a learning environment that contributes to learners’ ability to acquire the target language.

Method
In order to fulfill the objective of this study, a qualitative semi-structured interview and the focus-group discussion technique were used. The present study aims to investigate the factors conducive to language anxiety in EFL (English as a Foreign Language) students of the English Language Institute (ELI) of King Abdulaziz University in Jeddah in both classroom settings and in the social context. The participants included sixty EFL (the foundation year program) students of level 102 at the ELI. The participants were selected randomly from five different 102 classes.

Findings
Studies conducted on foreign language anxiety have invariably confirmed its negative effect on the process of learning and particularly speaking the second/foreign language and, in order to become a successful foreign language speaker, students need to overcome this problem (Horwitz et al., 1986). It has been observed that language anxiety is closely associated with how learners perceive the language learning process, their self-consciousness about the language and how they should be acting in any communicative setting, and also the linguistic complications they have to deal with in their interactions in English.

Anxiety-inducing factors
In this study, we observed extreme language anxiety among the majority of Saudi Arabian participants, which, compared with participants in other similar research projects in the related field, it appears to be considerably higher. Jones (2004) believes that there are social aspects related to the anxiety reactions of language learners. In our study, the pressure to achieve native-like mastery proved a further major cause of anxiety for language learners. Strict and tense classroom settings was found to be another important cause of their language anxiety. As Tsui (1996) states, teachers need to take into consideration that a language classroom itself could become an extremely anxiety-inducing environment for students. It is possible that, at least, for some language learners, the formal setting of a language classroom, where strictly correct and accurate use of the target language is the rule, is a key source of anxiety and fear. The findings of this study indicate that the participants believed a friendly attitude and a relaxed classroom setting helped lessen anxiety. On the other hand, learners tend to feel more nervous and anxious in classroom settings where older, more traditional learning arrangements and methods, such as the audio-lingual language teaching method according to which learners are required to reiterate ‘tedious’ drills and activities, are followed. Language learners feel less nervous and anxious in classroom settings that focus on student-centered and interactive activities. Giving presentations and lectures before an audience of students and the teacher has also been found to be an extremely anxiety-inducing situation. These demotivating teacher-centered methods have been reported to make the classroom environment extremely formal and taxing for learners.

As Koch and Terrell (1991), Young (1990), and Price (1991) report, the majority of participants find oral presentation the most anxiety-inducing activity in language classrooms. There is a common perception among language teachers that oral presentations help learners to feel less anxious, while, in reality, it does the exact reverse by making them, among other things,
go through the stressful situation of having to remember what they have memorized (Tanveer, 2007).

In Jones’ research (2004), the fear of making errors and the subsequent uneasiness before the classmates constituted the main cause of language anxiety for most of the learners. Language learners feel anxiety for the fear of appearing incompetent in front of their peers. This fear, which can sometimes amount to a paralyzing terror, of committing errors poses a big obstacle before speaking and using a foreign language in classroom settings. In Gregersen and Horwitz’s (2002) study of the correlation between language learning and perfectionism, a strong link was found between students’ fear of making errors and their concern to maintain a positive image before an audience of their teachers and peers/fellow learners.

The socio-cultural context
The social context, including beliefs, social values and status, and a feeling of being alienated can also impact language anxiety. In this study, social factors proved as important as linguistic factors in triggering language anxiety.

Experiencing the new language
Having limited access and exposure to adequate speaking resources and opportunities, as is the case in Saudi Arabia, makes learners undergo difficulties in the development of their communicative capability, which, in turn, hinders interaction.

Cultural differences
‘Cultural differences’ is another, often underestimated, cause of classroom anxiety. Tanveer (2007) believes that a failure to adapt to, and a feeling of estrangement with, the culture of the target language leads to increased anxiety. Most participants tend to do all they can to evade public interaction so as to avoid losing face, which goes on to corroborate Jones’ thesis that ‘language anxiety is an apprehension of saving face in different cultures’ (2004). Language anxiety can, however, be a culture-bound and culture-specific phenomenon, the reception and perception of which can vary from culture to culture.

Social Status and self-image
Participants’ social statuses can have a remarkable impact on their interactions (Giles, Bourhis, & Taylor, 1977, as cited in Carrier, 1999). Also, the findings of the current study reveal that speakers’ feeling of unease and inferiority while talking to someone they assume to be higher in status may result in stress or anxiety. According to Pica (1987), a real or assumed, status gap between learners and teachers could be one further cause of anxiety for learners. It goes on to show that a lack of confidence in one’s linguistic competence leads to low self-confidence and anxiety on the side of learners in their interactions with speakers who have a good command of the language, e.g. native speakers (Peirce, 1995). The fear to interact in cultural settings, which is partly due to speakers’ inadequate linguistic capabilities, could result in poor communication. For such learners, speaking a foreign language is a problem because of the apprehension of losing their positive image or self-identity. Many researchers confirm social anxiety as a feeling of losing individual self-confidence which is intensely ingrained in the first language (Guiora, 1972; Peirce, 1995, 1984; Rardin, 1988; Leary, 1982; cited in Ohata, 2005).
Managing with stress and anxiety in language classes

Language anxiety has an important, though detrimental, role in the learning process of communicating in a foreign language. Researchers, in their studies on language anxiety, have proposed different approaches to deal with this multi-faceted problem. A popular solution is to have more casual and less formal classroom settings with a friendlier atmosphere. According to the constructivist theory of language learning, such classroom settings provide language learners with an environment where students can afford to make mistakes without looking inept. They also help educators create an environment in which learners feel positive, accomplished, and comfortable while using the language and avoid setting up activities that could make students feel neglected. Others propose a truly unrestrained interactive classroom setting where learners are given a chance to participate in spite of their insufficient language competence. Interactive techniques such as drama and role-play activities could help students feel safe in an invented setting with a pretended identity.

Tanveer (2007) puts forward the idea that, in order to reduce anxiety, instructions should be thorough and clear and it should also be guaranteed that the learners have adequate ideas and preparation to accomplish the tasks. Teachers have a critical role in making the classroom a more comfortable, welcoming, and cheerful learning zone and a less anxiety-inducing place. Tanveer goes on to suggest that instructors should establish an environment where making mistakes while learning a language is not only acceptable but welcome. In fact, teachers should regard mistakes as learning opportunities and welcome, and introduce, them as a norm in classroom settings. According to this approach, teachers are encouraged to offer counteractive and constructive feedback on errors rather than disturb and correct students repeatedly with outdated and unconstructive methods such as on-the-spot error correction, etc. Instead, teachers, for instance, can take cloistered notes of the errors made by learners and then address them collectively in front of the entire class without mentioning the name of a specific learner. Also, in order to effectively deal with language anxiety, individual learners’ self-perceptions and beliefs should be taken into consideration.

In the same vein, teachers are invited to point out to the learners that feeling uncomfortable and anxious while speaking a foreign language is common and acceptable so as to establish a friendlier environment that welcomes student participation. Tanveer (2007) believes this strategy would unburden students and help them come to the realization that the state of anxiety is common among most of the learners and is not associated with any particular individual. According to Price (1991), this method helps teachers to alleviate, if not completely eliminate, an antagonistic, tense, and judgmental classroom setting and make students feel better and more self-confident. This way, students feel more optimistic, and at the same time less concerned, with their individual personas and consequently sum up their own strong points and build upon them. Onwuegbuzie et al. (1999) believe, by adopting such strategies, instructors can help students build confidence and self-respect in their second/foreign language acquisition through reassurance, encouragement, optimistic support, and understanding.

Language teachers are also encouraged to warn against perfectionism and other ingrained traditional beliefs and habits and instill the idea, in the students, that learning a language requires working tolerantly and making a lot of mistakes on the way. They should also avoid setting the
native speaker’s English (pronunciation, vocabulary, etc.) as a benchmark. Announcing feedback collectively, in the form of grades and marks, is another practice that instructors should refrain from conducting for its adverse effects.

**The vital role of the language teachers**

Language instructors have a great role in moderating, or intensifying, the anxiety experienced by students in classroom settings (Brandl, 1987; Horwitz et al., 1986; Price, 1991; Young, 1990, 1991; cited in Onwuegbuzie et al., 1999). Teachers’ views concerning the process of language learning and teaching, their response to learners’ spoken mistakes, and the way they create a taxing environment in the classroom have been reported to impact second/foreign language anxiety (Tanveer, 2007). Many learners have also reported teachers’ patronizing and insensitive attitude and treatment of learners, particularly when committing errors and mistakes, as a factor that adversely affects their willingness to participate in classroom activities. According to Jones (2004), inappropriate treatment of learner errors, and the subsequent shame experienced by the student before his/her peers, can have a lasting impact on a student’s learning.

**Suggestions for language teachers**

Language anxiety can intensely affect the course of language learning and teaching. Therefore, language teachers, as the agents directly responsible for students’ achievement or lack thereof, need to know that anxiety can hinder a language learner’s progress and try to help them overcome nervousness and anxiety. Therefore, language teachers’ awareness of the seriousness of learner anxiety, and taking due measures to address it, is crucial in teaching and learning a foreign language.

The findings of the current study, and similar studies in this field, include the following suggestions:

1) Language teachers should be aware of the reality of anxiety in language learners and classroom settings and are expected to implement expeditious and practical tactics to manage and overcome this problem.

2) A comprehensive methodology, that provides students with more opportunities to practice speaking skills, should be introduced to, and implemented in, the classroom setting in order to assist language learners with inadequate exposure to the English language.

3) A friendly, relaxed, and casual classroom setting coupled with teachers’ approachable, cooperative, and supportive behavior should be created so that students feel more comfortable while speaking, and in general interacting, in the classroom. This could help minimize, if not wholly eliminate, the impact of the social and status gap between students and teachers in a substantial way (Tanveer, 2007).

4) Teachers should have the insight to encourage learners who are afraid of making speaking errors to feel free to make as many errors as they like and instill the idea in their students that committing errors is indispensable to attaining good communication skills. Teachers should refrain from techniques such as on-the-spot error correction, as such techniques result in more anxiety, and, instead, should opt for methods that would invoke the least defensive reactions from students.

5) In order to decrease students’ fear and anxiety, teachers should give priority to using formative assessment (assessment for learning) and feedback instead of summative assessment, since the latter, as it is often conducted collectively and in public, can generate a stressful situation.
6) Language teachers need to talk openly about anxiety in the class and take proper actions to minimize it as much as possible.
7) In order to help students feel positive, successful, and accomplished in their learning, language teachers should avoid complicated and obstructive activities in the early stages. Instead, they are required to start with simple tasks so that novice learners feel contented and comfortable in their participation in the language class.
8) In classroom activities, excessive self-consciousness should be obliterated through proper strategies. Teachers should introduce strategies, such as role play, drama, etc. and make teaching, and learning, as indirect as possible.
9) Teachers’ familiarity with learners’ cultural background and showing genuine interest in their educational history and background can help them better understand, and treat, students’ anxiety issues. It also leads to a positive atmosphere of wholesome attachment and collaboration in the classroom and helps students to practice their speaking skills assertively and without anxiety.

Conclusion
Since teachers have an important role in the acquisition of a foreign language, examining their principles and perspective with regard to learning and teaching ESL/EFL was considered inevitable by the researcher. The working hypothesis of the study was that language anxiety can be caused by, and attributed to, learners’ own self-consciousness due to their personal perceptions, language learners’ individual problems, differences in learners’ cultural background and that of the target language, variations in the social status of interlocutors, and the fear of losing self-identity. Therefore, in order to manage the pressure, anxiety and nervousness in their classes, it is essential for language teachers to have in-service training courses on general psychology, including specific courses on language anxiety.

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Effect of Project-Based Learning Using E-Poster on Indonesian EFL Students’ Speaking Ability across Personality Types

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Abstract  
Preparing students to compete and face any challenges of the rapid changes of globalization is a responsibility of any form of education. Students’ success in today’s learning lies on their ability to utilize technology as the heart of globalization as well as to communicate in English effectively within a variety of purposes. Project-based learning, as one of the technology-based activities, is believed to be an effective method to facilitate the use of technology and oral communication skill in English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom. This article investigates whether there is a significant difference in students’ speaking ability between students taught through PBL using e-poster and those taught through conventional method. It also determines whether there is a significant difference in students speaking ability between extrovert and introvert students taught through PBL using e-poster. Sixty-one Indonesian secondary level students from two intact classes were involved and assigned randomly into experimental and control groups. The quantitative data were collected through pre-test and post-test from both groups. Analysis of the first result revealed that students who were taught through PBL using E-poster significantly outperformed those who were taught through a conventional method. Conversely, the second result showed that students’ personality types (extrovert and introvert) did not affect their speaking achievement.

Keywords: e-poster, EFL students, personality types, project-based learning, speaking ability

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.7
Introduction
The development of information and communication technology (ICT) brings a change in the context of educational need. ICT is often perceived as a device in constructing knowledge in the education system to increase its quality (Sangrà & González-Sanmamed, 2010). By emerging ICT into the classroom, traditional teaching method transforms into a new model of teaching where teacher and students are essentially linked into limitless platforms and opportunities of tools, experiences, material resources to increase their productivity. ICT also exposes connection and access to knowledge and information from the global context that would fit into the classroom and it offers a vivid and authentic environment to involve teacher and students in engaging learning process. Thus, with the use of ICT, the classroom instructional purpose not only focuses on teaching about technology or explaining how to utilize it, but also encouraging students to apply technology to relate their knowledge and skill (Eady & Lockyer, 2013).

The ability to employ technology should be completed with the ability to demonstrate and share what is learned. Meaningful and successful use of technology is acquired when students are able to communicate their ideas and thoughts clearly and effectively within different context and purposes (Eady & Lockyer, 2013). In order to facilitate EFL students to be successful in the today’s learning, Project-based Learning (PBL) as one of the learning methods proposed by the 2013 Curriculum in Indonesia, is regarded as a way to facilitate the integration of ICT and communication skill as part of the 21st century skills in the classroom (Education and Culture Ministry of Indonesia, 2017).

The present study was intended to examine students’ speaking ability after being taught by using PBL through e-posters as the final product of the integration of technology in learning to speak in English. It aimed to combine ICT with a traditional poster appearance to make it more visually appealing, effective, and efficient to deliver ideas (Shin, 2012 as cited in Masters, 2017). More specifically, the students were assigned to create a paperless format of a poster displayed through LCD projector by including various ranges of media elements (texts, colors, graphs, pictures, etc.) on the poster. The research questions are formulated as follows:

(1) Is there any significant difference in the speaking ability of EFL students taught through project-based learning (PBL) using e-poster and those taught using the conventional teaching strategy?
(2) Is there any significant difference in the speaking ability of the extrovert students and introvert students taught through project-based learning (PBL) using e-poster?

Literature Review
EFL Students’ Speaking Ability
For Indonesian EFL students, in particular, the ability to communicate orally signifies a real challenge as not all students have the experience in speaking in English (Hosni, 2014). Students do not have enough confidence and have severe anxiety to speak English. They are also too shy, reluctant, and often have high pressure to speak. Consequently, they prefer speaking in their mother tongue to speaking English (Ur, 2012). This complexity may rise from the lack of an effective instructional teaching strategy applied by the teacher and the shortage of opportunities to practice English in a formal setting.


**Project Based Learning**

Project Based Learning (PBL) extends the beneficial and effective method of instruction in the classroom (Thomas, 2000). The students who experience PBL are proven to achieve better in language skills including speaking, critical thinking and knowledge attainment (Du & Han, 2016). PBL as students-centered learning focuses the process of learning on real-world problem as directed by the essential question to drive the project. Students then explore their creativity to provide an open-ended answer to the problem throughout the completion of the project. Additionally, Krauss and Boss (2013) assert that students obtain essential knowledge, skills, and personalities by working in teams or groups to conduct an investigation. Through PBL, the students also respond to authentic questions which enable them to communicate in purposeful ways through the stages of PBL.

There have been a number of studies performed to provide evidence of the significant use of PBL focusing on students’ speaking ability. Zare-Behtash and Sarlak (2017) conducted research that tried to examine the influence of PBL on EFL university students’ speaking ability. The result of this study can be concluded that PBL was an effective method to promote EFL students’ speaking ability. On a different level of students, Torres and Rodriguez (2017) investigated how elementary students could enhance their speaking ability in the EFL classroom through PBL. From the results of data analysis collected from field notes, students’ oral performance and interview, it was revealed from both studies that PBL encouraged students to increase oral production, helped to lessen speaking anxiety in the second language as well as improved the school life and community learning interest. Shortly stated, PBL has been implemented in speaking activities and successfully improved the students’ speaking ability.

It is important to note that many of the studies on PBL focussed on university and primary school students. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate studies on the use of PBL to enhance the speaking ability of students in another level of education in the Indonesian context in particular. In addition, only a few studies included technology into students’ final project during PBL. For example, a study conducted by Gónzalez, Molina, and Cardona (2017) integrated the use of technology in the project assigned to students. The result showed that students could improve their oral production in English, creativity in using technology and collaboration.

**Personality Types**

Further review of literature indicated that students’ personality types (extrovert and introvert) could be as variables which affected students’ success on foreign and second language learning (Ellis, 1994; Dornyei, 2005). A result of the study by Yusef-Hasirchin (2014) showed that extrovert students speak more fluently compared to introvert ones. In contrast, Souzandehfar, Souzandehfar, Farsi, et al. (2014) and Chen, Jiang, and Mu (2015) testified that introversion-extroversion was not the main factor influencing students’ accomplishment in oral English learning since there was no significant difference in students’ speaking scores between students from different types of personalities. Thus, a further investigation on the effect of personality types (extroversion and introversion) on students’ oral communication achievement is still possibly needed since the result of some research are inconsistent and contradictory.
Method

Design and Subjects of the Study

This study employed a quasi-experimental research design because it is not possible to select the students randomly as the subjects of the study. The subjects of the study were 61 students of a vocational high school at Banyuwangi Regency, East Java, Indonesia. The students were from two intact classes and assigned randomly into the experimental group (31 students) and the control group (30 students). Before the study was conducted, these two groups of students were homogenous in terms of their speaking ability. In this study, the independent variable was the application of PBL using e-poster and the dependent variable was the students’ speaking ability. In addition, personality types were used as the moderating variables to divide the students in the experimental group into two smaller groups: extrovert and introvert students.

Procedure of the Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session</th>
<th>Experimental Group</th>
<th>Control Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pre-test administration</td>
<td>Pre-test administration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Students were given material on procedure texts and exercises. They were introduced to PBL and asked to work in pair or a small group to think of the importance of procedure text in the digital era. (Stage 1) They were also asked to plan a project and make a work schedule. (Stages 2 &amp; 3)</td>
<td>Students were given material on procedure texts and exercises. Students were given homework to think of a procedure text in pair or a small group.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>• Students were asked to present the draft they had orally. Their oral presentations were given feedback by the teacher. • They revised their procedure texts and as the project they were guided to make e-posters based on their procedure texts. They continued working on e-posters outside the class period. (Stage 4)</td>
<td>• Students were asked to make a draft of procedure text by using mind mapping. • The students’ drafts were given feedback by the teacher and they revised their procedure texts.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>• The students present their e-posters in groups using LCD projector. • The students’ presentations were scored by the teacher using scoring rubrics for speaking and multimedia. (Stage 5, continued)</td>
<td>• The students present their procedure texts in groups. (Continued) • The students’ presentations were scored by the teacher using scoring rubrics for speaking.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>• The remaining students presented their e-posters. (Stage 5) • The students were asked to share their opinion about the project implementation. (Stage 6)</td>
<td>• The remaining students presented their procedure texts. • The students were asked to share their opinion about the teaching and learning process.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Post-test administration</td>
<td>Post-test administration</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The research ran in 6 sessions. The first and last sessions were used for pre-test and post-test administration. The second to the fifth sessions were used for the teaching process in which the students in the experimental group were taught through PBL using e-poster, while those in the control group were taught conventionally without PBL. The PBL was conducted by following the six stages of PBL: (1) Start with essential questions; (2) design a plan for the project; (3)
create a schedule; (4) monitor students and project progress; (5) assess the outcome, and (6) evaluate the experiences (Harun, 2006). The schedule for research is shown in Table 1.

**Table 1. The Schedule of Research**

The final works of the students in the experimental group were e-posters produced in pairs or groups through PBL. Some of the titles of the e-posters are “How to Wash Clothes in Washing Machine,” “How to Shop Online” and “How to Draw Cash from ATM Machine”

**Data Collection**

The data on students’ speaking ability was derived from speaking test scores gained from pre-test and post-test administered before and after treatment respectively. The students’ speaking ability was scored by using a scoring rubric adapted from Hughes (2003) containing a number of speaking elements: content, vocabulary, pronunciation, accuracy, and fluency. The different scores of the pre-test and post-test were used to indicate the students’ progress in their speaking ability. The scores also showed the difference of the speaking ability of the students in the extrovert and introvert sub-groups. The data of the students’ personality types were gained by using questionnaire distributed to the experimental group. The questionnaire were constructed based on Jung model (1971, as cited in Maltby, Day & Macaskill, 2010) and adapted according to how extrovert and introvert students think, behave, interact and learn within the teaching and learning process. There were 21 questionnaire items which were arranged to represent dimensions of extrovert and introvert personality types namely: direct energy outward to people and conversation (extrovert) and direct energy inward to one’s own world (introvert). Based on the questionnaire data the students were classified into extrovert or introvert students.

**Results**

The results of the study are presented in the order of the answers of the two research questions.

**The Difference in Speaking Ability of Students Taught through PBL Using E-Poster and those Taught Using Conventional Teaching Strategy**

To determine the result of the research, preliminary statistical analyses of the pre-test scores of the experimental and control groups were performed to ensure that the requirement of the assumption of normality of the distribution and homogeneity of the scores were fulfilled. The result of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test showed that the speaking ability scores of students in the experimental and the control groups were normally distributed since all of the p-values of pre-test (0.317 and 0.158) in the two groups were greater than 0.05 level of significance. The scores were also homogenous as the result of the Levene test indicated that the comparison of the pre-test scores of both groups (0.268) was greater than 0.05.

Since there was no violation on normality and homogeneity on the pre-test scores of the two groups, parametric statistical analysis with independent samples t-test was administered to investigate the difference in the speaking ability of the students in the experimental and control groups. The result of independent samples t-test between the experimental and control groups in the speaking pre-test is depicted in Table 2.
Table 2. Comparison of Pre-test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-count</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>56.16</td>
<td>11.748</td>
<td>0.326</td>
<td>0.746</td>
<td>Not significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>55.23</td>
<td>10.423</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: \( t_{table} (5\% ; 59) = 2.001 \)

Table 2 shows that the pre-test scores of experimental and control groups test are quite comparable. Since the comparison of the mean of the experimental group (56.16) and that of the control group (55.23) with t-count 0.326 is smaller than \( t_{table} (2.001) \) and the p-value (0.746) is greater than 0.050 level of significance, it can be conjectured that there is no significant difference in speaking ability of the students in the experimental and control groups before being given the treatment. Accordingly, the comparison of the post-test scores of the two groups was also conducted by using independent samples t-test, and the result is displayed in Table 3.

Table 3. Comparison of Post-test Scores of the Experimental and Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-count</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>67.68</td>
<td>10.943</td>
<td>2.102</td>
<td>0.040</td>
<td>Significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>62.10</td>
<td>9.716</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: \( t_{table} (5\% ; 59) = 2.001 \)

Table 3 reveals that the comparison of the mean of the experimental group of students (67.68) is higher than the mean of the control group of students (62.10). Furthermore, with t-count (2.102) greater than \( t_{table} (2.001) \) and p-value (0.40) smaller than 0.050 level of significance, it is apparent that the difference of speaking ability between experimental and control groups of students after being exposed to the treatment is significant. The null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference in the speaking ability of EFL students taught through PBL using e-poster and those taught using the conventional teaching strategy is rejected. In other words, the treatment of PBL using e-poster affected the speaking ability of the students in the experimental group which is better than the speaking ability of the students in the control group who were taught using the conventional teaching strategy.

The Difference in Speaking Ability of the Extrovert and Introvert Students Taught through PBL Using E-Poster

Given that the result of analysis of the data to answer the first research question showed that there was a significant difference in the speaking ability of students taught through PBL using e-poster and those taught using conventional teaching strategy, the analysis continued to test the hypothesis of the second research question. The null hypothesis states that there is no significant difference in the speaking ability of extrovert and introvert students taught through PBL using e-poster. Independent samples t-test was also utilized to test the second hypothesis. Based on the data analysis from the personality type questionnaire distributed to 31 students of the experimental group, it was revealed that there were 17 extrovert students and 14 introvert students. The result of the analysis between extrovert and introvert students in the experimental group was demonstrated in Table 4.

Arab World English Journal
www.aiej.org
ISSN: 2229-9327
Table 4. Comparison of the Post-test Scores of the Extrovert and Introvert Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Score</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t-count</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>Analysis</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Speaking</td>
<td>Extrovert</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>66.50</td>
<td>11.269</td>
<td>0.654</td>
<td>0.518</td>
<td>Not-significant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post-test</td>
<td>Introvert</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>69.11</td>
<td>10.771</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: $t_{table}(5%; 29) = 2.045$

Table 4 portrays that the speaking ability of extrovert and introvert students is not significantly different, even though the mean of the extrovert students (66.50) is smaller than the mean of introvert students (69.11). Moreover, the t-count (0.654) is smaller than the t-table (2.045), and the p-value (0.518) is bigger than 0.05 level of significance. Thus, the null hypothesis stating that there is no significant difference in the speaking ability of extrovert and introvert students taught through PBL using e-poster is accepted. This indicates that there is no significant difference in the speaking ability of the extrovert students and introvert students taught PBL using e-poster. It also means that the personality types, extrovert and introvert in particular, do not contribute to students’ speaking ability when they were exposed with the treatment of PBL using e-poster.

Discussion

The results of the present study are discussed about the two research questions. The discussion is intended to interpret the results in relation to the existing theories and relevant research studies.

The Difference of Speaking Ability of Students Taught through PBL Using E-Poster and those Taught Using Conventional Teaching Strategy

This study revealed that there was a significant difference in the speaking ability of students who were taught through PBL using e-poster and those who were taught conventionally without PBL. The finding of this study is pertinent to the experts who assert that PBL is an instructional method which is more effective than the traditional method (e.g., Thomas, 2000). In EFL speaking classes, PBL created a learning circumstance in which the students work in teams to generate oral communicative forms in the target language (Dooly & Sadler, 2016). At the beginning of the project, students were anxious to express themselves using English since they have never spoken in English. They mostly communicated in their mother tongue because they were hesitant and embarrassed to use English to speak (Ur, 2012). They could not speak in complete sentences since they did not have enough vocabulary. In addition, they still pronounced some words inappropriately and somehow were also afraid to make mistakes on grammar.

Nevertheless, such speaking problems gradually subsided as the treatment of PBL exposed students to more opportunities to speak in English, enabled them to practice more and concentrate more on content rather than on the form. By doing the project, the students could explore any possible resources, to design and organize the ideas, to prepare their oral presentation, to rehearse their oral presentation draft, and finally to present their e-posters orally. They were offered peer and teacher feedback as well as assistance like translation especially for students having difficulty with communication and the task (Torres & Rodriguez, 2017). This also provided them with vocabulary, the pronunciation of some words, and sentence structure. In a nutshell, in spite of the anxiety and language limitation, students essentially constructed their oral production through a series of activities offered within the stages of PBL as it was verified by the higher speaking ability.
indicated by the scores obtained by students in the experimental group compared to those in the control group who were taught traditionally without PBL.

This finding of the study is in line with the result of research studies conducted by Zare-Behtash and Sarlak (2017). The result of this study was similar to the present study as they pointed out that PBL was an effective method to increase EFL university students’ speaking ability. The studies also showed students’ positive attitude toward the implementation of PBL in speaking class. The result of studies carried out by Torres and Rodriguez (2017) also confirmed the success of implementation of PBL in improving elementary students’ English-speaking ability as they were exposed to several speaking activities in the projects. The results displayed that the students were fostered to increase oral production in aspects of comprehension, vocabulary, grammar, fluency, and pronunciation. From the analysis of data from fieldnotes and interviews, it was indicated that students diminished their anxiety in speaking English and boosted awareness of their school community and society.

Applying e-poster as students’ project-based technology for oral presentation in this study signified a real assistance in generating students’ new ideas, activating their existing knowledge, exploring creativity and expressing their communicative skills in the form of interesting multimedia products to accommodate their procedural texts. By working together collaboratively in teams to create e-poster project through PBL, students were involved in a conducive learning environment that enabled them to discuss, decide and devote time, energy, and effort to produce a finished product (Padgett, 1994 as cited in Boggu & Singh 2015). Gónzalez, Molina, and Cardona (2017) highlighted the finding by concluding that applied project-based technology in language classroom encouraged a meaningful learning process of speaking and improved students’ self-confidence as well as their interaction. Additionally, with the integration of technology as the students’ group project, PBL allowed them to increase their creativity, communication, and collaboration skill needed in the 21st century learning.

The Comparison of Speaking Ability of Extrovert and Introvert Students Taught through Project-Based Learning (PBL) Using E-Poster

With regard to the second research question, the result of this study revealed that there was no significant difference in the speaking ability of extrovert and introvert students who were taught through PBL using e-poster. In other words, personality types of students—be they extrovert or introvert—did not affect their speaking ability when they were taught through PBL using e-poster. While it was stipulated that personality types could be a factor that affects second language learning (e.g., Ellis, 1994; Dornyei, 2005) the application of PBL which gave students opportunities to interact more with other students in teams in the completion of the project led to an effect which is not supportive of the stipulation,

It is commonly postulated that extrovert students are more successful and fluent in oral communication compared to introvert students (Dewaele & Furnham, 1999). This perception is primarily based on the extroverts’ preference for social contact with their environment in which they are active, showing a strong desire to communicate, and willing to express their ideas through speaking with others. Introverts, on the contrary, tend to avoid public exposure as they are less sociable and feel more comfortable for not taking part in communication (Khodareza & Taher,
Yet, this study suggested the opposite result in that both extrovert and introvert students could equally accomplish better in their speaking ability through PBL using e-poster.

Souzandehfar et al. (2014) reported the same finding which showed that there was no meaningful correlation between extrovert-introvert personality types and students’ speaking ability in IELTS test. Their research also reported that there was no significant difference between extrovert and introvert students in their speaking ability. We suspected that the extrovert students felt anxious when there was no exposure of English in the classroom. The extrovert students might be comfortable and fluent in speaking in their mother language, but they found it hard to speak in English. Conversely, introvert students who were interested more in the academic study felt prepared in speaking English as they enjoyed more on reading and listening in English than involving in oral interaction. They tend to have more exposure in English outside the classroom by themselves.

This study was also supported by Chen et al. (2015) who testified that introversion-extroversion was not the main factor influencing students’ accomplishment in oral English learning. In line with Souzandehfaret al (2014), the justification rooted from the observation which showed there were probable factors concerning the result: the setting of foreign language class which did not provide natural communication situation and students’ language output and intake. When introvert students equipped themselves with enough language input from reading any English resources and probably had suitable method to develop their English, on the other hand, the nature of extrovert personality could not ensure that they speak accurately. Although they were talkative and spoke much, they tend to speak with limited vocabulary, appropriate pronunciation as well as sentence pattern. Chen at al. (2015) also included motivation and culture as the factors influencing the students’ ability in speaking English. Students who were interested in learning English, despite their personality types, would be highly motivated to perform better in communicating in English. Moreover, unlike Western culture, Asian culture encouraged students to be quiet and pay attention to the teacher’s explanation in classroom as a form of respect to their teacher. Consequently, extrovert students who are active in their nature tend to be passive and quiet during the teaching and learning process.

However, the result of this study was contradictory to what was resulted on studies conducted by Yusef-Hasirchin (2014). The result of this study informed that the extrovert students achieved better than introvert students in oral performance. Compared to the introvert students, extrovert students more actively participated in an assigned task and accomplished a higher level of accuracy and fluency. Their findings disclosed that there was a significant difference in speaking ability between extrovert and introvert students and this is contradictory with the result of the present study.

Conclusions
This article has presented the result of exploration on the effect of PBL using e-poster on Indonesian EFL students’ speaking ability across personality types. The result revealed that there was a significant difference on speaking ability between students taught through PBL using e-poster and those taught conventionally without PBL. The treatment of PBL using e-poster contributed to students’ speaking ability as it showed that the students in the experimental group
achieve better scores than those in the control group. Compared to the conventional teaching strategy applied in the control group, the speaking activities offered through learning stages of PBL were proven effective to accommodate students in increasing their speaking ability in spite of their fear of speaking and language limitation. The result also indicated that there was no significant difference between extrovert and introvert students taught through PBL using e-poster. Extrovert and introvert students had an equal chance to achieve better in speaking test since there was no evidence that their personality types affected their speaking ability. The difference in the students’ speaking ability was possibly influenced by factors of foreign language classroom setting, students’ intake and output, motivation and culture. Thus, it is important that English teachers take more concern on those possible factors and exclude the personality types to help students improve their achievement in their speaking class. Recognition of those factors will assist teachers to understand and decide which learning strategies are effective for extrovert as well as introvert students in language learning and particularly in speaking.

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References


Speakers’ Identities in Online Interaction

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Abstract
Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) is acknowledged to represent a social space where people interact with others who may not necessarily know them. They can also recreate their own identities in the course of their interaction. This study investigates ways in which the identities of speakers can be revealed by their use of language in multiple-participant conversations. In particular, the study aims to elicit the strategies that speakers employ the most by analysing the way they talk at a micro-analytic level, and the ways in which they organise and sequence their turns at talking. The results show that the processes of turn-taking and topic development are subject to distraction and breakdown in computer-mediated environments. There are many instances of pauses caused by frequent overlaps between participants. The accents of participants are considered the main feature which can constitute one’s identity in voice-based chat-rooms. Other factors such as communication and technical skills, systems and server speeds could also have an effect on such communication. Additionally, the participants seem to employ certain strategies to overcome interactional limitations of CMC systems, such as the use of pauses, quiet and loud intonation, and stress of particular syllables of some words. These strategies can contribute to determining the speaker’s identity.

Keywords: Identity, online interaction, computer-mediated communication, conversation analysis

Cite as: Alenazi, O. S. (2019). Speakers’ Identities in Online Interaction. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1)84-93.
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.8
Introduction

Various studies of social interaction describe identity as a social, dialogic, and negotiable entity (Antaki & Widdicombe, 1998). However, research on identity has generally examined distal, larger social contexts rather than contiguous social contexts, whereby a learner’s identity is discursively formed through social interaction. Understanding each other’s identities can help speakers form better and more positive impressions about their interlocutors, and reduce uncertainty. In face-to-face meetings and even telephone conversations, crucial aspects of identity are usually revealed, such as gender, age, and race. Nonetheless, these features of identity are entirely masked by Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC); all that is shown is what we decide to reveal (Stone, 1996).

Computer-Mediated Communication is considered a recent cultural phenomenon that may appear puzzling to those outside the field. Early research on language use in CMC has concentrated on language features unique to the medium (Prantl, 2016). As CMC has become more popular among people, the registers used in CMC have extended, and research emphasis has moved from “mapping genre specific language features to analysing interactional patterns” (Prantl, 2016, p. 1). There are two main CMC modes, i.e., synchronous and asynchronous, which may be used for different purposes. The main impact on language use in CMC, according to Herring (2004), is the difference between synchronous and asynchronous CMC. Generally speaking, in synchronous communication users participate in real-time interaction, whereas in asynchronous communication they have more opportunity to think and answer (Abrams, 2003). In other words, synchronous communication forms involve users who are logged in simultaneously, allowing for practically direct feedback, which in turn leads to messages scrolling out of sight swiftly. In asynchronous communication forms such as emails or web forums, users are not required to be all present at the same time; thus, messages are stored and available for extended periods of time. This division, nevertheless, might not always be useful. “Some forms of what might be considered asynchronous CMC, such as comments on blog posts, might temporarily become synchronous or near-synchronous” (Prantl, 2016, p. 8).

In normal interaction, speakers often encounter some sort of disruption or overlapping during their talk. This situation may be exaggerated in the absence of nonverbal cues (as is the case in voice-based conversations) where speakers cannot see each other. However, anonymity can sometimes have positive value as it creates opportunities for the participants to reformulate alternative versions for themselves and to engage in new forms of interaction (Myers, 1987). On the other hand, a lack of the speakers’ identities may have an impact on floor management in conversation. Herring (1999) indicates that in interaction where speakers cannot see each other, knowing when to take a turn during talk is a potentially difficult task, and this results in the turn adjacency becoming disjointed. Thus, knowing the speakers’ identities in such situations seems pivotal in avoiding any potential problems.

It is true that technology overcomes time and space barriers that would otherwise hinder people’s communication. Technology also enables them to interact with each other almost wherever and whenever they want. However, computer-mediated communications are often
marked as impersonal when compared to face-to-face interactions. An explanation could be that CMC deprives us of most, if not all, forms of non-verbal features that have an essential role in our everyday lives. Research shows that linguistic and paralinguistic features (e.g., facial expressions, gestures) are both essential for most communicative processes (Clark, 1996).

This study aims to investigate how the use of language in multiple-participant conversations can help to reveal the speakers’ identity. Specifically, we will look at the strategies employed most by the participants through analysing their talk at a micro-analytic level, and how they organise and sequence their turns during conversation.

**Theoretical background on identity**

Researchers working in the fields of social sciences have taken an intense interest in what constitutes the term ‘identity’. Thus, a variety of definitions has been proposed to describe this term (e.g., Hogg & Abrams, 1988, Deng 1995, Jenkins 1996). However, Fearon (1999) argues that dictionary definitions have failed to depict the word’s current meanings in everyday and social science contexts. ‘Identity’ can be described as a social category, defined by membership rules and alleged distinctive attributes or estimated behaviours; or, it could be socially unique features or views in which speakers take a special pride as constant but socially consequential (Fearon, 1999). Additionally, ‘identity’ can be referred to as a modern formulation of dignity, pride, or honour that are perfectly connected to social categories.

Baggioni and Kasbarian (1996) differentiate two types of identity, i.e., the personal and the collective. They also name ‘identification’ as the process connecting the personal to the collective. This latter type of identity is mostly studied in the field of discourse analysis under the name of social identity, which is defined as “that part of an individual’s self-concept that came from knowledge of his/her membership in a social group, together with emotional significance attached to it” (Duszak, 2002, p. 2).

Young (2008: 108) argues that identity has two paradoxical meanings emphasising that: In one sense it is the stable sense of self-hood attached to a physical body which, although it changes over time, is somehow the same; in a second sense, it refers to what we do in a particular context, and of course we do different things in different contexts. (P. 9)

Young indicates that the first sense of identity facilitates distinguishing an individual from another, even if they have the same name. However, individuality may be more important in some cultures than others. For example, individuals value their distinctive identity by wearing different clothes, speaking differently, or by competing in order to differentiate themselves from others. However, in some other cultures it could be more valued not to discern oneself from others, i.e., by wearing the same clothes, talking in similar ways, or sharing in teamwork.

With regard to identity in social processes, Zimmerman (1998) offers a practical framework for considering the way identities are positioned in processes working over different time-scales, when he differentiates between:
a) Discourse (or interactional) identities, for example ‘story teller/story recipient’, ‘questioner/answerer’, ‘inviter/invitee’, which we are continuously taking on and leaving as talk progresses;

b) Situated (or institutional) identities, such as ‘teacher/student’, ‘doctor/patient’, which come into play in particular kinds of institutional settings;

c) Transportable identities which are hidden, move with people through their daily routine, and are potentially relevant at any time (e.g., old man, working class woman).

d) Zimmerman (1998) further suggests that “…it is important to distinguish between the registering of visible indicators of identity and orient to identity which pertains to the capacity in which an individual should act in a particular situation.” (p. 91) Consequently, a participant may classify a co-interactant as a young person or a female with no orientation to those identities being related to the instant interaction.

Additionally, Park (2007) argues that an identity is “conceptualized as an inherently social product that is jointly created by interactants, rather than as a pre-determined, psychological construct that is lodged within each individual’s mind.” (p. 341) Conversations work on a turn-by-turn basis, i.e., “the speaker’s understanding and analysis of a prior turn is reflected in the way that a current turn is constructed” (Park, 2007, p. 341). Furthermore, Schegloff and Sacks (1973) accentuate that the sequential organization of talk manifests how identity is invoked in people’s talk, engaging others to orient to that identity and reveal how it has been understood.

Another key theoretical basis for understanding identity co-construction is participation, which is organised through turn-taking as well as turn internally occurring embodied actions. “Participation places a particular emphasis on a hearer’s role as an active co-participant” (Park, 2007, p. 431). Analysis of participation shows that a hearer can participate in constructing his/her identity along with constructing an activity through talk and the body.

Furthermore, identity is viewed as “a situated, emergent construct that arises from the contingencies of local interaction. Identity ascription is thus highly context-specific” (Park, 2007, p. 341). In fact, this view is in line with Sacks’ (1972) idea of Membership Categorization Device (MCD), where words can act as ‘devices’ that force a set of otherwise arbitrary objects into a ‘category’ with ‘members’. Sacks (1972) asserts that people have some knowledge about collections of categories (e.g., male/female, native-speaker/non-native speaker). This knowledge enables us to describe people in a certain way in a given sense, and construct their identities. In addition, Sacks has introduced another term, ‘category-bound activities.’ This means that, when we put someone in a category, we imply that each category has its set of members. However, each member has his/her own set of behaviours, rights, beliefs and obligations that go together with the role.

The final point to be made in this respect is the fact that identity is immensely negotiable and that it can be explained in terms of the relative positioning of people toward each other. We may choose to explicitly show our identity, but in many cases these identities are revealed without
any intervention on our part. For example, the selection of the garments we put on is largely a voluntary choice to show identity. On the other hand, the accent with which we speak can give away our identities to the people with whom we speak (Alenazi, 2014).

**Analysis and Discussion**

The data analysed in this study is drawn from a 27-seconds conversation of multi-participants’ voice-based CMC. For the analysis of the data, conversation analysis (CA)¹ has been used to investigate the speakers’ identities in a multi-participant chat-room at a micro-analytic level. The analysis of CMC interaction in simulated environments can reveal some features of the learners’ identity (Alonso-Belmonte & Vinagre, 2017). The aim of using CA is to give a clear understanding of the interactional nuances of what happens in the interactions under study. A detailed overview of conversation analysis is beyond the scope of this study. However, it is noteworthy that the CA framework has been applied to a range of different settings, such as courtrooms, classrooms, and computer-mediated communication (Drew & Heritage, 1992).

The following section aims to present the data; this will be done using a two-tier approach. That is, it will start by a general description of the extract, and then it will be followed by a deeper analysis of the interaction at hand. The following extract demonstrates different characteristics of multiple participants’ talk:

**Extract 1:**

1. S1:  hhh (.) uh::: [yes
2. S2:  [I’m Romanian (0.6)
3. S3:  < who is uh:: (0.3) Romanian ↑ ? ((in a Borat voice)) (0.9)
4. S1:  Robin. was ↓ ((inaudible)) (2.0)

The conversation starts by S1 laughing and saying *yes*, which indicates that he has finished his turn and is now aiming to give the floor to another speaker. Then S2 overlaps the end of S1’s turn when he introduces himself in a Borat voice, such that the word ‘*yes*’ and the sentence “*I’m Romanian*” are said at the same time. This overlap leads to a short pause (0.6), after which S3 joins the conversation, trying to imitate S1 (i.e., speaking in a Borat voice). S3 might have deliberately spoken in the same accent as S1 as a way of constructing his own identity, since knowing the identity of the co-speakers is crucial to understanding the interaction (Donath, 1999). Voice-based CMC is an opportunity for participants to construct their identities by themselves, since in the real world it is framed by others. Therefore, self-presentation can be a new form of identity constitution.

In line (4) the word *uh::* is elongated and stretched, and there is a (0.3) pause before S3 utters the word “Romanian.” Again, there is another pause in line (5) before S2 tries to respond to the previous question proposed by S3; however, the end of his response is inaudible. This simultaneous talk is followed by a (2.0) pause that would be considered relatively long in natural
talk. As we can see in this short extract, there are frequent pauses in the conversation and comprehensibility does not seem to be achieved. This could be because the participants did not get acquainted with each other at the beginning of their talk. Also, these overlapping utterances and pauses are some of the features associated with multi-participant CMC chat-rooms where nonverbal elements are absent.

**Extract 2:**

8  S3: [“hh ah”]
9  S1: Do you [know something about-]
10 S3: [I was born]
11  (1.1)
12 S1: na:[:::
13 S3: [I was born in. eh. Romania ((in a Borat voice))]
14  (1.4)

In this extract, S3 rejoins the floor as in line (8) in a relatively quieter voice than the previous turn; this could indicate that he has some trouble understanding S1’s initiation. However, S1 does not try to clarify his speech; rather, he shifts the focus of the speech and posts an incomplete initiation. No response is received as it overlaps with S3’s response. This overlap between S1 and S3 causes a momentary pause (1.1). The sudden stop in articulation is interactionally relevant, for two reasons:

a) it is strategically located after an utterance that has been produced at almost the same time, and

b) it momentarily opens the floor as it represents a turn transition relevant place for S2 to regain the floor (Jenks, 2009).

Subsequently, S1 displays a negative stretched response, ‘na:[ ::]’, in line (12) which is overlapped by S3’s utterance in the same Borat voice. Both S1 and S3 respond to this overlapping conversation by letting the floor open for more than a second (i.e., 1.4). This pause resets the floor and gives the speaker the chance to renegotiate speakership. Jenks (2009) considers such placement after many overlapping utterances as an example of a strategy that the speakers use to prevent the uncertainty that results from more than one participant speaking at the same time. Moreover, it is noticeable that the turn-taking in CMC does not stick to the ideal that speakers’ turns alternate in an orderly way. The speakers are unable to predict whether their interlocutor is going to respond; they may have been impatient, thus initiating another question before a response to the first has been received. This results in unfinished and interleaved exchange sequences (Condon & Cech, 1996).

**Extract 3:**

15  S4: are you t-[are y- ]
16  S1: [have you] ever
17  (.)
18  S4: eh-
19  (0.3)
This extract begins with S4 asking a question and then stopping suddenly, as there is an overlap with S1 in the second part of his utterance. As can be seen, there are frequent overlaps between S1 and S4 from the beginning of the conversation; both of them are heard producing two simultaneous utterances. In lines 16 and 20, S1 does not complete his utterances, which may indicate a lack of linguistic repertoire or communication skills. For this reason, a new set of linguistic skills and communication strategies is needed when frequent overlapping utterances occur (Lamy, 2004). The frequent multiple initiations may reflect the difficulty participants have in determining whose turn is next. S4 tries to take part in the conversation, perhaps wanting to demonstrate membership knowledge as in the following example:

Noticeably, S4 stops in the middle of his talk for (0.6) and then re-establishes the floor and continues to talk. In this case, he is being disruptive by coming in quickly and there is no evidence in line 20 that S1 wants to give up the floor. This example highlights the value of using pauses to avoid overlapping talk as they help to facilitate a transition between the speakers; also, pauses are the socially acceptable thing to do when multiple overlapping talks happen (Jenks, 2009).

In order to show his knowledge, S4 is trying to relate S1’s voice to the famous character of Borat. It is obvious that lines 20 and 21, connected by two equal signs, are by different speakers; this means that S4 follows S1 with no discernable silence between them, and is ‘latched’ to it. One interesting point that could be noted is what Tracy (2002: 18) calls master identities, which she defines as “...those aspects of personhood that are relatively stable and unchanging.” These master identities are indexed by the idea of habitus, which refers to socially acquired inclinations, tendencies, or predispositions that are revealed in many ways, including ways of talking. An example of habitus could be the person’s accent, which contributes greatly to establishing the master identity of people as it enables us to categorise their national origin or ethnic identity. From S4’s accent, one can categorise him as an Indian speaker.

Going back to the extract, we notice a short pause in line 23, which may indicate that the other speakers had no idea about Borat; lack of membership knowledge can impede the flow and dynamics of the interaction. Iwasaki (1997) points out that when a speaker communicates unknown information, he or she is more likely to control the floor; thus, less participation is expected. Then in line 24, S2 provides some information about Borat; however, no response or comments are offered, and it is followed by another pause. After all, S3 mocks the previous
statement (line 26) somewhat by the rise and fall of agreement tokens and laughing, imitating S1’s accent. This behaviour brings Boudourides’ (1995) view to mind, that the anonymity of the participants increases the absence of typical social ties. Anonymity has a double effect: while it lessens the level of social pressure on the participants, the level of the unpleasant communication is likely to increase with the liberation of the people (Boudourides, 1995).

Conclusion

Computer-mediated communication (CMC) refers to any human communication that happens through the use of two or more electronic devices. CMC activities can be either asynchronous, such as writing emails and posting responses to a discussion board online, or virtual synchronous conversations, such as those held in chat rooms (AbuSeileek & Qatawneh, 2013). This study has shown that, in multi-participant communication, there are few cues to identity. This results in frequent overlaps between the participants, which lead to many instances of pauses. This could be an explanation of the apparent inconsistency and incoherence of the interaction, as CMC has been claimed to be interactionally incoherent. Particularly, the processes of turn-taking and topic development are subject to distraction and breakdown in computer-mediated environments. The accent of the participants can be considered as the main feature that can constitute one’s identity in voiced-based chat-rooms. In extract 1 we have seen how S2’s accent, in the incipience of the conversation, turned the subsequent talk to be about accent and culture. This attracted others’ attention to engage in the talk and initiate different utterances about cultural identities. In most chat-rooms there are multiple participants who are unable to see each other; thus their roles do not necessarily follow a logical sequential order. Other factors such as communication and technical skills, systems, and server speeds could have an impact on such communication. Moreover, the participants seemed to employ certain strategies to overcome any interactional limitations of CMC systems, such as the use of pauses, quiet and loud intonation, and stress of some syllables of the words. These strategies can contribute to determining the speaker’s identity.

Acknowledgements:
The author would like to thank the Deanship of Scientific Research, King Saud University, for funding this research project.

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**Appendix**

**Transcription Conventions (Atkinson and Heritage, 1984)**

- [[ ]] Simultaneous utterances – (beginning [[ ) and ( end]])
- [ ] Overlapping utterances – (beginning [ ) and (end])
- = Contiguous utterances
- (0.4) Represents the tenths of a second between utterances
- (.) Represents a micro-pause (1 tenth of a second or less)
- : Sound extension of a word (more colons demonstrate longer stretches)
- . Fall in tone (not necessarily the end of a sentence)
- , Continuing intonation (not necessarily between clauses)
- - An abrupt stop in articulation
- ? Rising inflection (not necessarily a question)
- ___ Underlined words indicate emphasis
- ↑ ↓ Rising or falling intonation (after an utterance)
- [° °] Surrounds talk that is quieter
- hhh Audible aspirations
- .hhh Inhalations
- .hh. Laughter within a word
- >> Surrounds talk that is faster
- << Surrounds talk that is slower
- (( )) Analyst’s notes

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1 The analysis is based on transcription conventions in Atkinson and Heritage (1984, see Appendix).

ii Borat is an American film which was written and produced by the British comedian Sacha Baron Cohen, who also played the role of Borat. He represented a fictitious character of a Kazakh journalist travelling through the United States and recording real-life interactions with Americans. Baron Cohen won the 2007 *Golden Globe Award* for Best Actor: Musical or Comedy, as Borat, and the film was nominated for *Best Motion Picture* in the same category.
The Effectiveness of E-6tslearning in Teaching Reading for Academic Purposes to the Students with Different Learning Styles

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Abstract
This research was done to have the answers of these main questions; 1) what learning style dominates the reading ability?; 2) how is the implementation of E-6tslearning?; and 3) how is the effectiveness of E-6tslearning in teaching reading for academic purpose?. The objectives of this study are 1) to explain the learning style dominates the reading ability; 2) to explain the implementation of E-6tslearning in teaching reading for the academic purpose; 3) to explain the effectiveness of E-6tslearning as the method in teaching reading for academic purposes. The research design used was 2x3 ANOVA factorial designs. The subject of the study was forty-four third semester students of the English Department of Pekalongan University, Indonesia. Twenty-two students became an experimental class, and twenty-two students became control class. The experimental was treated by using the E-6tslearning method, and the control class was given the lecturing. The result shows that the visual learning style dominated the reading ability. The dominant reason was that seeing the text and images make them focused. The E-6tslearning method was applied well online by the lecturer. It was done in and out of the class so that the students have more time to read and write. The use of 6TS method was effective to teach reading proven by the increased score of the experimental class. It was increased to 77.1 for the visual; 71.4 for the aural; and 65 for the kinesthetic group.

Keywords: e-6tslearning, learning styles, reading for academic purposes

Cite as: Permanasari, P., Saleh, M., Rukmini, D., & Mujiyanto, J. (2019). The Effectiveness of E-6tslearning in Teaching Reading for Academic Purposes to the Students with Different Learning Styles. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 94- 104.  
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.9
The Effectiveness of E-6tslearning in Teaching Reading
Permanasari, Saleh, Rukmini, & Mujiyanto

Introduction

The students’ capability in learning English should be higher and higher because of the present development of globalization. English is an international language that plays an important role in communication. Everyone must be able to communicate in English actively. In Indonesia, English is learned as a foreign language. Since English is considered as a foreign language, it makes many learners face difficulties in learning it. The students’ lack of motivation becomes one of the problems in learning English.

It can be caused by the way teachers teach or the teaching methods used by the teachers. The students will easily get bored whenever the teacher teaches them using a traditional way that is lecturing. The students are passive agents in the teaching and learning process. The interesting teaching and learning process should involve the students as the center of the learning. Some interesting strategies and media can be used to help the students become interested in the process. If the teacher cannot use interesting media or strategies, the students will have some problems. Due to the nature of the language that is hardly found in Bahasa Indonesia, many of them take it as a difficult lesson to learn. As a result, they skip class, and when they attend the class, it is not because they want to learn English but likely because they fear of failure. Moreover, lots of them may lack of attention during class, chatting with classmates, doodling in their note books or gasp in their textbooks.

Learning process at the university level will be more effective when a lot of components support it. One of the components is lecturer. Lecturer plays a vital role to make the teaching and learning process succeeded such as by having the four lecturer’s competences: pedagogic, professional, social and personal. In teaching process, the lecturer can apply his pedagogical competence using learning methods and media. The methods and media can help the students to master the material easier. Thereby, to define effective classroom teaching methods, lecturers need to master the way to assess the students. Some studies reported that several aspects are required for the lecturer to learn such as setting realistic goals, reinforcing learning, diversifying teaching methods, varying evaluation styles, using various teaching instruments and media, performance monitoring, setting marking schemes, and giving effective feedback (Anderson, 2004). In addition, lecturers’ open-mindedness to accept students’ diversity, selecting different methods and reinforcements for each student are factors that contributed to effective classroom teaching methods (Harslett, et.al, 2000).

In this global and modern era, lecturers are not only supposed to have a sophisticated literacy in some ways, but also should be able to make the students well-literate. The students should comprehend at least the basic literacy that is reading and writing.

Dubin and Kuhlman (1992) discuss the changing definition of literacy: the 'literacy' part of our title has taken on meanings that go beyond the simple definition of 'reading and writing' as we had conceived of it in 1984....we acknowledge that the word literacy itself has come to mean competence, knowledge and skills (p.vi).
Literacy in some ways is not only reading and writing. There is multi literacy such as verbal literacy, basic literacy, media literacy, visual literacy, cultural literacy, computer literacy, and science literacy.

![Diagram of Multi Literacy]

*Figure 1. Multiliteracy*

It is hoped that the students will have that kind of multiliteracy. The students, in this case, are expected to be literate to use digital literacy as well. The writer will only focus on the discussion of literacy on the students’ ability in reading for academic purposes. Reading is a receptive skill, but it acquires the students’ ability in comprehending the content of the text. In fact, the ability to use language communicatively is not just using a single skill. According to (Oxford, 2001), the four basic skills are related to each other by two parameters: the mode of communication: oral or written the direction of communication: receiving or producing the message. Most teachers try to incorporate those four language skills in their planning, but some cases only focus only on a skill or set of skills (Oxford, 2001).

At the university level, reading skill is divided into three levels, they are: reading for general communication, reading for professional context, and reading for academic purposes. All of those skills are based on the Common European Framework to be transformed into the university curriculum structure. The orientation of reading for academic purposes is in the students’ critical and constructive thinking on informative topics or news, scientific writings such as textbook and researches. The government enforces that the students should have high order thinking skill (HOTS), they think academically and transform it to their learning process.

In this digital era, the use of digital aids helps the lecturer much to have more effective learning. The use of an online method of teaching makes the lecturer and students have more time to study. Like what has been done by the writer, she improved the digital aid to be used in the teaching and learning process of reading and writing. She designed an online teaching method to make the students motivated and get an interest in the learning process.

The writer conducted the research on the students’ reading for academic proficiency used E-6tslearning (time, text, teach, talk, task, test, and summary) method created by Allington. He applied the 6TS as an effective and good literacy instruction.
One of the important components influencing the teaching and learning process is students’ learning styles. Learning styles show the students’ individual differences in learning that play important roles in the teaching and learning process. Khenissi et al. define that learning style is how learners practice, process, store, and retell attempts of learning (Khenissi, et al., 2016). There are so many numbers of students’ learning style. Respecting the students’ learning styles will help the lecturer in designing and innovating the course materials so that the students can find better quality in allowing the content presentation, interacting and creating the new atmosphere that has not been experienced before. Since there are some numbers of learning styles so the lecturer should consider the way and methods to deliver the material. Some of the students’ learning styles are visual, aural and kinesthetic.

From that background, the writer conducted a research on the students’ proficiency of reading for academic purposes for students with different learning style.

**Theoretical Review**

According to Khenissi et al. (2016) reading comprehension is a process in which information from the text and the knowledge possessed by the reader act together to construct meaning.

Serravallo (2014) states that comprehension is at the heart of what it means to really read by thinking and understanding and getting at the meaning behind text.

Comprehension instruction begins before students can even conventionally read. Richards and Renandya (2000) point out the particular focus that reading receives in foreign language learning. To them, there are two important reasons for this. First, many foreign language students often have read as one of their most important goals. The second is various pedagogical purposes served by written texts help reading to receive this special focus.

Learning styles are defined as the procedures of teaching which an individual prefers in a certain period of his or her development (Mares, 1998). Mares adds that learning styles can be understood as a meta-strategy, which brings together distinct learning strategies, learning tactics, and learning operations. Learning styles lead the individuals to the learning outcomes of a particular type, but can also complicate the achievement of other results. The learning styles can be grouped based on the sensory preference that is represented by VARK classification (acronym for Visual, Aural, Read/Write, Kinesthetic) (Fleming, 1995). The classification of learning style is characterized by taking into account the type of sense which is preferred by the students in the process of learning.

6TS (Time, Texts, Teach, Talk, Tasks, Test, Summary) is a teaching method created by Richard Allington (2002). He creates 6TS to teach reading and writing. According to Allington, there are some steps that the teacher does in applying 6TS in teaching writing (Permanasari, 2017). In this research, the use of 6TS is used online. It is modified by the writer using digital aid so that the lecturer and students can access it well in or out of class.
The Effectiveness of E-6tslearning in Teaching Reading

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Figure 2. E-6tslearning

6TS is the abbreviation of:

1. **Time**
   In this reading for academic purposes, the lecturer does not only ask the students to read a text but also three supporting texts in a week. The timer is set up by the lecturer.

2. **Text**
   The lecturer provides some texts to be read by the students. The text is based on the students’ level. It can be given every day to make the students comprehend a lot of reading text. The motivation for reading was dramatically influenced by students’ reading success.

3. **Teach**
   The important part of teaching is to provide appropriate time allotment and teaching materials. But in this method, the active instruction such as the lecturer’s modeling and demonstration take important roles to gain good readers.

4. **Talk**
   This step is an important step to talk lecturer-students and student-students. This talk was problem-posing, problem-solving talk related to curricular topics. In other words, teachers and students discussed ideas, concepts, hypotheses, strategies, and responses with others.

Figure 3. Talk Display
5. Task
The lecturer gives the students longer assignment and reduces to have multiple choices to measure the students’ comprehension. They read whole books, completed individual and small group projects, and worked on tasks that integrated several content areas (reading, writing, and social studies).

Figure 4. Task Display

6. Test
It is the time for the lecturer to evaluate the students’ reading and writing proficiency. It means that the lecturer gives an individual test and measurement so that the difference achievement among the students will be seen.

7. Summary
Summarizing may also be discussed within the context of deep level processing which engages students in an in-depth analysis of the read text (Oded & Walters, 2001). Students, when they summarize, put significant mental effort into text analysis, identifying and selecting the most important information, investigating the structure of the text, generalizing information, condensing information and constructing the gist of paragraphs, and consequently the gist of a text.

Figure 5. Summary Display
There are so many definitions about E-Learning from a lot of sources. Masters (2009) defines that ‘E’ in E-Learning is not abbreviated from Electronic, but is abbreviated from everywhere, everything, everybody, enhanced, and involved. The second definition is stated by Cheng (2006) that E-Learning is anything delivered, enabled, and mediated by electronic technology for learning online. In line with Cheng, Fee (2005) says that E-Learning is all learning done using internet or intranet. The learning is done online by the students and teacher online in and out of the classroom.

Conceptual Framework

The writer designed an online teaching method based on the finding of the preliminary study which shows that the students’ interest in reading and writing is not so good. The teaching method developed by the writer is created by Allington that is 6TS (time, text, teach, talk, task, test and summary) in having literacy proficiency in reading and writing. The writer relates it with the multi literacy such as reading, writing, science, computer and digital literacy. The writer developed 6TS method created by Allington in online way and calls it as E-6tslearning. It makes the lecturer and students possible to have more time to learn reading and writing both in class and out of class.

Research Methodology

The writer used experimental research using factorial design. It is 2x3 ANOVA design. The design is as follow:

Table 1. 2 x 3 ANOVA Design

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Method (A)</th>
<th>Learning Style (B)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visual (B1)</td>
<td>Aural (B2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time, Text, Teach, Talk, Task, Test, and Summary (6TS) (A1)</td>
<td>A1B1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lecturing teaching method (A2)</td>
<td>A2B1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The writer used E-6tslearning learning method in teaching reading for academic purpose to the students with visual, aural and kinesthetic learning styles. She checked the effectiveness of using E-6tslearning method for those three groups.

The population of the study is forty four students of the third semester. Twenty two of them from class A became the control class. Twenty two students from class B became the experimental class. The writer taught class A using lecturing method while class B using E-6tslearning method.

The methods of collecting the data are using interview, test, questionnaire and documentation. The writer interviewed the lecturer of reading for academic purposes class about the method he
used in teaching and the students’ ability. The test was used to measure the students’ proficiency. There were pre-test and post-test. The pre-test was used to explain the students’ ability in writing before being treated by using the E-6tslearning method. While post-test was given to explain the effectiveness of the E-6tslearning method in teaching reading for academic purposes of students with visual, aural and kinesthetic learning styles. The questionnaire was used to explain the students’ reading skill and summary writing.

**Results**

The result of the first research question that is about the learning style that dominated the students’ reading proficiency is as follow:

In the experimental class, there are seven visual learning style students, seven aural learning style students, and eight kinesthetic learning style students. While in the control group, there are eight visual learning style students, seven aural learning style students, and seven kinesthetic learning style students. The writer used the pre-test to find out what learning style dominated the students reading proficiency.

The result of the test indicated that in the experimental class the average of the visual group is 67.7; the aural group got 63.5, and the kinesthetic group got 64.3 percent. In the experimental class visual group dominated the students’ reading proficiency followed by the kinesthetic group and the last one is the aural group. In the control class the average of the visual group is 65.2; aural group got 63; and the last one is kinesthetic got 63.7. In the control class, the dominating group affected the students’ reading proficiency is the visual group. The second group dominated the students’ reading proficiency is a kinesthetic group and the last one is the aural group.

**Discussion**

From those results, it can be concluded that the visual learning style dominated the students’ reading proficiency both in the experimental and control class. Based on the students’ questionnaire, the students of visual group said that they can easily remember information when they read or write it down. They like seeing text, picture or margin in the text book because it can make them keep focused. They like writing what they read because it can help them memorize the content of the text. Those conditions are suitable with the reading proficiency in which it needs the help of ability to look and doodle on the text. When they read they need to focused on the text and write the content of the text.

The result of the second research question is about the implementation of E-6tslearning in teaching reading for academic purposes. The lecturer applied the E-6tslearning method in teaching reading for academic purposes well online in or out of the class. First, the lecturer gave the students time to read for about 30 minutes. The lecturer provided the main text to read by the students. Then he gave the students task to find out and read three to six supporting texts to give stronger evidences on the main text. The students should present it in groups after reading the texts. The next stage is the lecturer gave the students main text, and individually he asked the students to read three supporting texts. The students wrote the summary of those texts individually. The summary writing can show how well the students comprehend the texts.
The last question is about the effectiveness of the use of 6TS method in teaching reading for academic purposes. The use of 6TS method to teach reading for academic purposes is effective. It is proven by the increasing of the students’ scores from the pre-test and post-test. The post-test was done after giving the students treatment. The experimental class increased better than the control class. In the post-test, the visual group of the experimental class got 77.1; the aural group got 71.4, and the kinesthetic group got 65.

Table 2. The students’ Scores of Experimental Class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>V</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>K</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>67.7</td>
<td>63.5</td>
<td>64.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the students’ post-test scores in the control group increased but not significantly. In the visual group the average of the students’ post-test is 67.5. In the aural group is decreased became 57.1, and the kinesthetic group got 65.7.

Table 3. Control Class Students’ Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>V</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>K</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Test</td>
<td>65.2</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>63.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Test</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From those scores, it is proven that the use of E-6tslearning is effective to teach reading for academic purposes.

The comparison between the result of post-test in the control group and the experimental group is very significant. It can be seen in the following table:

Table 4. The Significant Difference in the Control and Experimental Groups Post Test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>V</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>K</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>77.1</td>
<td>71.4</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>67.5</td>
<td>57.1</td>
<td>65.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The table shows that the average of post-test score of experimental class is higher than the control class. The use of E-6tslearning can be said effectively to teach reading for academic purposes. It can make the students motivated in reading and writing.

Conclusion

From the results of the research, the writer can conclude that the dominant learning style in students’ reading proficiency is a visual learning style. It is because the students with visual learning style can easily comprehend the text by looking at the text and write the content of the text. The second, the lecturer applied E-6tslearning method using the right stages in teaching the reading for academic purposes. The last one is the use of E-6tslearning method is effective to teach reading for academic purposes because it can increase the students’ score in reading. The result of post test in the experimental class is higher than the control class. The students’ ability in reading and writing has significantly increased.
comprehending the text is better and can be proven by the summary writing written by the students based on the text.

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References


The Effect of Using Peer Assessment Training on Writing Performance among Arab EFL High School Students in Malaysia

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Abstract
Peer assessment training has appeared as potential new tools for enhancing Arab English as foreign language (EFL) high school students on writing performance. The purpose of this research was to investigate the effect of using peer assessment training on writing performance among Arab EFL high school students. One hundred and twenty students aged fifteen and sixteen years old participated in this study with an equal number of male and female students. The students were from two Arab high schools in Malaysia. This study employed a quasi-experimental research design. Data was collected using Analytical Marking Scale (Alderson, et al., 1995) to assess student’s writing performance in the pretest and posttest. The result of this study shows that there is a significant difference in the writing performances between the experimental and control groups at P < 0.001. The findings suggest that students who have been exposed to peer assessment training write a better draft compared with those students who were only given conventional training in writing an essay, and without the benefit of peer feedback.

Keywords: Arab EFL, peer assessment, writing performance

1. Introduction
Peer assessment (PA) is a communicative strategy that are used by teachers in language classrooms to actively engage students in the learning process by having them assess their peers’ work based on the teacher’s benchmark. PA is a form of formative assessment where feedback on the learning is collected from the students themselves. Later, after training students on peer assessment, this students-generated feedback is exchanged with their peers and is used to improve their performance, be it in either written or spoken activities. As a form of assessment for learning, PA has been regarded by Topping (2009) as “an arrangement for the learner to consider and specify the level, value or quality of a product or performance of other equal-status learners” (p. 20). Based on this scenario, teachers guide their students to take an active role towards their learning and their peers’ production language. This practice also enables students to assume more responsibilities in making decisions that will ultimately influence the peers’ work and performance.

Previous studies conducted on the effect of peer assessment (PA) training at the university level have shown have shown to impact positively on students’ writing performance and feedback exchange in most aspects of academic activities (Al-Barakat & Al-Hassan, 2009; van den Berg, Admiraal, & Pilot, 2006; Weaver & Esposto, 2011). It should be noted that most of these studies were focused on undergraduate and postgraduate students. However, there is still a difficult use of peer assessment among high school students. that looks into the effectiveness of PA training in improving writing performance (Yurdabakan, 2010). This investigation explores the effect of using PA training on the writing performance of Arab EFL high school students.

2. Literature review
Peer assessment is a form of formative assessment wherein students are given feedback on their learning process by other students in the same level instead of the teacher (Topping, 2009). It is a continuous process which has been reported to not only reinforce students’ strengths and build on their weaknesses but also to empower students with the abilities and skills to evaluate and examine the work of their peers and ultimately of their own (Weaver & Esposto, 2011).

The benefits of giving feedback exceed the benefits of getting feedback from the teacher to students as the first involved activating students’ metacognition and the ability to question their learning development. Fletcher & Shaw (2012) note that students are given the responsibility to take charge of their learning and the assessment process, they did better and scored higher compared to their peers in the teacher directed assessment group. Lafave et al. (2013) describe this type of assessment as a learning autonomy exercise for the students while Bryant & Carless (2010) named it as part of a self-regulated learning process wherein students benefit from giving and receiving feedback from each other in a group work.

Peer assessment is a form of collaborative work which promotes social interaction and provides room for students to help and learn from each other’s behavior and ideas (Anson & Goodman, 2013, p. 27). For such a type of collaboration to be effective, a pre-set criteria for evaluation is needed as a standard to help students organize their thoughts and pass useful judgments on their peers’ work. Consequently, during this collaborative work, peer-assessors will engage in “cognitively demanding activities” which will ultimately reinforce their performance that leads to better understanding of the topic.
The implementation of (PA) in school is one strategy that has resulted in positive learning outcomes (Yurdabakan, 2010). Studies on the effect of peer evaluation on students’ writing autonomy by Moussaoui (2012) on 30 undergraduates in Algeria and on writing performance by Xiao & Lucking (2008) on 232 undergraduates in an American university revealed that there was a significant influence of peer assessment on the improvement of the students’ writing performance and thinking skills in the first study and writing performance and students’ satisfaction in the latter.

Similarly, Johnson and Winterbottom (2011) conducted an experimental study on female students at girls-only rural comprehensive school in the UK, where the ages of subjects ranged from 11 to 18 years old. The researchers examined how the use of self and peer assessment among girls influence their writing performance. The results showed that there is no significant influence of peer assessment on girls’ school students.

Likewise, Van Gennip, Segers, and Tillema (2010) conducted an experimental study on 62 third year male students in Dutch secondary vocational education to measure the role of interpersonal variable and conception of peer assessment in vocational education. The researchers used a set of apparatuses such as psychological safety, trust, value diversity, interdependence and conceptions of peer assessment. The results showed that there is a significant influence of peer assessment as an assessment approach to support learning.

PA also has been studied by Gamlem and Smith (2013) in a study 11 school students. The researcher conducted research on five female and six male students aged between 13 to 15 years old in Norway. They attempted to explore the students’ perception of classroom feedback through observations and interviews. The findings showed significant influence of classroom feedback on students’ perception of classroom feedback. For PA to succeed, students are required to take a positive stance towards using this strategy in classrooms to improve their assessment practices and writing performance.

Peer assessment training has been shown to be effective to influence learning and to articulate judgment when it is conducted within a specific time framework. Nicolaidou (2013) conducted a case study on 24 primary school pupils to determine how student writing performance and peer feedback developed over time through the use of electronic portfolios. The results showed that there was a statistically significant improvement on student’s writing performance and peer feedbacks improved from simple feedbacks to constructive feedbacks over time.

In summary, there are three pedagogical factors that have great influence on EFL students’ writing performance. While most peer assessment studies have been done primarily on native speakers of English and with Asian EFL learners, not much research has been conducted to investigate how Arab EFL students would respond to such learning strategy. Thus, the aim of this study is to investigate the effects of using peer assessment training on the writing performance of Arab EFL high school students.
3. Methodology

3.2. Search Design
This study used a quasi-experimental research design. It is a type of experimental design between groups without random assignment of participants, as the purpose was to determine whether the program or intervention affects the participants of the study (Creswell (2002); Nyström (2008); Shadish, Cook, and Campbell (2002). This design served the experimental nature of this study in finding the causal relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable to see if there was a statistical difference in the effect of PA training on the writing performance to answer the following research question: What is the effect of using PA training on the writing performance of Arab EFL high school students?

3.3. Participants
The participants in this study were selected based on convenience sampling from the total population of the Arab EFL high school students (N= 950) who were studying in eleven schools for Arab students in Malaysia. The sample consisted of sixty female and sixty male students from two of the eleven schools. The students’ first language was Arabic and they studied English as a second language. All of the 120 participants, they are between 15 and 16 years old. This age group was selected since it is the age range that reflects cognitive maturity where metacognition is active (Tsivitanidou, 2011).

3.4. Instrument
As the purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of using peer assessment training on the writing performance and writing improvement among Arab EFL high school students in Malaysia; an instrument named Analytical Marking Scale was used for data collection Alderson et al. (1995).

3.4.1. Analytical Marking Scale
The analytical marking scale developed by Alderson et al. (1995) was adapted in this study to mark the students’ writing task in the pre-test and post-test to collect data in answering the research questions. The students in the experimental group used this instrument to score their peers’ written tasks after receiving the training on PA. The Analytical marking scale took place in a form of a rubric that helped the students to mark the writing section in a consistent way and to minimize the possible discrepancy in rating without a rubric. It consists of seven criteria which are the content, organization, cohesion, vocabulary, grammar, mechanics and spelling. These criteria were designed to suit undergraduate students to see whether there could be different in writing performance.

However, the instrument was improvised to suit the learning level and objectives for the targeted high school students. Thus, modifications made were and only five criteria of Alderson Analytical Marking Scale were used. The other two parts were removed because these criteria were not suitable for high school students. The five criteria used were contents, organization, vocabulary, grammar, and mechanics. The changes were in the structural questions and marks that were given to the students during training. Meanwhile, Alderson was given a high marks to assess undergraduate students.
In the content part of this instrument, a score ranging between 0-3 was given based on their ability to write about the main idea, supporting ideas and giving examples. In the organizational section, a score between 0-3 was given according to their ability to follow a required format (introduction, body, and conclusion). In the vocabulary part, a score range from 0-3 was given based on their choice to correct words that were related to the topic. In the grammatical part, a score between from 0-3 was given based on their correct usage of grammar, namely verb usage and sentence structure. In the mechanics section, a score between 0-3 was given based on the number of spelling and punctuation mistakes made by the writer. In totally, the instrument yields a score of fifteen.

In order to see the reliability of the two raters, the student t-test was used to compare the means of their rating. The test was used to find the variations between the marking score of two groups by comparing the mean values in two sets of data.

3.5. **Research Procedures**

The study was conducted over three stages. Pretest stage, Intervention stage or the Peer Assessment Training stage, and Posttest stage.

3.5.1. **Pre-Test Stage**

In this stage, 120 participants were purposively assigned into two groups, the control (N=60) and experimental groups (N=60). All participants in both groups were asked to complete a written task on a given topic that was prepared for this purpose. This topic was selected from the students’ course material thus deemed suitable for the students’ level in the 10th grade. The task was to write a descriptive essay to a friend describing your movement to a new school. The purpose of this test was to find out the students’ writing performance before they were engaged in the PA training (Boon, 2013; Al-Barakat, 2009). They were given 45 minutes to complete the writing task and it was conducted during their class schedule.

The students’ essays were examined and rated by two independent expert teachers in the area of writing. Please see Table 1 for the result of pre-test.

3.5.2. **The Intervention: Traditional Instructions and PA Training**

Following the pretest, students who participated in this study received a nine-week training course with a total of thirteen and a half hours. They were assigned accordingly into two groups, control and experimental with each group consisted of sixty students.

3.5.3. **Traditional Instructions to the Control Group**

The control group was taught to write English essays in nine weeks which was equivalent to thirteen hours. Hence, in the first lesson, the students were introduced to writing a descriptive essay. Then they were further taught how to address the content of the topic. After that, the teacher discussed the typical components of the essay specifically on how to write the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. The teacher guided the students on the use of vocabulary, grammar, spelling and other writing mechanics as necessary. After each lesson, students were asked to practice writing on a topic and submitted their work in the next class session to be marked by the teacher.
In a mode of traditional instruction, the teacher teaches and later students are asked to practice before they hand in their first draft to the teacher for evaluation (Devon, Paterson, Moffat, & McCrae, 2012). Thus, what are severely lacking in the traditional instructions are the feedbacks to improve the draft, to minimize errors, to develop underdeveloped ideas, correct inaccurate word choice and to reorganize cluttered thoughts. This is still the practice in many English classrooms (Saito, 2008), and this was the practice in the control group, which was to see how well these students write on their own after the writing lesson by the teacher, without peer feedback and peer assessment.

3.5.4. Peer Assessment Training for the Experimental Group
Students in the experimental group received the same lesson on descriptive essay writing by a teacher. The difference between both groups was the focus on peer assessment training PA training after the writing practice. Like the control group, the students in the experimental group were introduced to descriptive essay writing. In the first week, the teacher discussed the criteria of the Analytical Marking Scale, the main instrument for PA training, elicited the students’ agreement on its areas, and discussed what feedback means, how it can be exchanged, and explained the task to the students and responded to their questions. Over the next week, students were introduced to the task where they learned how to address the content of the topic. After that, the teacher discussed the typical components of the essay specifically on how to write the introduction, the body, and the conclusion. During training, inputs on vocabulary selection, grammar usage, spelling and other writing mechanics were given and discussed. Later, like the control group, the students were asked to write a draft essay to be submitted in the next class session. The difference between the control and experimental groups lay here, where, instead of submitting to the teacher to mark their essay, the students submitted or in other words, exchange their draft essays with their peers in the classroom. Under the supervision of their teacher, students read their peers’ essays and write their comments using the pre-set criteria as in the Analytical Marking Scale. Once the students received their papers with the feedback from their peers, they had to rewrite an improved second draft based on the comments.

3.5.5. Post-Test
The purpose of this stage was to determine the effect of using PA training on writing performance versus the traditional instruction and to gauge students’ response on the on Peer Assessment training.

All participants (N=120) in both control and experimental groups were asked to write a posttest essay on a given topic deemed suitable for their age and linguistic level. They were given 45 minutes to write the essay. After completing the task, the essays were collected and photocopied. The original copies of the students’ essays were marked and rated by two independent raters. The independent raters were also asked to comment and give feedbacks on each essay separately. The photocopies of the essays were redistributed to students and they were asked to assess the writing production.

The scores obtained by both groups as given by the two independent raters were recorded and later compared to the scores obtained from the essays in the pretest stage. The two independent raters’ assessment and feedbacks were compared to the students’ assessment to determine to the similarities and differences in students and teacher’s rating.
The purpose of the test was to find out if there was an effect of using peer assessment training on writing performance among Arab’s EFL high schools students in writing process after training students on PA in the classroom. Indeed, both groups have been set for the post-test (see table 3.1). The control group was given a traditional training on how to write a descriptive essay, while the experimental group was given a PA training while learning how to write a descriptive essay.

Figure 3.1: The procedures of the study

3.6. Research Question
To address the research question, What is the effect of using PA training on the writing performance of Arab EFL high school students?” a pre-test was used to determine the students’ writing performance prior to training. A pre-test was run in order to find out whether there was a significant difference between the control group and experimental group in their writing performance. The results of pretest and posttest are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

Table 1: T-test of pretest scores between control and experimental groups.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Means</th>
<th>Sd</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>t-v</th>
<th>p-v</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>6.60</td>
<td>1.73</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>-5.325</td>
<td>0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>8.45</td>
<td>2.06</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F (118, t = -5.325, p<.01)

Independent samples t-test was employed in order to find out the significant difference between the pretest scores of the control and experimental groups. The purpose of this test was to find out the level of the students before engaging them in peer assessment training in the process of writing. Table 1 indicates that the mean score of pre-test for the control group is 6.60 and the standard deviation is 1.73 and the experimental group is 8.45 and the standard deviation is 2.06 in students’ writing performance. The result indicates that students in experimental group scored significantly higher than students in control group F (118, t= -5.325, p<.01). In this study assigning the subjects randomly to intact groups was not possible as assigning them randomly, since it would affect their schedule and disrupt their classroom learning. Moreover, a quasi-experimental design was used to control the effect of the pre-test.
Table 2: Adjusted and unadjusted group means and variability for writing performance, using Post-test scores as a covariance.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Unadjusted</th>
<th>Adjusted</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>10.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>13.07</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics for peer assessment training. The statistics indicate that the experimental group is more affected in writing performance than the control group after training them on peer assessment. Between the two groups, control group had the lowest means on peer assessment, whereas experimental group had the highest means on peer assessment (Baker, 2008; Friedman, Cox, & Maher, 2008). The means and standard deviation for the experimental and control groups on writing performance, before and after controlling for the peer assessment training. The mean score of the control group is 10.53 and the standard deviation is 1.56 and the experimental group is 13.07 and the standard deviation is 0.83. The researcher found that a single experience with peer assessment training was necessary for building Arab EFL high school students probability and confidence. As an evident from this table, virtually there is a difference between the experimental group and the control group after the peer assessment is controlled.

Analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) was further conducted to determine a statistically significant difference between the control and experimental groups on their posttest writing performance scores controlling for PA training. The idea behind controlling peer assessment is to test the extent of using peer assessment among Arab EFL high school students.

Table 3: Analysis of Covariance for Writing Performance among Groups, using post-test scores as a covariate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig</th>
<th>eta²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9.45</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>.094</td>
<td>.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>32.17</td>
<td>10.83</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>117</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

F (1.117) =10.83, p<.05, eta squared = .61)

The result indicates that after controlling for the peer assessment training, there is a significant difference between the experimental and control groups in writing performance, F(1.117) =10.83, p>.05, eta squared=.61. The result of eta squared (.61) indicates that there is a significant effect of peer assessment training among Arab EFL high school students. This result further suggests that engaging high school students in peer assessment training was useful and beneficial for Arab EFL high school students to improve their writing performance through peer feedback.
A paired samples t-test was run in order to find out if there is a significant difference in the experimental group before and after the training. Paired samples t-test is used to find out the significance difference of the two means scores of the same group.

Table 1.4: Paired t-test Result for Pretest and Posttest of PA Training.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>7.53</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>-31.33</td>
<td>119</td>
<td>P = .000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Posttest</td>
<td>11.80</td>
<td>1.79</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On average the students performed better in the posttest (M=11.80, SD=1.79) as compared with the pretest (M=7.53, SD=2.12). Based on the results of Paired Sample T-test t (119) = -31.33, p=.000, 95% CI [-4.55, -4.01]. The result of paired t-test shows that the peer assessment training had a significant effect on Arab EFL high school students.

4. Discussion

The research question was aimed at determining the effect of using peer assessment training on the writing performance. The finding indicates that there is a significant difference between the experimental and the control groups, after evaluating the effect of using PA training on the writing performance of Arab EFL high school students. Data shows that students in experimental group scored higher than the control group. The study revealed that PA approach allows students to use the success criteria to comment on the strength of each other’s work. This helps students identify their own strength or performance. A result suggests that, when students properly received PA training, they can successfully improve their writing skill. This finding is consistent with the previous studies conducted by Birjandi and Hadidi Tamjid (2011); Xiao and Lucking (2008) and Lundstrom and Baker (2009). Lundstrom and Baker (2009) suggested that giving and receiving peers’ feedback on writing seems to improve students’ abilities in writing.

On other hand, this finding is not consistent with the study made by Wang (2014). The authors’ claimed that students who do not have enough knowledge to assign essay topic could not develop their own feedback in writing performance. This may be due to different methods exploited in this study when compared to the work of Wang (2014). The researcher in this study used PA training and questionnaire, while Wang (2014) used only questionnaire and interview questions. However, the result from the present study indicates that students can develop their feedback in writing performance during peer assessment training. This might probably be due to different methods been exploited in this study when compared to the work of Wang (2014).

5. Conclusion

The current study investigates the effect of using peer assessment training on writing performance among Arab EFL high school students. The findings of this study indicate that peer assessment training poses a very practical learning tool to improve students’ understanding and retention of lessons learnt from the teachers.

In addition, the findings of this study demonstrate that peer assessment could be suitable for high school students to help them to increase their performance in writing. Training students on peer assessment enhances practice and exchange of comments during classroom. Peer
assessment training can be a part of student activity in writing used to engage students in giving and receiving purposeful comments from their classmates. Peer assessment training increases students’ interaction and boost their self-confidence.

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6. References


A Cognitive Semantic Analysis of Meaning Interrelationship

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Abstract
Expanding the English vocabulary for Iraqi second language (L2) learners is a challenging task. In the present work, Langacker’s cognitive linguistic theory of domains (1987) is adopted to provide a new sight into vocabulary learning, and to expand the vocabulary repertoire of Iraqi students. This paper aims at testing the validity of expanding the English vocabulary of L2 Iraqi learners throughout the theory of domains. It also tries to find how can domains theory increase the package of vocabulary for L2 learners. Accordingly, an experimental study is to be conducted on forty-six college students of second-year level from, University of Baghdad, Iraq. The data of the pre-test and post-test were analyzed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 1 editor. Results have shown the following: First, the progress of more than (0.05≤) has been detected as far as students' understanding of the semantic domains of the lexical concepts. Second, the main source of difficulty regarding vocabulary acquisition has been treated throughout Langacker's theory. Third, the domains theory has proven its effectiveness in accurately comprehending the semantic domains of the English lexical concepts.

Keywords: Cognitive semantics, domains, Iraqi Learners, lexical concept

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.11
1. Introduction

Using the second language needs more and more knowledge about vocabulary, grammar, and culture of the target language. Scholars and researchers set a massive amount of research to acquire the semantics of second language words. In the 1930s, a German scholar J. Trier sets the Semantic Field theory. This theory is considered a new phase in the history of semantics (Wu, 1988, p.94). Langacker (1987) presents his theory of Domains to add more respects to the theory of Frame Semantics by Fillmore. These constructions of semantic hunt help learners increase their vocabularies and build a bridge between the new words and known words.

In Iraq, English as a second language (ESL) learners amplify their vocabulary incidentally throughout the four skills of language teaching. Part of the new acquainted words is not cemented in the deep memory of learners and is thus forgotten. Cognitive semantic studies about English prepositions were done in Iraq to serve the purpose of acquiring the polysemy of English prepositions. These studies have proven the effectiveness of cognitive linguistics approach in treating the English preposition. One of these studies is done to study the multi-meanings of the English preposition at (Aajami, 2018). This study aims at launching a long last memory of new vocabulary throughout using Langacker's theory of semantic domains. As long as the meaning is encyclopedic, Iraqi l2 learners do not only need new words, but also they need to know their semantic domains in order to use them more properly and be part and parcel of their bundle. This research tries to detect the reasonability of using the Domains theory in order to get deep understanding of the semantic connectivity among words, identify the matrix domains and sub-domains, and use new vocabularies to sink deeply in their meanings.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Theory of Domains

The term domain was first used in (1987) by Langacker who was influenced by Fillmore's theory of Frame Semantics (Clausner & Croft, 1999). Both Fillmore's and Langacker's theories are based on the assumptions that meaning is encyclopedic, and that lexical concepts can be understood depending on larger knowledge structures, which are called domains by Langacker (Evans & Green, 2006, p.230).

"Domains are necessarily cognitive entities: mental experiences, representational spaces, concepts, or conceptual complexes" (Langacker, 1987, p. 147). Langacker's definition of domains depends on humans' mind interpretation to language. If a unit of knowledge structure contains background information against which a lexical concept can be understood and used in language, then this knowledge structure can be counted as a domain. For example, the domain of temperature has three different expressions as hot, cold, and warm. These expressions cannot be understood without understanding the temperature system (Evans & Green, 2006, p.230). The theory of domain is highly insightful and helps get the meaning in both the source and target languages. It inevitably enhances the quality of language usage (Lowe, 2008, P.1).

Langacker (1987) concentrates on four essential aspects of the theory of domains. These aspects are considered additions to the theory of Frame Semantics. Firstly, the typical arrangements of domains that structure a set of lexical concepts are called the matrix domain of that concept. For instance, the commonsense knowledge of the lexical concept cow includes its shape, activities,
physical material, and lifecycle. These aspects of the concept of the cow are specified in different subtexts (Clausner & Croft, 1999, p.6).

*Figure 1. The domain matrix of the word cow*
This Figure is set by the researcher

Most of the lexical items can be described in terms of domain matrix while very few of them can be described in terms of a single domain. For example, FATHER as a lexical concept involves the following domains (see Figure 2): human being, male sex, kinship network, family, authority within family, respect, honor, discipline, father-offspring relationship, inheritance, and inherited attributes (Lowe, 2008, P.2).

*Figure 2. The Matrix Domain of the Word Father*
This Figure is set by the researcher
Secondly, Langacker (1987) addresses both basic and abstract domains. He develops the level of conceptual organization that is not explicit enough in the theory of Frame Semantics. The difference between the basic domains as *space, time* and the abstract domains as *love, hate, marriage, ..etc* lays in the notion of experiential grounding or embodiment. Basic domains are derived from our sensory perceptual experience with nature while the abstract domains which are also derived from the embodied experience are more complex in their relation with human experiences and culture. Abstract domains need more knowledge, experience, and relation with other domains to be clearly understood. For example, the domain of *love* needs knowledge of embodied experiences like touch and sexual relations. It also needs cultural relations as in marriage ceremonies, dinner, and rituals. Thirdly, Langacker organizes the domains in a hierarchal model. A particular lexical concept presupposes a domain down or over the hierarchy. The concept of *driver* presupposes the domains of *car, street, regulation system, policeman, mistakes, accidents...etc* (see Figure 3). Finally, Langacker's theory of domains is concerned with the conceptual ontogeny which means the structure and organization of knowledge, and the way in which concepts are related and understood in terms of others. Domains that are not understood in terms of other domains are called basic domains (Evans & Green, 2006, p.231).

![Diagram](image-url)

*Figure 3.* The hierarchy model of domains
This Figure is set by the researcher
Langacker's theory of domains has its own characteristics. The first is dimensionality; some domains are organized to one or more dimensions. Domains as time, temperature are organized along a single dimension and are thus called one-dimensional domain. Space is organized with two or three dimensions. In terms of drawing, there are only two dimensions; e.g. drawing a tree on a sheet of paper. In terms of the real world, there are three dimensions; e.g. the boys are playing football. The second is the locational characteristic as in the color domain. The color domain is calibrated with respect to a given experience. Color is a locational domain, and each point of the color along the dimension represents different color experiences. The third characteristic is the configuration which is not calibrated as with the locational domain. Space is a configurational domain; irrespective to its position with respect to the dimension of space, the shape circle remains a circle until one says a rectangle.

2.2. Previous works
A great bulk of word meanings analysis has been accumulated to serve the semantic purposes in identifying words meaning and relations. Robert (2008), who adopts the multidimensional approach to the layering of the lexicon and its semantic organization, declares that "meaning is construed in extremely varied ways according to common mechanisms". Thus, a single unit has many different meanings and refers to more than a referent; e.g. the word greens can refer to both a village community and a political party (Robert, 2008, p.2). Robert finds that meaning of a concept is part of hierarchal architecture whereas Langacker (1991) says that meaning is encyclopedic and hierarchal. According to Robert, the word uncle incorporates both the designated element and the structure of parental relations (Robert, 2008, p.8).

Finkbeiner and Nicol (2003) declare that vocabularies should be taught in semantic groups. They depend on the recommendations of Grains and Redman (1986) who deeply assert that "grouping words by meaning can provide greater precision in guiding students towards meaning, and in helping them to define the boundaries that separate lexical items” (p. 32). Similarly, Seal (1991) explains the same point when words are learned in semantic sets, “the learning of one item can reinforce the learning of another”; it can further facilitate understanding because “items that are similar in meaning can be differentiated” (p. 300). The results of Finkbeiner and Nicol's study approve its main purpose in acquiring new words by setting them into semantic groups. However, they find that it is slower than acquiring first language (L1) words randomly (Finkbeiner & Nicol, 2003). Tinkham (1997) talks in the same line of the domain's theory. He finds that the thematic and semantic manner of organizing new L2 vocabulary is suggested by more recent psychological research which would predict that clusters like frog, green, hop, pond, slippery, croak would be more easily learnt than groups of unassociated words. An experimental study based on L2 learners find that the thematic clustering of lexical items ought to be prioritized over semantic or haphazard clustering of the vocabulary items chosen to be taught to L2 learners (Shirazi, et al. 2015).

Widyastuti (2010) analyzes the meaning of words using the componential analysis approach. She explains the componential meaning of the semantic domain of man, woman, boy, girl as humans. Thus, the word human is the common component; however, they are distinguished by adult, male, and female. Therefore, the meaning of an individual item or word can be expressed by the combinations of these features. The features of human are: a man, woman, girl, boy, male...
female….etc. She finds that these components serve to distinguish among the meanings of semantically related lexemes in the same semantic domain.

Khosravizadeh and Mollaei (2011) apply the theory of semantic field to L2 learners with different levels. They aim at scrutinizing the contribution of the semantic field approach to learning new vocabulary items in EFL settings. In this experiment, Khosravizadeh and Mollaei depend on the aspect of word meaning in accumulating and increasing the process of vocabulary acquisition in students' minds. They find that new words with close relation to the learners' culture can be acquired quickly and last for a long period.

Wangru (2016) uses the semantic field theory in his experimental study to increase the vocabularies of L2 learners. The semantic field theory in vocabulary teaching includes hyponymy, synonym, antonym, meronomy and homonymy, and builds a semantic network between new words and known words. He insists on the importance of the linguistic competence that is largely affected by words acquisition. However, he finds that learning vocabularies is an extremely difficult task in English because it covers many aspects of English language, such as the semantic, syntactic, lexical, and phonological. Wangru claims that the deep comprehension of semantics can be of great help for students to master words.

This study works with the same issue, vocabulary acquisition. It uses Langacker's theory of domains in order to draw eloquent boundaries for Iraqi L2 learners to elicit word meaning and help them give more concentration on the details and relations of meanings.

3. The Experiment
This study aims at enhancing Iraqi students' awareness of Langacker's theory of domains and developing their comprehension in gaining the semantics of English words. It is an experimental study which is designed in the pre-test and the post-test. Forty-six students participate in this experiment as an experimental group. The researcher tests students' information about the theory of domains in explaining the related meanings of some English words throughout the multiple frequencies of occurrence of each word in different forms within the same domain. She uses the blended learning method in order to facilitate students' participation in this experiment. To achieve the aim in question, the researcher prepares an experiment of three phases:
– The first phase, the introduction, in which the researcher introduces the principles of the theory in a brain storming game via Facebook group. She posts words for example, *mother, war, food, space, school, love*…..etc. The participants comment on these words by single words that are related to the meaning of the words being posted;

– The second phase, the pre-test, is designed to analyze the meaning and frequency of the same words in different sentences.
– The participants are requested to test the polysemous meanings for the matrix domain. For instance, in the following sentence, *mothers have great roles*, the matrix domain is the "mother", who is characterized as being: human being, female sex, kinship network, family, emotions, authority within family, respect, honor, discipline, mother-offspring relationship, inheritance, inherited attributes; and
– The third phase, the post-test, is designed to test the difference in the related semantic domains of the same lexical concept in the two given different positions. E.g., the lexical concept 'school' in these two examples "Hani draws a school" and "Hani goes to school every day".

4. Participants and Procedures
The participants were forty six second year students who are mostly of intermediate level in English language. The students have not known anything about the theory of domains before the participation in this experiment. They also have not tested the validity of domains in gaining the semantics of English words. The procedures were done as shown below:
1. The researcher displays slides in the classroom that explain the aspects of the domains approach and its characteristics;
2. Then, a handout is distributed to them that contains a detailed explanation of the theory;
3. Students work in groups during class time to identify the matrix domain and the sub-domains of the lexical concepts given to them. In order to achieve a high level of participation, WhatsApp groups are hold. The researcher sends two or more sentences about a lexical concept, for students to practice analyzing the main meaning and identifying its domains. They can also clarify the related domains throughout diagrams. They are also required to pinpoint the dimensions and configurations of these domains;
4. The researcher asks the students to compare between domain and sub-domains of each given lexical concept in different sentences and elicit their related domains; and
Then, the post test is arranged in accordance to the steps in the procedures.

5. Target Words
There are seven words that are selected by the (5) panelists to apply the theory of domain on. One word is related to the abstract domain, such as the word "love" and another one is related to the basic domain as in the word "space". The other 5 words discuss and analyze words that have wealthy background information as in: mother, war, food, school, and bird. These lexical concepts are chosen to test the effect of the theory of domains in explaining word meaning.

6. Results of the Pre-test
Forty-six marks were collected by the researcher in the preliminary examination of students' abilities to interpret and analyze the meanings of mother, war, bird, food space, love and school. It was noticed that the participants have limited aptitude in analyzing the meaning of the above mentioned lexical concepts. Their limitations appear drastically when identifying the domains related to each lexical concept. Besides, they neither could compare the dimensions of the same lexical concept in different sentences, nor were able to configure the lexical concepts.

The result of the pre-test showed that all students have simple clues about the domains approach and its sights. It is obvious that students depended on their initial knowledge when representing the ideas or roles that are related to the lexical concepts. Most of the participants showed blameless ability to differentiate among the basic, abstract, and configurational domains.

7. Treatment
The treatment phase started after the results of the pre-test. The target words were embedded in
some different sentences. The words appeared in different subjects to present the different meanings.

The participants were asked to analyze the different meanings of each lexical concept and identify the different related domains. They had to get the meaning of the lexical concept in each sentence, and classify the direct and indirect related domains. Sinking deep into the semantics of the lexical concepts helps gain more control in the usage of new words. Eliciting a lexical concept from a given image and identifying the surrounded domains enhance the learners' ability to analyze the domains of any lexical concept. Thus, knowing the kind of domain is an important step in the semantic analysis of this approach. During the class time, the participants worked individually and in groups; each group prepared representations about a chosen lexical concept that help identify the domains and their characteristics. After identifying whether the lexical concepts are abstract, basic, or domain matrix, they were asked to identify the dimensionality and configuration of the domains. They also classified the meaning intricacy or the interrelated meanings of each domain. Participants participated in activities, in which they were asked to complete some drawings. Then, they had to explore the domains or matrix domains of the given drawing; e.g. students were given worksheets that contain incomplete drawing of a bird, for they had to complete it in the most suitable way according to their understanding. In a further step, they had to answer comprehensive questions or write a short summary to describe the drawings in details. Students were asked to prepare a complete project about a given lexical concept. The activities were planned just for the students to be more engaged and exposed to the target words. This study was intended to assess the contribution of domains theory in identifying the meanings of lexical concepts with respect to domains and vocabulary learning. After sixteen sessions of treatment, the students were allowed to sit for the post-test.

8. Post-Test
After sixteen sessions of working on the domains theory, the participants sat for the post-test. They were asked to analyze the lexical concepts alone and within sentences. They have to compare between the same lexical concept in two different sentences.

Lowe model analysis is used to represent the domains of the lexical concepts in diagrams. Throughout the results of the post-test, the participants showed a remarkable improvement in analyzing the lexical concepts into domains and identify their meanings as well. They achieved a notable awareness in determining the kinds and merits of domains. They were further able to grasp the surface and deep meanings of the target words. Their ability appeared in using these words in different sentences. They were also capable of eliciting and classifying the matrix domain.

9. Data Analysis
The results obtained from the pre-test and post-test were put to two SPSS statistical editor tests. Each test compared the performance of all students when determining the domains and their characteristics. Table 1 displays the basic descriptive statistics of the pre-test scores of the students. In this Table, the number of students and the mean of their scores along with the other statistical variables are described.
Table 1. Shows the difference between the pre-test and post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paired Samples Statistics</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Std. Error Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pair 1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>10.45</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2.816</td>
<td>.318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>16.81</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>1.112</td>
<td>.196</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Paired Samples Correlations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N</th>
<th>Correlation</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>46</td>
<td>.207</td>
<td>.043</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows the number of the participants which is 46, and their average in the pre-test, which is 10.45, and the post-test, which is 16.81. The participants showed a progress of 6.36 marks. Since the difference between the two means of both tests showed a progress that was more than (0, 05)*, then, this study is valid. This means that the domain theory can make a remarkable positive change within the participants' comprehension and usage of the semantics of English words.

10. Discussion
The results of the study show that Iraqi learners enhance their ability in gaining new words by using the theory of domains. Since the theory depends on finding the most closed words to the demanded lexical concept semantically, this process of research and analysis can certainly inflate learners' vocabulary and strengthen the intricacy of words in their minds.

The theory of domains proposes more emphasis on the lexical concepts and its relations with the closed domains. Sometimes, this needs more time and analysis and more sentences drawings and diagrams to be used to assure their knowledge about each domain. Inevitably, the learners absorb a new strategy when thinking about words. Thus, they can open more and more widows for vocabulary learning during their analysis or search about vocabularies and their background information.

Unsurprisingly, the learners get in-depth understanding of the semantic networks of the lexical concepts throughout their work on the domains theory.

11. Conclusion
The theory of domains can offer a considerable benefit in vocabulary learning. Regarding the number of participants and the number of words, this study is very limited. The encouragement of the participants' results opens the gate to further research studies, and to use more words and more groups of learners in different places.

12. Reocmdation
According to the obtained results, the following points are recommended:
1. Using the domains theory in comprehension class can better up the students' performance.
2. Arranging workshops to train both teachers and researchers.
3. Another research can be conducted on the profile and base organization in a sentence or the active zone in a sentence.

13. Limitation of the Study
This study is limited to second year students of the intermediate level at the department of English in the University of Baghdad during the academic year 2018/2019. Forty-six participants were randomly selected by putting their names in a basket, shaking the basket and then randomly selecting the names.

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References


Appendix A

1. **Draw a diagram for the lexical concept "war" to identify its domains.**
2. **Identify the domains that related semantically to the concept represented in the image?**

![Diagram of a Tumbling Dune](image)

3. **Identify and analyze the lexical concept "war" in the following sentences in the light of domains theory.**
   1. The **war** is on.
   2. Common knowledge the **war** spilled over," the Watcher snapped.
   3. He had a feeling the **war** was just starting to get interesting.
   4. We got a **war** to fight and women waiting for us.
   5. A long **war**, not with cranes, but with weeds, those Trojans who had sun and rain and dews on their side.
   6. Instead of **war** in his background, there was peacemaking and diplomacy from the beginning.
   7. In **war**, they were savage and cruel; for **war** always makes men so.
   8. Under what conditions can we claim victory in this **war** on disease?
Pedagogic Effectiveness of Digital Storytelling in Improving Speaking Skills of Saudi EFL learners

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to find why adult learners are unable to speak English as Foreign language (EFL) in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Moreover, it tests the pedagogy of adopting the strategy of Digital Story Telling (DST) in teaching English as a foreign language. The study is applied on Northern Boarder University as a case study. The first question raised in this study is whether the conventional methods of teaching are the reason behind their failure of speaking the English language and whether the modification in the pedagogy of teaching affects the learners' speaking skill. To this end, data are collected through a questionnaire. Furthermore, a model of a teaching program, based on using DST strategy, is improved and tested with a group of learners at the chosen university in Saudi Arabia. The findings reveal that the learners at the selected university find difficulty in speaking English, and that applying DST as a pedagogy help the students to develop their overall speaking skill. These findings assist EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia in creating a conducive atmosphere in and out their classes, which will motivate the learners a lot to speak English fluently. The conclusion of the research recommends that EFL teachers should modify their conventional methods of teaching English as a foreign language; they may apply the strategy of using DST on their students to test the competence of the hypothesis.

Keywords: digital storytelling, English as a foreign language, fluency and performance, grammar, language teaching strategies, pronunciation, stress and intonation, vocabulary choice

Introduction

According to Northwest Regional Education, the word “voice” refers to:

The writer coming through the words, the sense that a real person is speaking to us and cares about the message. It is the heart and soul of the writing, the magic, the wit, the feelings, the life and breath. When the writer is engaged personally with the topic, he or she imparts a personal tone and flavor to the piece that is unmistakably his/her alone. (2012, para.3)

Fisher (2007) adds that speaking refers to the distinctive human use of oral language in exchanging and sharing his/her opinion, information and feeling. Such process of speaking aspires to attain a mutual communication between both the listener and the speaker. Speaking is, in fact, a bilateral process that includes generating, processing and getting information. Speaking is reported by Second-Language (SL) students as the hardest skill to be proficient in. To be fluent in speaking as a foreign language, students should have full knowledge in vocabularies, grammar and pronunciation. Thus, speaking is the skill of putting the correct words in the right order with the proper pronunciation and function (transaction and interaction). It is also the skill of knowing when the accuracy of the message is essential (transaction/information exchange) and when précised understanding is unnecessary (interaction/relation building).

Moreover, speaking addresses the social and cultural convention and standard. This study tries to prove that the implementation of the pedagogy of digital storytelling will be helpful in improving the students’ speaking ability for two reasons. The first reason, as indicated by Indrewan (2013), is that a proper speech requires many elements, such as the language of speaking, vocabulary profanity, the tone of voice, syntax, and self-development recommendation. The second reason, on the other hand, is the critical requisite to examine the impact of using DST on improving speaking skill. DST refers to the amalgamation of interactive media (such as video, images, and audio) and storytelling to enhance the written and spoken phrases and to digitally introduce stories to others (Meadows, 2003). Our emphasis is on proving that using DST as a pedagogy improves speaking competence, critical thinking, performance and fluency.

Research Background: Literature Review

Speaking is the essence of communication. It is considered an interactive skill of forming meaning which includes generating, getting, and processing information. Unfortunately, the conventional method of teaching in Saudi Arabia is not a fruitful one. Students’ role is only restricted to receive information. Consequently, students are not able to either speak or communicate in English properly. Storytelling as a pedagogy can be used to develop the skill of speaking. Ahmed (2014) assures that DST is the story that is told to either one or more listener via speech and body language in the verbal telling. It serves as an active and coherent medium to convey the meaning. Zaro and Saberri (1998) add that the activity of storytelling needs definite levels of communication between listener and speaker or between storyteller and audience.

Alcantud-Dyaz, Ricart-Vayl, and Gregori-Signes (2014) conduct a research about the probability of integrating digital storytelling into educational system for teaching particular concepts and syllabus. It develops the students’ level in various skills of learning including
teamwork, critical thinking, self-management, comprehension, reflection and fluency. In the same year, another study has been carried out by Weigle (2014) who observes the deteriorated level of the students due to the very limited chances to practice English. Their stress, excitement and lack of confidence during speaking in class time have indicated the existence of problems in teaching and learning English as a second language. Ratanapinyowong, Poopon, and Honsa (2007) recommend the need for English curriculum to primarily focus on the listening and speaking skills. This can be preceded by integrating activities in the classroom. Another good solution is suggested by Burmark (2004). He finds that the integration of visual images with written text accelerates and increases students’ ability of understanding. Another study by McHugh (2013) attributes the low level of students to the gap that exists between the expectations of the students and the methods of language acquisition. He assures that language learning can only occur through communicative and implicit approaches. He recommends other methods such as TPR (Total Physical Response) storytelling. Another solution is suggested in Bladick’s (2008) research that recommends short story as a key element in motivating writing either as a model or as a subject matter. Arikan (2005) points out that short stories with its setting, characters and compiling plot catch the attention of the learners.

According to the Digital Storytelling Association (2002), digital storytelling adds contemporary idioms to the earliest forms of storytelling. It is referred to as latest variation to storytelling. It maintains peoples’ perception, principles, and knowledge by narrating stories, whereas new technologies are currently facilitating presenting and watching stories on both T.V and computer screens (Digital Storytelling Association, 2010). Furthermore, digital storytelling gives each person the chance to share his/her experiences with others and produce a social group of people by narrating their personal stories (Meadows, 2003).

The Objectives of the Current Research
Speaking is the second skill of language, after listening, that requires a great deal of practice including the way of pronouncing the sound; it is considered a direct tool to the listener whether he gets the pronunciation or not (Tarigan, 1986). Based on this opinion, this research aims to use storytelling as a means to integrate almost two communicative skills in each activity. It is regarded a focused method to learners as it takes into account their experience, age, level, requirements and motives (Doglas, 2004). Storytelling makes some remarkable pauses which occur in definite times followed by body gestures and voice shifts to let a character practices vocalization, gestures manners and pronunciation (Alkaaf, 2017).

DST can be simply defined as “the interactive art of using words and actions to revel the elements and images of a story while encouraging the listener’s imagination” (Barrett, 2005, p.1). This study proposes that DST can help in solving learners’ problems by:

a) Improving students’ language practices through making language more ideal to message-based communication and focusing on meaning, interaction and self-confidence.
b) Motivating students to be more confident.
c) Providing proper feedback and pronunciation.
d) Exploiting the natural tie between listening and speaking.
e) Giving students the opportunities to initiate oral communication.
f) Helping students to be aware of themselves and their world.
g) Providing natural connection between events and concepts.
h) Telling stories through images.

The researcher finds that the problems of the learners at the selected university are technical ones that are primarily concerned with techniques and teaching strategies. These techniques are the chief reason behind the failure of speaking EFL due to less practice and motivation. The major aim of this study is to find out the potential relationship between learners’ inability of choosing vocabularies and grammar and even speaking in English on the one hand, and the strategy of teaching on the other hand. If this relationship is found, a relevant question will be raised as follows: Are there any possible strategies and pedagogies, related to the field of English language teaching style, which can assist EFL teachers to adopt new strategies and methods in improving students’ speaking ability?

Hypotheses
The observed failure of speaking English at the selected university in Saudi Arabia, as well as the variance between the input and desired result, lets the researcher hypothesize that:

H1: Many adult EFL learners are unable to adopt English as a spoken language; they instead use their mother-tongue language.

H2: The most important reason behind the inability of speaking is the failure in producing EFL because of the limitation in using, pronunciation, stress and intonation, vocabularies, grammar and fluency.

H3: There is an explicit correlation between speaking EFL and the methods and approaches of teaching English.

H4: Employing DST pedagogy and strategy helps in bridging the gap (between the student and the teacher) and developing speaking skills.

Research questions
To examine the validity of each hypothesis, the present study has been designed to answer the following questions:

R1: Do some adults of EFL learners in English majors in Saudi Arabia suffer from speaking skills problem due to the lack of vocabulary and unawareness of grammar and proper pronunciation.

R2: Are there any relationship between the learners’ deficiencies and the methods of teaching.

R3: Is there a direct relationship between strategies of teaching and adult learners’ speaking competences.

R4: Can the use of DST pedagogy help learners develop their ability to speak English.
Methodology
The present research investigates all of the above-mentioned issues, i.e., digital storytelling tools and steps and the effect of applying DST as pedagogy. Quantitative and qualitative data have been collected through (i) pre and post-tests (ii) a questionnaire. Quantitative data are generated by the examination and interpretation of the statistical data. Integration of methods appears at certain levels of data examination and interpretation. A questionnaire is designed to collect data from learners regarding their feeling of self-confidence and the improvement of their speaking skills. This questionnaire is administered after applying DST as pedagogy and how it motivates them to speak more fluently. These data are analyzed to find out to what extent the learners’ speaking of English is improved on the basis of the obtained results., The tentative usage of DST as pedagogy is performed, applying the measures and strategies to help the learners improve their deficiencies in speaking EFL.

Research Setting and the Participants
The study is conducted on participants from English-major students at a selected university in Saudi Arabia. The participants are only girls. Their ages range from 18 to 22 years old. They have undergone four years of training in English. English is taught as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia. It is not expected to use spoken English anywhere except in their department with the non-Arabic teachers.

Implementation Procedure
The experiment is carried out during six months. A meeting is held to the concerned students twice a week; each session lasts for 90 minutes. At the beginning of the study, the students’ entry-level English and computer literacy are evaluated. Then, the processes of making DST are explained by the teacher. Furthermore, the students are trained to use computer programs related to DST. The instructor herself gives a sample, applying the stages and processes of making DST to her learners.

Stages of Digital Storytelling strategy:
DS has four stages: preproduction, production, postproduction and distribution (Yang & Wu, 2012) Pre-production comprises five stages as follows: a) Begging questions in certain situations, b) Examining relevant information, c) Writing the dialogue and evolving peer review, d) Performing spoken storytelling, and e) Drawing a story diagram and storyboard.( Park & Baek, 2011) elucidates the stages of DS as it encompasses both Storybird and Storyboarding as follows:

1. Storybird: It is a very attractive mutual story writing website which in
2. cludes creating, reading, and sharing. Moreover, it is a collaborative DS instrument which lets students concentrate more on the content of their script instead of drawing pictures.
3. Storyboard: It lets the user design pictures, manuscript, action, music and interviews prior to making his/her digital story. Furthermore, it gives the user the opportunity to think about how the narrative will be composed

Process of Digital Storytelling
1. Preparation Phase: Throughout this phase, it is possible for the learners to establish a concept map, make storyboards, and form a script for printed manuscript or narration. The instructor has to make a formative assessment rubric to aid in directing the learners all throughout action. The instructor and learners identify their audience and decide their preference of the final product (podcast or video) and the way in which it will be accessible (i.e., in class or uploaded to the website). They arrange the materials and feature the DS project/task. The instructor will choose at this moment whether to have learners work as persons in small groups, or as an entire group of students. Moreover, the instructor has to make a formative assessment. As part of the preparation of the task, instructors may prefer to make a preliminary DS regarding the theme and let the learners come up with ways to find connotation, viewpoint, or touching links of their own.

2. Production Phase: As soon as the entire resources and storyboard are prepared and directed by a partial script and formative assessment rubric, the learners will start producing the work. The learners choose audio and visual aspects of the DS. If they make a video product, they may use a power point presentation. Directed by script and storyboard, the learner gets ready for the narration. The instructor’s role is to guide, depending on grade level. He also helps in managing the activities such as ordering and timing the slides. It is also possible to use sound effects and music.

3. Presentation Stage: DS ought to be either archived onto a CD or saved onto a file-sharing site. It is either played for the students in the class or uploaded to the website. There are numerous kinds of applications that are designed for digital stories and digital story-making. There is traditional DS; there are also Weblogs, e-Portfolios and photo essays. Thus, DS usually launches with a script. The storyteller puts prosperous media together to support the themes and feeling in that script, such as personal or public domain images, music or other audio effects, animations or video, and further electronic features. The storyteller makes, organizes and edits DS, producing a short film whose duration typically ranges between two and four minutes, in one of the different file formats (Lambert, 2002, 2009; Meadows & Kidd, 2009).

After the instructor finishes her explanation, she asked the learners to select a topic on which they can apply DST. She divides them into groups; each group select an exciting theme according to their point of views. They begin immediately to form questions, brainstorm and watch movies, slide shows, and YouTube. Subsequently, they begin to write the first script and arrange their clipboard. They make up their stories and revise them. The instructor discusses what they finish and give them the necessary feedback. They know what to change regarding word choice, spelling, capitalization, punctuations and the structure of the sentence. After revising their mistakes, the learners put the second script in order; at the same time, they work on the storyboard in which the graphic presentation of the script with particular characters is selected. They begin to select the effectual music and tones. They record their voices in accordance with their selected characters in the narrative. After the instructor gives them the second feedback, they correct their mistakes in pronunciation and performance. They choose the appropriate program through which they can publish their digital storybooks. In the end, the instructor and all the groups listen to the stories and tell the writer their feedback.
Findings of the Present Research

The quantitative findings of the current study are presented, according to the hypotheses of the study using the statistical package sciences (SPSS), as follows:

Finding of the hypothesis (1)
The first hypothesis states that there is a statistically considerable distinction between the mean scores of pre and post assessment of the study sample in the general EFL speaking skill in favor of post assessment. Table 1 presents the students mean scores, standard deviations, t-value and level of significance of the pre and post assessments of the study sample. As shown in table 1, there is a statistically considerable dissimilarity between the mean score of the pre and post assessment of the study sample in overall EFL speaking skills in favor of post assessment in which "t" value is (27.595) which is the significant at the (0.01) level of significance. Thus, the first hypothesis is supported.

Table 1. "T" test between the pre and post assessment of the study sample in the overall EFL speaking skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D</th>
<th>&quot;T&quot; value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Overall EFL speaking Skills</td>
<td>pre</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>26.05</td>
<td>2.708</td>
<td>27.595</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>post</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>49.00</td>
<td>4.000</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Finding of the hypothesis (2)

Table 2. "T" test between the pre and post assessment of the study sample in the EFL speaking production Sub-skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaking production Sub-Skills</th>
<th>Measurement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>S. D</th>
<th>&quot;T&quot; value</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Vocabulary Choice</td>
<td>pre</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>0.597</td>
<td>14.967</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>post</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>7.050</td>
<td>1.085</td>
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<tr>
<td>Correct grammar</td>
<td>pre</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.750</td>
<td>0.669</td>
<td>13.572</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0.01</td>
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<td></td>
<td>post</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>6.900</td>
<td>0.871</td>
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<tr>
<td>pronunciation</td>
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<td>40</td>
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<td>0.829</td>
<td>16.765</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>7.175</td>
<td>1.299</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Fluency and performance</td>
<td>pre</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>3.625</td>
<td>0.774</td>
<td>22.182</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second hypothesis states that there is a statistically major distinction between the mean scores of pre and post assessments of the study sample in EFL speaking production process in line with the followings:

- There is a statistically major distinction between the mean scores of pre and post assessments of the study sample in vocabulary choice in favor of post assessment.
- There is a statistically major distinction between the mean scores of pre and post assessments of the study sample in correct grammar in favor of post assessment.
- There is a statistically major distinction between the mean scores of pre and post assessments of the study sample in correct pronunciation in favor of post assessment.
- There is a statistically major distinction between the mean scores of pre and post assessments of the study sample in fluency and performance in favor of post assessment.
- There is a statistically major distinction between the mean scores of pre and post assessments of the study sample in stress and intonation in favor of post assessment.

As shown in table 2, there is a statistically major distinction between the mean score of the pre and post assessments of the study sample in EFL production speaking process in favor of post assessment in which "t" value is (14.967) for vocabulary choice, (13.572) for using correct grammar, (16.765) for pronunciation, (22.182) for fluency and performance, (18.575) for using stress and intonation which is significant at (0.01) level of significance. Thus, the second hypothesis is supported.

Findings of the hypothesis (3) and (4)

The third hypothesis states that there is a direct connection between the failure of speaking EFL and the strategies of teaching, whereas the fourth hypothesis affirms that using DST pedagogy helps in improving the speaking skill of the students. A questionnaire is designed so as to prove the validity of these two hypotheses according to the learners’ comments that are analyzed to support the research findings. This questionnaire is administrated to learners (N = 40), after the strategy is implemented to examine the learners’ opinions of applying DST as a pedagogy. The participants are asked to rate 19 items on a four-point likert scale (i.e. 4 = strongly agree, 3 = agree, 2 = neutral 1 = disagree). The items are divided into two sections:

1. The learners’ estimation about DST and how it is considered different from the traditional methods of teaching.
2. How the phases and processes of DST enable the learners to improve their general speaking skills.

All the analyzed responses are used for reporting the learners’ perceptions so as to support the third and fourth hypothesis. Generally, on account of using DST strategy, the majority of learners felt excited when narrating their stories. Thus, the third and fourth hypotheses are supported.
Figure 1 points up that 92.5% of the learners report that they have benefited from using DST as a strategy in general. They mention that the strategy enables them to choose the proper vocabulary and to use the correct structure. Figure 1 of the questionnaire represents the analysis of the answer of 19 items, to find whether there is a relationship between the ability of speaking English as a foreign language and the ways of teaching or not. In general, about 90% of the learners’ answers assure that DST strategy prompts them to draw on spoken English. Moreover, it helps them be aware of the distinction between vocabulary practice and correct grammar; the matter that is different from the traditional methods of teaching that relies on just memorizing and receiving information without any participation. In addition, during the administration of the questionnaire, the learners orally remark that they have discovered that the application of DST is very pleasant and help them a lot not only in mastering the English language, but also in overcoming all psychological difficulties that previously make them incapable of speaking English as a foreign language. It enables them to voice their thoughts, get over hesitation, be full of energy, have a proper communication skill, convey their views, form their imagination, have a good performance and use eye contacts. A total of (93.1%) enjoy the strategy, for the reason that they preferred to

Figure 1. Questionnaire responses, Section 1,2: learners’ opinion regarding the storytelling strategy and how it helped them in improving their overall speaking skills.
work cooperatively. Furthermore, (89%) of the learners state that this strategy help them developing the general speaking skills. In addition to that, (95%) of them believe that it will improve their performance in speaking language.

What is more, (90%) of the learners have mentioned that DST strategy effectively assess them, and (87%) of them share what they have visualized during storytelling with other students. Egan (2005) confirms that DST facilitates the oral presentation and correct vocabulary usage in the production phase of the story creation. Colon-vila (1997) adds that it helps in developing the ability of written and oral communication, since comprehension of the narrative schema has been improved.

It is commonly acclaimed that the strategy of cooperative learning is one of the most helpful ways in the process of education (Ellis, 2009), because the students have the opportunity to communicate effectively and employ new vocabularies. (92%) of the learners have agreed that they choose visual and audio elements of their DST; the matter that improve their ability of choice and listening properly. (94.3%) of them have concluded that the storyteller collects rich media to sustain their thoughts and feelings; he/she selects the proper tone and music cautiously to assist him/her in expressing the characters of the tale. Doquili (2000) mentions that the author or the storyteller is supposed to become skilled at different rules that are related to the skills of language; for instance, grammar, pronunciation, spelling, and vocabulary. Consequently, the storyteller is required to be able to express the current mood through movement, tone, stress and intonation.

Conclusion
The present study seeks to prove that combining digital storytelling strategy with the traditional ways of teaching adult EFL learners in Saudi Arabia at the particular university gives these learners the opportunity to be provided with many vocabularies and motivates them to work cooperatively. Moreover, this combination enables them to learn how to use proper grammar and enriches them with new vocabularies. It has also improved their speaking skill by mastering stress, tone and intonation. This research can help learners change their pessimistic view about their inability to communicate in English. It recommends that EFL instructors shall replicate the experiment by modifying the conventional techniques of teaching to create an amusing atmosphere among learners.

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Published by European Centre for Research Training and Development UK.


An EFL Teacher Education Programme: Issues and Concerns from a Yemeni University

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Abstract
Teacher education programmes (TEPs) promote unique experiences that involve a deep understanding of teaching needs, advanced strategies, preparation and training at universities or schools. The main objective of this study is to investigate the English teacher education programme (ETEP) in order to reform and develop current teaching practices in a rapidly developing area of research. The present study aims to look at three main areas which include the university preparation strategy, classroom teaching and supervisory support of an ETEP in Yemen. The data were collected through a questionnaire emailed to all the fourth-year student teachers of the English Department, Faculty of Education, at a public university in Yemen. The results reveal several issues concerning university courses, pedagogical practices, planning lessons, methodologies, and approaches. They disclose some inconsistencies between the proposed strategies at the university and the actual classroom implementation. The results also indicate that the present teaching duration is insufficient to realize the real benefits of the program for sustainable growth. The study provides some recommendations for student teachers, teachers, supervisors, curriculum designers, and policymakers.

Keywords: pedagogical practices, supervision, teacher education, teaching practice

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.13
Introduction

Teacher education programmes (TEPs) are developed to equip student teachers with the necessary pedagogical skills and competencies to cope with issues they might encounter during their teaching practice experience (Cheng, Cheng, & Tang, 2010). Identifying these issues and concerns could lead to better preparation and training (Goh & Matthews, 2011; Mukeredzi & Mandrona, 2013) and eventually result in a successful teaching practice experience (Lawson, Çakmak, Gündüz, & Busher, 2015). That experience, or as it is sometimes called teaching practicum (Hyland and Lo, 2006; Farrell, 2008; Moody, 2009; Kabilan, 2013; Canh, 2014; Merc, 2015), is considered as the first step where student teachers can gain practical classroom experience and be trained to apply and implement theory and teaching ideas professionally (Gebhard, 2009) through the guidance of experienced supervisors.

One of the main goals TEPs is bridging the gap between theory and practice (Cheng et al., 2010; Endeley, 2014) where successful implementation of theory and teaching skills needs experienced teacher trainers to reflect the full benefits of the programme. Another aim is concerned with the quality of the student teacher’s learning experience (Cabaroglu, 2014) which might be influenced by their prior training at the educational institution, teaching context, and the teacher education programme (Cheng et al., 2010). Additionally, the expert supervisors, who act as models for their supervisees have a great role in reshaping the professional identity of the student teachers. They can guide and provide them with usefully practical strategies for classroom management (Yazdanmehr & Akbari, 2015).

Literature review

A review of pertinent literature on the student teachers’ teaching practice indicates that there are various issues facing the student teachers during practicum at schools among which are: classroom implementation, instructional proficiency, unexpected supervision, insufficient preparation, and fear of evaluation (Kyriacou & Stephens, 1999; Harwell & Moore, 2010; Azeem, 2011; Goh & Matthews, 2011). For instance, Kyriacou and Stephens (1999) identify some obstacles facing student teachers during practicum such as dealing with disruptive behaviour, inability to teach professionally, lack of planning skills, and insufficient preparatory teaching practice. Whereas in a different context, Harwell and Moore (2010) identify other issues with respect to the teaching practicum experience in the United States. Student teachers are concerned about their performance in the teaching practice, their interaction with supervisors, successful implementation, and the general benefit of the experience. Another actual concern which might affect the student teachers’ teaching practice is insufficient preparation. This is highlighted in Azeem’s (2011) study on the problems facing student teachers during teaching practice in Pakistan. Azeem reports that most student teachers are not trained to use different methods of teaching before they started teaching at schools. Likewise, Goh and Matthews (2011) identify four issues of teaching practicum in a Malaysian context. These are classroom management and student discipline, institutional and
personal adjustment, classroom teaching, and student learning. They stress the need to provide student teachers with techniques as well as strategies to overcome these issues. Additionally, Mukeredzi and Mandrona (2013) investigate the student teachers' teaching practice in a rural South African context by identifying the negative and positive experiences, and the different factors behind such experiences. They report a lack of staff and school administration support and guidance for the student teachers, and the only support they received is through the collaborative interaction with learners and peers.

In the field of English as a second/foreign language (ESL/EFL), similar studies have been conducted to investigate issues, concerns, dilemmas and challenges encountered by student teachers during teaching practice. For example, Ali, Othman, and Karim (2014) address issues and concerns of twenty student teachers from a private university in Malaysia. They conclude that instructional practices, management, students' discipline, facilities and support, interaction with cooperating teachers and university supervisors affected the efficacy of the teaching practice experience. They also recommend these concerns to be acknowledged by the competent people, concerned stakeholders, and institutions for further development. In a like manner, Cabaroglu (2014) focuses on the dilemma that student teachers faced during their teaching practice. They necessitate a need for support to assist student teachers to deal with a variety of dilemmas which might lead to worse issues such as conflicts, frustration, tension, physical and emotional stress. Cabaroglu reveals that the mismatch between theory and practice is another problem which should be solved by context-specific solutions.

In summary, most of the student teachers’ concerns are either relevant to the theory-practice disconnect, supervision, and evaluation, or initial preparation of TEPs. Teaching practice experience is an opportunity for student teachers to translate the educational theories they learned during preparation into actual classroom practices. Likewise, supervision is an essential element which assists student teachers in translating what they have learned in their theoretical views and methods into practice to improve their professional performance (Farrell, 2007). Furthermore, initial preparation plays a key role in shaping student teachers’ teaching profile. Thus, great efforts should be exerted into improving teachers’ proficiency as well as teaching performance to obtain the necessary changes on TEPs (Darling-Hammond & Baratz-Snowden, 2007) and contribute significantly to teacher quality in general (Endeley, 2014).

Background of the study

English language teaching in Yemen, the study context, is quite uncertain and requires extensive and continuous investigation. English is considered a foreign language in Yemen (Al-Ahdal, 2010; Al-Ezzi, 2012) where the Arabic language is the official language used as a medium of instruction at all levels. In schools, the English language is taught as a subject of the school curriculum that starts from the seventh grade in the primary education to the third grade in the secondary education.
In the last three decades, Yemen witnessed a rapid growth in the enrolment of school teachers into educational training institutions. Therefore, the government has given great attention to the TEPs in general and ETEP, in particular, to prepare and train teachers in different teacher education institutions in Yemen and meet the current development in various fields. These programmes are now offered by the Faculties of Education which are administered by the Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research (Muthanna & Karaman, 2011).

Almost hundreds of Yemeni EFL student teachers annually graduate from Faculties of Education to be teachers at primary and secondary schools. However, studies reported that in-service teachers lack the competence in the use of teaching methods and techniques (Zuheer, 2013) and experience theory-practice challenges during their classroom practices (Al-Musalami, 2011; Bataineh, Bataineh, & Thabet, 2011). Although these studies admitted the teachers’ teaching weaknesses and recommended improvement in the teaching strategies, there is a lack of studies to investigate the initial preparation of those teachers and issues they might face during practicum at schools. Teaching practicum is a very important component in any teacher education programme (Farrell, 2007; Farrell, 2008; Canh, 2014) and is a substantial stage in reconstructing the teaching identity of student teachers (Gebhard, 2009). As a crucial part of TEPs, it is the student teachers’ opportunity to gain practical experience and implement theory through the guidance of experienced supervisors. In addition, it offers an opportunity to develop student teachers’ capabilities as well as teaching strategies and bridge the gap between theory and practice (Endeley, 2014). It is, therefore, crucial to investigate the issues and concerns of ETEP in Yemen.

**Setting**

English teacher education programme in Yemen aims to professionally prepare students to be teachers of English language at primary and secondary schools. It offers 49 courses related to teaching methods, language skills, English literature, Yemeni education and culture, and other relevant aspects taught in four years, eight semesters. Students must pass them to graduate with a bachelor’s degree in education. In the first semester of the fourth year, the students must join nearby schools to start practising teaching the English language for one complete semester. They will be given an opportunity to teach in a real classroom under the guidance and supervision of four supervisors; two university supervisors, the cooperative teacher and the school headmaster who assist and assess these students’ teaching performance. The student teachers can select the host primary or secondary public schools. Most of them usually select the nearest schools to their residences. Based on their preference, the practicum programme office will arrange with the Ministry of Education General Office to officially issue letters to the host schools to welcome the
student teachers and arrange their teaching schedule since they teach only three days a week. However, they must attend some classes at the university in the remaining two days of the week.

The Rationale of the Study
The rationale of this study is to address the issues facing the EFL student teachers during their teaching practice in a relatively under-researched setting. Understanding these issues and concerns specifically in the three main areas, i.e. university preparation, classroom implementation, and supervisory support could fill the gap in a locally situated research and provide rich data necessary for continuous improvement of ETEP. It could also provide insights into similar educational contexts, useful suggestions and valuable information for educators, programme directors, and decision makers. To achieve this aim, the study is guided by the following three questions:

1. What are the issues facing the EFL student teachers in terms of university preparation?
2. What are the issues encountered by the EFL student teachers in respect of the classroom implementation?
3. What are the issues faced by the EFL student teachers in respect of the supervisory support?

Methodology
Population and Sampling
The target population of the study was 62 fourth-year student teachers who were enrolled in the ETEP offered by the Department of English, Faculty of Education, at a public university in Yemen. They were 47 males and 15 females who completed their teaching practice experience at schools. They share the same cultural background, and their first language is Arabic. All the student teachers were emailed the data collection instrument because the entire finite population of the study is small (Creswell, 2005). They were provided with necessary instructions to complete the survey questionnaire and briefed on the study objectives. They were also informed that their participation is voluntary, and all information gathered will not be disclosed but only to be used for the study purposes. Additionally, they were ensured that their real names will not be revealed in the study findings. Therefore, confidentiality and anonymity were maintained. Forty-eight student teachers (35 males and 13 females) responded and returned back the questionnaires via email. Therefore, only those respondents constitute the study sample and they are 77.4% of the study population.

Data Collection
In the present study, the data were collected through a survey questionnaire emailed to all the fourth-year student teachers of the English Department, Faculty of Education, at a public university in Yemen after they had completed twelve weeks teaching practice at various schools. The survey questionnaire includes two sections. Section A is adapted from two surveys used by Harwell and Moore (2010) and Ali et al. (2014). It contains thirty items related to three main areas: (i) university preparation (7 items); (ii) classroom implementation (9 items); and (iii) supervisory support (14 items). The respondents are required to select the answer which best represents their view based
on a five-point Likert scale: ‘1’ strongly disagree (SD), ‘2’ disagree (D), ‘3’ undecided (UD), ‘4’ agree (A), and ‘5’ strongly agree (SA). Section B has an open-ended question on issues and concerns which are not included in section A.

To maximize the validity of the study instrument, five experts from two English language teacher education training institutions were consulted about the instrument. They gave some suggestions on the instrument which were taken into consideration. The final draft of the survey questionnaire was then subjected to a “pilot test” (Creswell, 2005, p. 367). It was distributed to a group of 15 student teachers who had graduated from the same department. They were asked to respond to the survey questionnaire and comment on the clarity of the instrument instructions and the difficulty of questions if any. The purpose of this pilot test was mainly to identify and avoid the practical ambiguities that might face the target respondents. Thus, they will be able to complete the survey questionnaire without much difficulty. Based on the pilot group feedback, the instrument was modified. After ensuring that the instructions and all questions of the instrument were clear and unambiguous, it was emailed to the study participants.

It is worth noting here that the questionnaire was emailed as it is “a convenient way to reach a geographically dispersed sample of a population” (Creswell, 2005, p. 361). However, one limitation of this questionnaire in this study was that some questionnaires were not returned probably due to invalid e-mail addresses or lack of internet access, and only forty-eight completed questionnaires were emailed back to the researchers. Therefore, the response return rate was 77.4% which is considered relatively high to “create a stronger claim in generalizing results from the sample to the population” (Creswell, 2005, p. 367).

Data analysis
The data collected from the forty-eight student teachers who had responded were included in the final analysis. As the survey questionnaire comprised of two sections, the participants' responses to the first section (A) were statistically analysed using descriptive statistics via SPSS 20 software. The mean and standard deviation were computed for each statement. For the purpose of statistical analysis, each of the variables in the five-point Likert scale was coded as follows: AD ‘1’, D ‘2’, UD ‘3’, A ‘4’, and SA ‘5’. All the questionnaire statements were positive attributions and graded as 1-2-3-4-5. Therefore, according to Birisci, Metin and Karakas (2009) and Abedalaziz, Jamaluddin, and Leng (2013), the ranges of agreement in the questionnaire will be determined through the use of the formula (n-1)/n after calculating the interval width of the range between 1 through 5 as 0.8. Table 1 below shows the range of statements in the questionnaire:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 - 1.80</td>
<td>1.81 - 2.60</td>
<td>2.61 - 3.40</td>
<td>3.41 - 4.20</td>
<td>4.21 - 5.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very low</td>
<td>Low</td>
<td>Medium</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Very high</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in Table 1, the interval width 1-1.80 indicates a very low level, 1.81-2.60 indicates a low level, 2.61-3.40 indicates a medium level, 3.41- 4.20 indicates a high level and 4.21-5.00 indicates a very high level of agreement with the items in the questionnaire. Therefore, items that score a mean of 3.41 and above are considered positive while the ones that score 2.60 and below are considered negative.

However, Section (B) of the instrument was analyzed qualitatively by reading the student teachers’ written responses many times and analyzing them to generate codes. Then similar codes were classified under one family or category. The results were three broad themes emerging from this analysis which represented the issues and concerns other than those mentioned in section (A).

Results
Analysis of the EFL student teachers survey questionnaire reveals several issues and concerns related to university preparation, classroom implementation and the supervisory support faced by them during their teaching practice. Some other emerging issues were also developed from the open-ended question. The data analysis discloses the following results. They are presented according to the study questions:

Study Question 1: **What are the issues facing the EFL student teachers in terms of university preparation?**

Table 2. **Issues and concerns related to university preparation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 What I learned at the university prepared me to plan my lessons well.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.9167</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 What I learned at the university prepared me to teach skill focused content knowledge.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.7083</td>
<td>1.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 What I learned at the university prepared me to utilize different teaching methods.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.1875</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 Microteaching develops my teaching skills.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.1875</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Microteaching helps me get deeper knowledge regarding the art of teaching.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.0417</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 I feel I am more prepared to hold a teaching position after my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.9692</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Overall, I feel the teaching practice has been a beneficial component in my education.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Global Mean** 2.4315 0.33

Table 2 highlights the mean scores for items related to the university preparation issues and concerns facing the student teachers. By comparing these scores with the scores in Table 1, there are five items (1,3,4,5 and 6) which are of the low level. The other two items are at a medium level and high level (2 and 7) respectively. The global mean score of these items is 2.4315 which indicates that the university preparation does not reach the required level to prepare the student teachers well. Although most of the student teachers admitted the importance of teaching practicum and its benefits for their education, they indicated poor university preparation as their
main concerns and issues. They expressed insufficient input that would have enabled them to plan their lessons well, teach skill focused content knowledge, and utilize different teaching methods. That is also supported by their responses on microteaching which, to them, does not really satisfy their need to develop their teaching skills and get more in-depth knowledge regarding the art of teaching. Consequently, the participants felt not well prepared to hold a teaching position after their teaching practice experience.

Study Question 2: **What are the issues encountered by the EFL student teachers in respect of the classroom implementation?**

Table 3. Issues and concerns related to classroom implementation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>I learned a lot by observing and talking to other teachers during my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.3750</td>
<td>0.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I was able to discipline my class easily during my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.8125</td>
<td>0.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Teaching practice gave me clear guidance for planning to teach.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.0833</td>
<td>1.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Teaching practice developed my teaching strategies/skills.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.4792</td>
<td>0.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>I can easily implement what I learned while teaching.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.9375</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>I was full of anxiety at the beginning of my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.1250</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>I felt more confident to teach after my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>4.2083</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>I was asked to complete evaluation forms about my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.8333</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>I was asked to keep notes and diaries about my teaching practice experience.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.2500</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Global Mean</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>3.0116</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.33</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 illustrates the mean scores of the items 8-16 that identifies issues and concerns related to the student teachers’ classroom implementation. Four items (8, 11, 13, and 14) scored very high, while five items (9, 10, 12, 15, and 16) scored very low. Student teachers were unable to handle their classes effectively, to give clear guidance for planning to teach (items 9 and 10) and to implement what they had learnt while teaching (item 12). Besides, they were not asked to complete evaluation forms or to keep notes and diaries about their teaching practice experience (items 15 and 16). The global mean of all items 3.0116 indicates that the overall level of the student teacher’ classroom performance is medium which implies the need for exposing them to the necessary strategies for planning lessons and managing the classroom. Besides, they should be encouraged to reflect on their teaching practice as it is helpful to recall the gained knowledge,
make different informed choices based on different practised situations (Akbari, 2007) and significantly improve their teaching quality (Liu, 2012).

Study Question 3: **What are the issues faced by the EFL student teachers in respect of supervisory support?**

Table 4. **Issues and concerns related to supervisory support**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>17 I feel comfortable being observed by university supervisors.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.9583</td>
<td>1.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 My cooperating teacher gave constructive criticism after I worked with students that helped me gain a better understanding of the teaching process.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.0833</td>
<td>1.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 My cooperating teacher provided useful guidance prior to my teaching a lesson.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.9583</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 My cooperating teacher provided opportunities for me to expand my knowledge base by allowing me to experience a variety of instructional situations and work with diverse groups of students.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.0833</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21 My university supervisors often offered me helpful advice relative to my individual teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3.5833</td>
<td>1.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22 My university supervisors offered me helpful suggestions related specifically to instructional or methodological issues.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3.9583</td>
<td>0.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23 My university supervisors gave me constructive criticism after I worked with students that helped me gain a better understanding of the teaching process.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.6667</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24 My university supervisors provided me with useful guidance prior to my teaching a lesson.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.0833</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25 My university supervisors consistently supported me during my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.8958</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26 The school headmaster often offered me helpful advice relative to my individual teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.7292</td>
<td>1.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27 I felt comfortable discussing any problems with the school headmaster that might have arisen during the teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>3.1042</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28 The cooperating teacher’s observations help me in improving my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.4167</td>
<td>1.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29 The university supervisors' observations help me in improving my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>2.5625</td>
<td>1.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 The supervisors’ observations are enough to support me in my teaching practice.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>1.8542</td>
<td>0.92</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Global Mean**

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Global Mean</strong></td>
<td><strong>2.5670</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Standard deviation</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.40</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows the mean scores of the issues and concerns related to supervisory support. Items 17-30 highlight the supervision issues and concerns facing the student teachers during...
teaching practice. Only three items (21, 22, 27) scored a high mean, three items (17, 23, 26) scored a medium means, while eight items (18, 19, 20, 24, 25, 28, 29, 30) scored a low mean. Student teachers were not provided with enough guidance before teaching and did not receive effective criticism after teaching from their cooperating and university supervisors (items 2, 3, 4, 8, 9). In addition, they were not satisfied with the supervisory observations (item 28, 29), and the number of observations was not enough to support them during their teaching practice (item 30). The global mean came up to 2.5670 which is negative, indicating that interaction with supervisors during teaching practice is not enough, and the support received is limited. A closer look at the results shows that the university supervisors offered helpful advice and better suggestions (items 21, 22) compared to the school headmaster (item 26). Thus, some student teachers felt uncomfortable discussing problems encountered with the school headmaster (item 27).

**Other issues and concerns**
The student teachers reported several issues and concerns they faced during their teaching practice experience in their responses to Section B of the questionnaire. Figure 1 shows the reported issues and concerns that were not captured in section A. Three broad themes were identified with classroom challenges as their major issue of concern followed by pedagogically related problems and limited supervisory support. Other issues were also mentioned by student teachers; however, they were already highlighted and discussed in section A. Therefore, they are termed as “Others” in Figure 1.

![Figure 1. Open-ended question responses by student teachers](image)

**Classroom Challenges**
Most of the student teachers expressed their enthusiastic feelings at the beginning of their teaching practice to have this shift in their educational lives. However, they encountered some challenges during their teaching practice which included the conflicts between their ideal vision of language teaching and learning, and the reality of school life. In fact, they experienced a "reality shock" (Farrell, 2003) when they tended to implement what they had studied at the university. For
instance, student teacher A described her excitement to be a teacher at the beginning of practice, but she was later disappointed with the school system. She added:

I found a completely different situation. The school administration did not allow me to practice different classroom activities and innovative ideas to encourage my students to participate which made me hate the school system.

Another important issue was reported by student teacher B. She was frustrated by the big gap between the theoretical part and the real classroom practice. She wrote:

Then during my teaching practice, I was shocked because of the big gap between what I have studied and the classroom real teaching. It was a big challenge I have experienced, so I was really frustrated.

Additionally, some student teachers faced other challenges that hindered their teaching performance such as a large number of classes, low proficiency in English and students’ negative attitude towards studying the English language which complicated their teaching task. For instance, a student teacher C mentioned some of the difficulties he faced during his teaching practice. He wrote:

As I started my teaching practice, I faced some difficulties in presenting the lesson and dealing with pupils. There were many pupils in the class, and most of them had a negative attitude towards studying the English Language. They usually told me that they hate English subject.

Another student teacher D reported that students had a difficulty to understand her when she spoke in English. She added:

One problem I faced while teaching practice was the students’ low proficiency in English. I usually use the English language in the classroom, but my students did not understand me. And they were usually asking for translation in their first language (Arabic) which was time-consuming.

**Pedagogical Practices**

Around 23% of the student teachers raised some issues and concerns related to their pedagogical practices; such as planning lessons, classroom management, school facilities, and practicum duration. For example, the student teacher D indicated that she could not plan her lesson well and cover what had been planned during the class period. She claimed: “I could not control the time of the class period because I wanted to explain all my lesson parts for only 35 minutes which were not enough to cover everything”

A similar issue was reported by the student teacher, C. He said, “I could not organize myself well. When I prepared my lessons, I did not know how to follow the plan to transfer the information and ideas to the pupils. I do not know, maybe I need more training”. Likewise, student teachers faced difficulty in managing their classes. For instance, a student teacher, E admitted:
Teaching is not an easy task as people think. For me, it was very difficult. I could not control the class because I had more than 40 students who usually were making noises during my classes.

Another student teacher, F also indicated that the late classes affected her teaching class and it was a cause of noising among learners. She justified that by:

Because all my teaching classes were scheduled at the end, and the students at that time were tired, hungry, and absent-minded. Therefore, most of them made noises by moving their feet and chairs on the floor as a sign to dismiss the class.

Besides, some student teachers were concerned about school facilities. They claimed that the host schools did not provide them with necessary visual aids for presenting their lessons well. One student teacher, G voiced:

There is a shortage of visual aids in the school. There is no English language laboratory to teach students English sounds and listening skills. I used only the cassette recorder or MP4 recorded to let the student listen to the native or native-like speakers.

In addition, some student teachers expressed that the teaching practicum duration was relatively short because some schools ended the term earlier that year due to the political turmoil in the country. Thus, they could not follow their plans. For example, the student teacher H wrote: “The practicum period was not quite enough (only 8 weeks), and I could not cover all the syllabus that I am supposed to complete. Some lessons were left (untaught)”.

Limited supervisory support and feedback

Although the student teachers were supervised by a panel of four supervisors, they expressed some issues regarding the received support and feedback from their supervisors. Overall, they claimed that they did not receive sufficient support and feedback from their supervisors and the number of observations was inadequate. One student teacher wrote about this problem: “My cooperative teacher observed my teaching class only once because he had a heavy teaching schedule (20 classes per week). Therefore, he could not observe my teaching performance many times” (A reported).

Another student teacher, J expressed her disagreement with the assigned cooperating supervisor. She explained:

There are three teachers of English at the school I practised in, but the school administration assigned the inexpert one to be my cooperative teacher. I wished I could change him. He did not provide me with useful guidance on my lesson planning and teaching.

The student teacher, C also indicated that he could not communicate and receive feedback from his cooperating teacher as he was always busy with teaching classes. It seemed that the supervisory support was inconsistent and inadequate as the teaching practice was carried out concurrently with cooperating teachers’ teaching classes at schools and with university supervisors’ lectures at the faculty. Thus, the expected support and feedback on the student teachers’ teaching practice were limited and affected their performance.
Discussion
The purpose of this study is to investigate the issues and concerns encountered by EFL student teachers during their teaching practice in terms of university preparation, classroom implementation, and supervisory support. Results show that the student teachers were discontented with several issues related to practicum preparation and supervision which consequently influenced their real classroom implementation and reduced the effectiveness of the ETEP.

The student teachers in this study indicated that they did not receive enough input to enable them to plan their lessons well and articulate what they planned to teach through implementing different teaching methods. Thus, they practised a theory-practice gap which limited their teaching performance. Similarly, in line with the findings of Ali et al. (2014), the student teachers admitted the lack of university courses as they faced issues with lesson planning. They were also confused to plan different class activities to engage their students in the learning process. This is consistent with the findings set forth by Canh (2014) that the EFL teacher education programme did not provide student teachers with basic teaching skills to experience a useful and professional teaching practice.

Overall, most of the study participants expressed that the teaching practice developed their teaching strategies and skills; however, some encountered difficulty in implementing what they learned during the teaching practice. The first part of this result is in congruence with the findings of Harwell and Moore’s (2010) study that the practicum experience helps the student teachers become more prepared to deal with classroom teaching. Whereas, the second part comes in line with Cabaroglu’s (2014) work which revealed that the student teachers experienced a problem to implement what they had studied during their practice at the traditional school setting. However, the result is inconsistent with the findings of Ali et al. (2014) that the student teachers’ preparation is influenced by some factors such as insufficient input and the limited supervisory support which negatively affect their teaching performance. Similarly, results showed that most of the student teachers were not asked to complete evaluation forms nor they were requested to keep notes and diaries on their teaching practice. They were unaware of the effectiveness of reflection and how it could help them to “respond to the dynamics of the lesson and contextual changes” (Canh, 2014, p. 217) and manage various challenges and issues that might face them during teaching practice (Farrell, 2016).

In sum, the results indicated that the student teachers received limited supervisory support and feedback, had a short teaching practice duration, and a minimal number of observations which may affect their teaching practice quality. These results support the findings of Endeley (2014) that highlight the importance of the supervision and duration of teaching practice. Thus, student teachers might not acquire adequate competencies if one of these components is weak and consequently, such inadequacies “will affect the quality of the exercise” (p. 157).

Conclusion
In this study, EFL student teachers report several issues and concerns during their teaching practice that are related to insufficient preparation and inadequate supervisory support. Therefore, the ETEP in the context of this study fails to prepare the student teachers professionally and adequately to move from the training context to real classroom teaching. This drawback may be triggered
because of the four-year syllabus structure which is not up to the requirements of the standards as most of the pedagogical content knowledge courses are taught in their first language (Al-Jaro, Asmawi, & Hasim, 2017). On top of that, there is a need for rethinking and paying much attention to the ETEP with respect to course structure, supervision and duration. This will help administrators to reconstruct the university courses and enhance student teachers’ content knowledge and pedagogical skills that are necessary for their teaching context. Besides, it could activate the role of supervision by assigning expert supervisors who have been trained in mentoring skills to supervise and observe the student teachers and provide them with the necessary support and feedback. On a pedagogical level, the present paper supports the notion that studying the student/prospective teachers’ live experiences may pinpoint their problems and challenges encountered during practice and provide TEPs with insights to promote the desired outcomes.

In conclusion, it should be noted here that this study has some limitations. Thus, it is acknowledged that the study findings are limited to the study context and cannot be generalized to other settings. One limitation is the study context which is ETEP at the Faculty of Education, at a public university in Yemen. Hence, similar studies are recommended to be carried out on other ETEPs in similar contexts. Another limitation is the focus of this study and the adoption of the survey method to collect data. While this does not lessen the worth of the study, it would be suggested if a further study deeply investigates the classroom implementation and the supervisory support by observing the student teachers’ teaching practice and interviewing their supervisors. This would provide some different findings and realities that could describe ETEP for professional teaching practice. Despite these limitations, this study might provide some insights for similar educational contexts, useful suggestions and valuable information for teacher educators, programme directors and decision makers.

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References


The Impact of Pleasure Reading on Enhancing Writing Achievement and Reading Comprehension

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Abstract
Reading opens up wide-reaching paths for knowledge as it deepens the feelings of empathy. Therefore, it represents a unique skill consists of a mixture of several procedures that encourage the interaction with printed words for content and pleasure. The current study tries to identify the impact of pleasure reading on enhancing writing achievement and reading comprehension. The study has employed different data collection methods, such as published research, articles, books, theses, and dissertations that are related to the study matter to provide answers to the following question: ‘Do pleasure reading have an impact on enhancing writing achievement and reading comprehension?’ The results reveal that; pleasure reading has a positive impact on enhancing writing achievement and reading comprehension. In addition to, pleasure reading provides readers with entertainment, relaxation, comfort, as it also offers them a creative outlet and means of escape, which, in turn, affect positively effect on the writing performance. Moreover, reading helps learners develop their writing experience by inspiring them, expanding their vocabulary, and improving their grammatical structure. The current study recommends applying more reading programs into schools to encourage reading. It also suggests conducting more studies in order to realize the true potential of reading and its impact on learners’ written works and reading comprehension.

Keywords: ability, achievement, comprehension, fluency, language, language acquisition, learning process, literacy, pleasure reading, reading, reading comprehension, writing achievement.

Cite as: Attiyat, N. M. A. (2019). The Impact of Pleasure Reading on Enhancing Writing Achievement and Reading Comprehension. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1), 155-165. DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.14
Introduction

Reading is a complicated process that comprises of equally complicated skills that require dynamic participation from the reader’s part (Mancilla-Martínez & Lesaux, 2010). Some scholars and researchers point out their perspective about reading and its process in order to highlight its complexity, as it creates questions within the reader’s mind, which requires comprehensive thought to be answered. In other words, reading can be considered as a thinking process that requires the reader to comprehend, understand, and even employ different skills to gain the desired information from a text, such as concluding, predicting, questioning, and drawing conclusions (Zainal & Husin, 2011; Küçükoğlu, 2013).

Reading has opened up wide-reaching paths for knowledge that non-readers are unable to access; it is also implied by many recent studies that reading deepens the feelings of empathy, and presents the reader with a greater understanding of others’ mental states, if only temporarily (Koopman & Hakemulder, 2015; Bal, & Veltkamp, 2013). Furthermore, pleasure reading develops better reading comprehension skills among readers; increases their fluency, and displays higher levels of general knowledge (Whitten, Labby, & Sullivan, 2016; Mol & Bus, 2011).

Pleasure reading also embraces the human interaction with written texts (Grosman, 2011) and triggers the senses, such as sound, touch, and observation in order to create experiences in the reader’s mind in ways that were not previously thought of. It is a frequent, yet enjoyable experience that continues to grow, where the boundaries and variabilities of the reading experiences can continue to expand and evolve (Tarulli, 2014).

Alternatively, writing is believed to be one of the most crucial skills that learners should aim to develop. For many years, the writing is taught merely to boost the mastery of grammar rules as well as vocabulary items (Lin & Maarof, 2013; Alqahtani, 2015). Yet, recent theories have come to realise the importance of such language skill in achieving language proficiency. As far as writing is concerned, reading is also a crucial skill that presents an array of information that cannot be taught throughout the course of teaching writing. In addition, choosing the most suitable approach for teaching writing should be considered in light of the contributions that reading could offer to improve the learning process of writing skills (Rouabah, 2012).

Thus, the importance of conjoining reading and writing has been stressed by Salehi, Asgari & Amini (2015) "Reading is not uniquely a single skill but a mixture of several skills and procedures in which the readers interact with printed words for content and pleasure. Writing, speaking, grammar, vocabulary items, spelling, and other language sub-skill scan be taught through reading. p.306" they state that both reading and writing share similar features, making it more beneficial to learn both skills concurrently and in a properly balanced manner.

To reach a certain level of a sufficient comprehension, a reader must employ certain reading skills that increase the awareness of what is, how, and what to be read. Consequently, this can help gifted readers recognise the true purpose of reading, allow them to approach it with that purpose in mind, use successful strategies when coming across similar texts with similar purposes, monitor the level of comprehension in those texts in light of the purpose in mind, and, if necessary,
adjust the strategy use in accordance (Al-Mansour & Al-Shorman, 2014; Ahmadi, Ismail & Abdullah, 2013).

Sullivan & Brown (2013) argue that reading isn’t an applicable habit. In similar context, People for Education (2011) has reported that pleasure reading has been declining in recent years, and as years go by. Thus, the main problem the present study is trying to find explanations and provide answers to know why there is sharper declines in the number of people who read for recreational purposes that is considered an alarming rate. Consequently, this gives a certain warning to social and cultural institutions to counter unsolicited consequences that might bring to the point of making-or-breaking societies and their intellectual achievements. The current study aims to answer the following questions:

- Does pleasure reading have an impact on enhancing writing achievement?
- Does pleasure reading have an impact on enhancing reading comprehension?

**Literature Review**

**Pleasure Reading**

**Definitions of Pleasure Reading**

Santos (2015) has defined pleasure reading as any form of reading that is fundamentally or socially prompted and is considered as a pleasing activity for the reader. It refers to the act where the reader would read on his or her own will rather than being forced, which stimulate positive emotions that inspire him or her to make reading a personal desire. Pleasure reading can be also referred to as out-of-school reading, voluntary reading, independent reading, leisure reading, recreational reading, and self-selected reading.

Jung (2016) also defines pleasure reading, where he described it as reading that is performed primarily for enjoyment and recreational purposes. It includes an extensive range of genres and publications that reading within a school environment would allow; it is also not necessarily restricted to the printed material and could include online reading as well.

While Bull (2017) defines pleasure reading as a non-oriented relation with texts as a way to pass time and for enjoyment, he also describes it as the type of reading, which is voluntary and is performed out of the reader’s choice that involves a text of interest to the reader. He further explains that pleasure reading is not distinguished by the experience being pleasurable, but rather by the purpose of the reading.

**Importance of Pleasure Reading**

It is strongly supported by Howard (2011) that people resort to pleasure reading unconsciously to obtain everyday-life information and has to do with their personal characteristics and strong developmental theme. Mikkonen (2017) argues that during the time pleasure reading, people tend to gain insights regarding self-identification, self-recognition, and self-creation, all of which that help the readers throughout their transition from childhood to maturity.

It is also noted that pleasure reading is seen as a social practice that is significant when it comes to communication, taking part in life outside of the person’s direct circle, and understanding the world. There are also two prime reasons for pleasure reading, which revolve around, sharing
knowledge with close people, such as friends and family, meeting people’s expectations, and fitting into the surrounding environment (Doğan, 2014). Pleasure reading enriches one’s passion and even boosts their self-confidence (Wilkinson, 2015).

### 2.1.3. Benefits of Pleasure Reading

The principal benefits of pleasure reading are quantity, purposeful reading, and fluency; as Young-Scholten & Limon (2015) argue, books are the only reliable source that provides comfortably read quantity of texts, while fiction is the only reliable source that provides texts that can improve a learner’s eloquence and cognitive linguists. This is pointed out by Grosman (2011) "In this connection it is worth mentioning that cognitive linguists are also interested in the results of the reader’s interaction with texts that in psychology are conceived of as ‘the mental representation of the text p.162’. This reflects the experience of native speakers, who are capable of progressing from fiction to non-fiction text with ease (Claridge, 2011).

According to Wilhelm & Smith (2016), Smith, Wilhelm & Fransen (2016), and Chowdry Chowdry, Crawford, Dearden, Joyce, Sibieta, Sylva & Washbrook (2010), it is suggested that pleasure reading is essential for children, as it strengthens their educational achievement and social mobility, and increases their cognitive development. When the children is at the age of five to ten, it would be easier to stimuli reading activities and attain a high level.

This suggests that pleasure reading is not based entirely on children’s ability to read more, but rather on the fact that the act of reading is actually linked to the increase of cognitive progress over time (Alvermann, 2017; Cummins, 2015). From a strategic perspective, this strongly supports the necessity to guide and inspire children to read during their spare time.

Apparently, the advantages of pleasure reading do not hold to native readers alone, but to foreign readers as well. Many strong associations have been identified between pleasure reading, foreign vocabulary acquisition, and morpho-syntax (Waring & Nation, 2004). For foreign readers, pleasure reading can aid them in establishing the foundations for achieving both of literacy and active citizenship, which can be acquired by drawing upon experiences and expectations from the foreign sociocultural setting (Abbiss, 2016). However, while there is no lack of the number of books that are intended for native readers, foreign readers’ capability to read for the sake of pleasure depends is depending on the capability to access texts that are both engaging and easily read (Nash, 2017).

### Writing Achievement

#### Definitions of Writing Achievement

Al-Asmari (2013) defines writing achievement as the capability of expressing one's own ideas and thoughts through the written form in either a second or a foreign language while ensuring a level of accuracy and coherence.

Galbraith (2014), on the other hand, defines writing achievement as the outcome of five dimensions, which are: 1) taking a clear stance regarding the issue, 2) supporting that stance with relevant and accurate information taken from the source materials, 3) using information from said
source materials, 4) organizing ideas in logically and effectively, and 5) expressing said ideas in one’s own words with both clarity and fluency).

In addition, Dahlia (2016) defines writing achievement as the outcomes of one’s learning experience that were obtained during the writing process within a particular field, such as knowledge and skills; these outcomes show the level and status of the person’s learning experience and their ability to apply what they have learned throughout a standard test.

Factors Affecting Writing Achievement

Writing skills are considered to be quite complex and are hard to teach at times, given that not only do they need the person to master the grammatical and rhetorical devices, but they also need to master the conceptual and judgemental elements as well (Masjhari, 2010).

There are notable factors that influence writing achievement; the first of which is rich vocabulary, as it allows people to express thoughts in a way that draws the interest of their targeted audience (Ruday, 2014). The second is organisational ability, which refers to the person’s ability to present ideas in a logical arrangement and an effective sequence (Yıldız & Yekeler, 2017). The third is elaborating ideas in a way that allows the idea to develop fully and flow smoothly from one sentence to another, and from one paragraph to another. Consequently, the sentence consists a unity and coherence (Sudirman & Tiasari, 2015). The fourth is the capability of using a diverse range of sentences to state thoughts and ideas accurately and fluently (Sulaiman, 2017).

In addition, there are some other factors that influence writing achievement. According to Kırmızı (2009), reading habits is one of the key elements that affect writing. It has been noted that most learning instruments rely on language acquisition, which, in turn, emphasizes the level of reading comprehension among learners. There are also psychologies elements that can affect the learning achievement that include intelligence, attitude, interest, motivation, and competence. Moreover, there are several other elements that can govern students’ learning achievement throughout the learning process, such as attitude, self-concept, interest, motivation, and learning habits (Dahlia, 2016).

Reading Comprehension

Definitions of Reading Comprehension

According to Mckee (2012), reading comprehension is defined as the capability of understanding texts, analysing the information found in these texts, and the ability to interpret the writer’s statements and intents correctly.

However, Hans & Hans (2015) define reading comprehension as the capacity at which a person can comprehend a text. This type of comprehension arises from the written words and how they bring about knowledge existing outside the text. In other words, comprehension in this sense is a complex yet creative process that depends on the four skills of language (phonology, pragmatics, semantics, and syntax).

In addition, Bulut (2017) states that reading comprehension refers to the act of thinking and forming meanings before, during, and after reading. He also states that reading comprehension
is one of the main language skills that entail interpretations and identifying the details that are found in written materials, whether they are clear or not.

**Factors Affecting Reading Comprehension**
Sanford (2015) believes that reading comprehension is affected mainly by six factors, which are working memory, vocabulary, prior knowledge, word recognition, reading strategies, and the motivation to read. This is supported by a number of researchers, such as Moghadam, Zainal & Ghaderpour (2012), who state that vocabulary items do affect reading comprehension positively, as committing lexical errors is one of the recurring errors, thus, forming a prominent barrier. It is also supported by Alfaki & Siddiek (2013), who believe that people use their already-existing information – i.e. prior knowledge – in order to understand any text they would encounter, and it also builds their confidence and security through activating their prior knowledge in regards to the text.

As for the working memory, Swanson, Zheng & Jerman (2009) state that poor working memory is one of the factors that have an impact on the person’s ability to read competently and be able to understand texts. Furthermore, Birsch (2011) believes that reading comprehension relies on word recognition in order to be achieved quickly and allow the reader to receive knowledge from a text. In accordance with Gilakjani & Sabouri’s (2016) findings, it has been indicated that suitable reading strategies do play an essential role in the improvement of reading comprehension skill among learners, especially English as a foreign language readers.

As for motivation, its effect on reading comprehension has been discussed in a study by Blay, Mercado & Villacorta (2009); they divide motivation into two kinds; The first kind, is intrinsic motivation, that stems from the person’s willingness and drive to perform the learning task and acquire new skills and experiences. While the second kind, extrinsic motivation is caused by exterior influences, such as rewards, punishments and other variables in an attempt to manipulate one’s motivation. In short, motivation, especially the intrinsic motivation, has a larger influence on reading comprehension.

**Discussion**
It is strongly believed that pleasure reading is a vital mean to acquire information among readers, especially young ones. It allows them to enhance their skills and supports them with the knowledge they need to understand themselves, others, their relationships, and values, which, in turn, would assist them throughout their transition into adulthood. Reading isn’t merely a single skill, but a mixture of numerous other skills and procedures, such as writing, grammar, vocabulary items, spelling, speaking, and other sub-skills that can be taught through reading, where readers are voluntarily exposed to printed texts for the sake of content and pleasure.

The current study has explored whether writing achievement and reading achievement are affected by pleasure reading. Learners must recognise the significance of reading and how positively it affects their abilities in extending their knowledge and acquiring the skills necessary to improve their learning experience; it is also believed that pleasure reading might have a noteworthy effect on learners' writing achievement. There have been numerous relations, which
have been identified among pleasure reading and vocabulary achievement, as these relations can be a useful source when attaining literacy, which involves both reading and writing skills. In addition, the more a person indulges in reading, the higher the potential of picking up on words subconsciously. Reading contributes to people’s vocabulary growth and provides them with a better writing experience where they can utilise those words in their writing than those who don’t read. In other words, it’s been suggested that both vocabulary production and acquisition can occur through self-initiated (i.e. pleasure) reading experiences that involve reliable and appealing materials. Moreover, being exposed to and interacting with written texts and vocabulary would not only help learners increase their vocabulary items, but it would also help them improve both their language and writing skills.

Fascinatingly, the connection between reading and writing is interchangeable, yet, the impact of reading on writing is more significant than the impact writing has on reading. The current study sheds the light to that reading promotes one’s growth and development and allows them to understand their personal and social environments. It does not only enhance one’s personal, spiritual, and mental growth, but it also offers entertainment, inspiration, and information in regards to how they view themselves and others. In summary, the attitude toward reading significantly affects the reading comprehension and writing achievement among readers and learners. Thus, it is suggested applying more reading programs into schools in order to encourage reading. It is also recommended performing more studies that aim to understand the true potential of reading and its impact on learners’ written work and reading comprehension.

Conclusions

The current study attempts to identify what pleasure reading can play positively on enhancing writing achievement and reading comprehension. As per previous studies, and after examining the literature above, the researcher is able to conclude some important points that can enrich the research in the field of this study.

Firstly, when it comes to Pleasure reading, it can be concluded that it has a positive impact on enhancing writing achievement and reading comprehension. It helps improve literacy and enhance the thinking skills, as well as clarify and explore future goals and interests. Another interesting point found that Reading skills can be strengthened and improved through employing both reading and writing skills. Both points are supported by Cambria & Guthrie (2010) and Genlott & Grönlund (2013), Graham & Hebert (2011) and Küçükoğlu (2013).

Secondly, when it comes to writing achievement and skills, the analysing of the previous literature has led the researcher to conclude that written texts are usually derived from pleasure reading, where the reading text is self-selected rather than imposed on the reader. Moreover, Pleasure reading provides readers, especially young ones, with historical knowledge and information regarding the current events. Moreover, it helps them develop positive feelings, such as compassion and empathy, which would empower them to act upon their beliefs, and understand the consequences of improper behaviors. Interestingly, Pleasure reading provides readers with entertainment, relaxation, comfort, as it also offers them a creative outlet and means of escape, which, in turn, affect positively writing performance; this is supported by Jung (2016) and Bull.
Lastly, Reading helps learners develop their writing experience by providing them with inspiration, an extensive pool of vocabulary items, and grammatical structure. Furthermore, Pleasure reading increases reading speed and comprehension, motivates the attitudes of the reader toward learning the target language, develops their language competency, and improves their language skills, which is reinforced by Whitten, Labby, & Sullivan (2016) and Mol & Bus (2011) and, Salehi, Asgari & Amini (2015) & Kirmizi (2009).

Limitations and Further Research
While this study has generally answered the proposed research questions, further research on pleasure reading, writing achievement, and reading comprehension need to be investigated.

The current study is based on related studies and articles that have addressed the topic of the impact of pleasure reading on enhancing writing achievement and reading comprehension or the topics that relate to them. The study has faced some difficulties when it came to acquiring related literature, as there was a lack of research that addresses the issue. It can also be due to the fact that the current study has applied the analytical method, which is inapplicable in any other context, which, to the researcher's best knowledge, calls for the need to conduct more studies that would investigate the impact of pleasure reading on enhancing writing achievement and reading comprehension.

Findings of such studies would offer beneficial insights for instructors and students likewise. Additionally, such findings would offer invaluable resources for textbook writers and curriculum designers, as well as future researchers within the field of this study. The current study has employed different data collection methods, such as published research, articles, books, theses, and dissertations that are related to the study matter.

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A Study of the Pre-Service Trainee Teachers Problems in Designing Lesson Plans

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Abstract
Planning a lesson remains a challenging task for the teachers. The transition from a student into a pre-service teacher and turn out into an effective teacher is a challenging task in the teaching field. We all know the nexus between the significant roles of a lesson plan in an effective teaching-learning process. This study aims to analyze the pre-service trainee teachers' attitudes, ideas, and obstacles in designing lesson plans. The sample involved pre-service teachers who enrolled in a teaching practice course at the College of Education and Arts Northern Border University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Fifty pre-service trainee teachers participated in the research and the data collected through casual informal interviews, daily and weekly lesson plans. This study used a methodological triangulation research design that combined ways of quantitative and qualitative data collection. This method offers better and localized insights about pre-service teachers’ attitudes of the lesson plan designing. Also analyze the problems in organizing and arranging the information related to the lesson or topic. The finding of the research revealed that the pre-service trainee teachers were well aware of lesson planning and its importance but, they found some problems during their planning.

Key words: designing lesson plans, pre-service trainee teachers, obstacles in planning, pre-service trainee’s aptitudes, of lesson plan designing

Cite as: Alanazi, M. H. (2019). A Study of the Pre-Service Trainee Teachers Problems in Designing Lesson Plans. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 166 - 182. DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.15
1. **Introduction**  
Effective Teaching is a multifaceted process which needs meticulous planning, preparation and interest. Also, the teachers needed knowing the required needs of the students. Understanding the students’ priorities and incorporating them into the lesson plan helps the teachers to become an effective teacher. Furthermore, the teacher should be aware of the background knowledge of their students, their development in social contexts along with the knowledge of the subject matter, curriculum goals, and teaching (Darling-Hammond, 2006). Finding the answer to the question, how to design an effective lesson plan, and learning to plan it effectively is not an easy task which cannot happen by chance. Persistent innovative hard work, understanding the classroom dynamics and students’ needs are the important features to be considered while designing the lesson plan to become an effective teacher. (Holm & Horn, 2003).

Meticulous lesson planning is a deliberative process to enhance students’ subject matter, self-learning and social learning. Understanding these 3S (subject matter, self-learning and social learning) is very important in the lesson planning process (Henderson & Gornik, 2007). According to Henderson and Gornik (2007), the teacher is expected to consider the relativeness of the course design, course planning, and unit/lesson planning while designing the lesson plan.

Effective teaching can be done only with effective planning. So, lesson planning is the key to successful teaching. Just filling the details in a given template is not a lesson planning. It is a creative art to pour out the unique thoughts of individuals. Thus, planning for classroom teaching is one of the significant skills that pre-service teachers must gain during their training period.

According to Tashevska, (2008), the planning process is difficult for the pre-service trainee teachers. Furthermore, the literature also emphasized that trainee teachers spent more time planning their lessons and find planning to be challenging.

Yildirim, (2003), states that lesson planning is an important skills for the trainees’ for gaining experience since it forces them to reflect on the following:
- What to teach?
- How to teach?
- How to evaluate?

According to Johnson, (2000), Rusznyak, Walton, (2011) and Brittin (2005), lesson planning is one of the vital components which Provides an effective teaching-learing environment. Also, they insisted on the teaching and learning environment, i.e., the teachers are required to set up a learning environment in which students can learn effectively, and this involves planning materials, strategies, and timing.

1.1 **Literature Review**  
Lesson planning is the systematic process of deciding what and how students should learn. Lesson Planning is a key responsibility of teachers. According to Borich, (2007), teachers decide about the form and content of their instruction, such as how much presenting, questioning, and discussing to do how, how much material to cover during the allotted time, and depth in the subject to make instructions.
As stated by Richards and Bohlke (2011), “planning a lesson before teaching is considered as a prerequisite process to stay your ground to teach an effective lesson.” (p. 35). Also, planning allows the students to learn effectively in the classroom teaching so that they can gain specific competencies in the classroom teaching.

Rhalmi (2010), insights the planning as a concrete direction for a teacher to move forward and can save and manage his/her time efficiently. Gross.B (2009) said, that through the lesson planning a teacher can manage her time to organize teaching, effort and resources efficiently.

Recently, Malick (2015), exemplifies planning to the same extent as other researchers, that lesson planning prevents time to waste because it helps the teacher to be systematic and orderly. Hibanz (2010), considers that lesson planning provides step-by-step directions. It checks to understand before proceeding. Thorbury (2012) epitomizes the planning process and the detailed pre-lesson decision-making as a quality of an effective teacher.

Mahon (2011, p. 4) exposed about the lesson plan as, an organized outline for signal instructional periods. It tells the instructor which teaching method is to be used for the lesson, what is to be taught, and in what sequence to present information.

Furthermore, Edge and Garton (2009) insist to clarify the following three questions which will help the teacher to plan:

i. What are the aims of the lesson?
ii. How to achieve these aims?
iii. How to ensure the achievement of the aims?

Haynes (2010) also supports the aforesaid statements, Mishra, (2008, 250), talk about the attitude of teachers toward the lesson planning, in particular, experienced teachers. He avowed that “experienced teachers may create mental the picture” but if they want to always shine, they must instigate lesson planning to sustain the formidable stirring classroom atmosphere.

Akin to the aforementioned researchers, Savage (2014:2) also supports above-said ideas about the lesson plan as a focal point of the teaching-learning process. According to Borich (2004), “Planning is an important responsibility of teachers. Teachers are intent to decide about their entire course content such as form, mode of instruction, material coverage, time etc.,”

Wong (2009, p. 81) explains that “the well-managed classrooms are based on well-set lesson plans”:

i. Students may deeply engage with their work.
ii. Teachers can get the expected outcomes from the students.
iii. Teachers don’t need to waste time to organize the class
iv. Classroom must be a work oriented stress–free pleasant environment

Lesson plan affects not the teacher’s instruction but also classroom management. So, designing the lesson plan is very important to enhance the skills of the students and manage the classroom
as well. Lesson plan designing and implementing in the classroom are differentiated to cater for heterogeneous students’ abilities and learning styles. The lesson plan is suitable to adjust the lessons to accommodate the various learning needs of students. It must be developed into units linking syllabus outcomes and learning experiences, considering and accommodating students’ prior knowledge and experiences.

1. Aims

This study aims to analyze the pre-service trainee teachers' attitudes, ideas, and obstacles in designing lesson plans. Also, this study is to identify the pre-service teachers’ level of competency in the lesson plans designing along with their language skills, strengths, and weaknesses of their readiness in the field at the College of Education and Arts, Northern Border University, Arar, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia.

2.1 Research Context

This study was conducted at the place where the researcher teaches and supervises students. The students registered for various courses at the faculty of Education and Arts, Northern Border University, Arar, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Thus the context of the study involves Saudi Arabia, a teacher education program, and a specific course.

2.2 Statement of the problem

The former studies cited above regarding lesson planning explain the importance of lesson planning and hurdles in preparing lesson plans encountered by the teachers, particularly pre-service trainee teacher. The earlier studies make us realize, the importance of lesson planning particularly for the pre-service trainee teachers.

It is an alarming note to know that a large percentage of pre-service trainee teachers who undergo the teachers’ education programme are facing problems during their practical sessions. For instance, if the pre-service trainee teachers aren’t equipped definitely they will encounter various difficulties and hindrances during their practical sessions.

As a supervisor of pre-service trainee teachers, the researcher tried identifying the real problems in the practical session. Pre-service teachers may face many problems but for this study, the researcher thought the root cause of all other problems is planning the lesson. Lesson planning was main problem of concern in the researcher’s mind when this study was conducted.

The development of teaching information and examining the lesson plans they have prepared are facilitated through the lessons to be conducted on the field, and this contributes to the development of prospective teachers. In this context, answers have been sought for two main research questions:

1. What is the general attitude toward designing lesson plans?
2. What were the pre-service trainee teachers’ obstacles to designing lesson plans?
2.3 Test group

Since this research focuses on pre-service trainee teachers' outlooks of lesson planning, their experiences of lesson planning were considered important for this research. Pre-service trainee teachers in their final year who enters into the teaching practice sessions (age group between 20-24 years, native female Saudi students) are required to design lesson plans and teach. Therefore, the sample involved pre-service trainee teachers who participated in a teaching practice session during the 2016-2017 academic year. Fifty pre-service trainee teachers take part in the research. Through asking spontaneous questions, the Researcher probes and expands the interviewees’ responses to explore the subject in-depth. (Rubin & Rubin, 2005, p. 88).

The participants of this study were fifty teacher trainees studying in the College of Education and Arts, Northern Border University, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. In this study, the teacher trainee students enrolled in different departments of their undergraduate programme of teacher education. Their schedule allowed them to learn the course and its theoretical ideas before the practicum. It would encourage the students to address the practical issues that might arise during their teaching practice. Since this research focuses on the pre-service teachers' outlooks of lesson planning, their experiences of planning were considered important for this research.

Fifty pre-service trainee teachers participated in this study and submitted their weekly and daily lesson plans. At the end of the practical sessions, the trainee teachers were asked to attend the review session. The observer prepared a questionnaire to know about the trainee teachers’ competence in teaching and designing lesson plans, also consisting of a list of informal interview questions to know about their pre-service teaching experience. The review process provided an opportunity for them to give their individual opinion.

The interview and review process were held at the university and conducted at times that were suitable both for the pre-service teachers and the researcher. Each interview took approximately 30 minutes. The researcher informed the pre-service teacher trainees about the importance of the study. The pre-service teacher trainees were then divided into three groups based on their preference:

   i. Interest in using readymade teaching kit  
   ii. Interest in using own creative teaching kit  
   iii. Interest in using both the teaching kits.

An analysis of the open-ended items and field notes from the informal interviews were done after reading and re-reading the daily and weekly lesson plans.

2. Methodology

This study used methodological triangulation research design that combined procedures of quantitative and qualitative data collection. This analysis to provide better and localized insights about the pre-service trainee teacher's attitudes of the lesson plan designing and problems in organizing and arranging the information in the findings part. Methodological triangulation research design involves using more than one method to gather data, i interviews, observations, questionnaires, and documents.
The suggested method was considered to be an appropriate research method design. The first part was the review process. The second part involved interviewing the pre-service trainee teachers to review their rationale for their preferred lesson plan design.

3.1 Informal Interview

In addition to observing the pre-service trainee teachers’ teaching practices the researcher formulated additional interview questions based on observed occurrences. Questions are related to their field challenges, flexibility of unit plans, and the goal of each lesson and objective of the lesson achieved or not.

1. Did you face any challenges while preparing the lesson plan?
2. Do you think your lesson plan is flexible to accommodate any special needs?
3. Did you think about the students’ needs while preparing the lesson plan?
4. Did you consider the lesson /topic objectives while preparing the lesson plan?
5. Do you think the students can achieve the objective of the topic or the lesson at the end of the session?

3.1.1 Interview -Analysis

During the implementation of the lesson plan submission, the analysis showed that few participants experienced different challenges as discussed in their interviews. One of the students discussed the challenges in teaching and designing lesson plans. She ensures that this teaching experience has helped her to achieve lesson’s end goal. She also said that, “I think the great challenge is always finding the suitable materials as well as activities according to the objective of the lesson”.

Although other few students experienced challenges when implementing the daily lesson plan. Their challenges were unrelated to the areas expressed by other students. Instead, this student discussed challenges only about time constraint.

3.1.2 Review session

It is very important to review the teaching process done by the pre-service teachers to enhance their professional teaching. All 50 different lesson plans collected from the pre-service trainee teachers were reviewed using the following indicators:

1. Designed with the proper objectives
2. Time Management
3. Scheduling of assessment
4. Materials and methods
5. Activities
6. Originality
7. Creativity

Daily and Weekly Lesson Plans

Daily Lesson Plans: The requirement of the practical session was each student would submit a daily lesson plan. Students were required to provide the complete teaching kit on that particular day of their teaching before entering the class.
Weekly Lesson Plans: The weekly lesson plan is required to be submitted before a week. All daily and weekly lesson plans were submitted to a supervisor (researcher).

3.2 Data Analysis
The following components were looked over in the collected lesson plans:
1. Designing plans (incorporating all the necessary requirements)
2. Scheduling of the assessment (whether the exercises and testing are meeting the objectives or not)
3. Assigning the task
4. Creativity
The above-mentioned components were analyzed into two different aspects:
   i. Designing the lesson plan
   ii. Planning the activity

3.2.1 Research Study Question -Analysis
The results are reported for each research study question (Q). Assertions about the findings of the study questions are indicated as tentative declarative statements and evidence for them stated in numerical values or quotations. Along with this the researcher’s explanations and discussions are provided.

Q1. Which of the teaching material kit was preferred to design the lesson plan by these pre-service teachers and why?

The Participants preferred using the ready-made teaching kit to design the lesson plan based on their preference and convenience. Majority of the pre-service trainee teachers, i.e., 80% of the pre-service trainee teachers preferred the ready-made teaching kit, Out of 50 pre-service trainee teachers 14 % of them preferred both, only six percentages of the trainee teachers preferred the use of their own teaching kit or lesson plan. The justifications for their preferences appeared to be contained in their personal views of each teaching kit.

Q2. What are pre-service teachers’ personal views of the lesson plans designing?

The pre-service trainee teachers believed that using their own innovative teaching kit to design the lesson plan was better and effective. But many constraints prevent them to design their own lesson plan. Still, a maximum number of the students are very much interested in using their own innovative teaching kit.

Many students preferred to use the external resources and readymade teaching kits to design the lesson plan and felt they are indeed helpful for them. One student said, “It gave me self-confidence. I now understand how to design the lesson plan in the future. I understand my ability”. Another student stated, “The lesson plan designing tasks gave me lots of confidence in my ability to create new tasks”. This feedback was very constructive.

About 20% of the pre-service trainee teachers said: “I discovered my ability to design and write a lesson plan and do effective teaching since I prepared and designed the lesson plan.”
According to another student, “This is the first time I learned how to write and design the lesson plan. I learned what it took to design an effective lesson plan.”

The disadvantages and negative responses, about the use of readymade teaching kits in their lesson plans, were exposed by some pre-service teachers.

Other trainee teachers complained: “we don't have experience in designing the lesson plan and we feel it is not fair to have this readymade teaching kit”; Other 25% of the trainee teachers said, “The classroom teaching is very new but the lesson is simple still we were dispersed”; 35% of the trainee teachers indicated, “we could not find suitable activities also not able to think. 30% of the trainee teachers said that the teacher didn’t understand that it’s our first time designing the lesson plan and taking the class.” Time allotment to complete the lesson plan was insufficient; 25% said, “The time given for this lesson plan designing was not enough; another 25% indicated, because of the time constraint and being new to this task we became so stressed.”

Q3. What are the problems pre-service teachers been facing in the lesson plans designing?

The majority of participants indicated that lesson planning is a challenging and time-consuming task. Most of the participants pointed out that teaching in the field was a new and exciting experience, that they gained experience.

One student declared that “I came out of the shell, really broke through my fear of facing an audience when I take the class. I feel proud now that I can be a teacher. Another participant said, “In the teaching practice session the lesson planning was the best part because it made a difference for how I feel about my ability to prepare a lesson plan and take my class. “One student suggested, “Lesson planning taught us how to enhance the teaching to succeed. Other students commented: “my individual effort and creativity made me able to see how it helps to succeed in teaching. Lesson planning taught me how planning is important in teaching. It taught me to know how to become an effective teacher.

Q4. Why did the pre-service teachers select combined teaching kit?

The pre-service trainee teachers justified their preferences relating to their personal problems and real challenges in following different teaching kits.

A large percentage of the participants (60%) reported the combined teaching kit was superior to the own teaching kit. Both the teaching kits are having advantages over the teaching methods while teaching in their schools. At the same time, all types of teaching kits involved new expectations and difficulties. They claimed they did not have enough time to get to know students regarding their needs, characteristics, levels of learning, etc., and these issues influence their planning. Therefore, designing a lesson plan became very challenging.

The results suggest opportunities should be created for pre-service teachers to get acquainted with the students during their practice. The lesson plans produced by pre-service teachers showed that the pre-service teachers have demonstrated progress in designing lessons and
making conjectures of student’s learning. This backed the sessions for teaching practice; pre-service teachers were able to selectively employ various methods and learning tools to support students’ learning.

3.2.2. Casual Interview - Analysis

All the pre-service trainee teachers who participated in the research stated they planned their lessons during their practice, but they also indicated they had some difficulties during their planning:

Many students (pre-service trainee teachers) said they found it difficult to design the appropriate activities to the students’ requirement. Then they plan their lessons, most of the time they might have difficulty in choosing the activity. The pre-service trainee teachers always get confused finalizing the appropriate activities for the children. Many students felt that since they didn’t know their students, their capability and need, the activities they prepared were not appropriate, either difficult or too easy. Many of them repeatedly said the same answers in a different way.

After analyzing the pre-service trainee teachers’ teaching during the practical sessions it came to lights that they needed many more sessions before starting their practical teaching at schools to acquire a wide range of experience. As a result, they do not have an opportunity to make familiar with the students they teach. Some students had an opinion that if the class consisted of students with visual intelligence and interest, it was easy for them to consider and use the visual aids. This answer indicates the pre-service teachers should consider student’s multiple intelligences when they prepare their lesson plans. Few of the pre-service trainee teachers said they faced problems to identify the appropriate teaching methods while they were practicing in the school. They said: “We don’t know the how to apply the teaching methods consequently we found it difficult to during the classroom teaching.” These students claimed they didn't have proper exposure regarding the teaching methods and techniques. This issue draws attention to the importance of education courses. This issue gave a spark to the researcher to analyze and find out the causes and solutions.

Lesson plans show differences according to the different subjects. For example; in Islamic, Special Education, and English, each student prepares activity-based lesson plans in which students can be active. In each subject, the methods, techniques, activities, and materials what they use is different. Therefore, lesson plans are different. Aims are different in each subject and this influences the lesson plans.

3.2.3 Lesson Plan Review - Analysis

Use of information sources for designing Lesson Plans

After analyzing all (50) lesson plans prepared by the pre-service trainee teachers based on the following criteria:

1. Following one’s own innovative teaching kit to design the lesson plan
2. Following the external resources teaching kit to design the lesson plan
3. Following both external resources own teaching kit to design the lesson plan
During the informal interviews, it was found that the pre-service trainee teachers were of the opinion that using own innovative teaching kit in designing a lesson plan is more effective. But when the researcher was reviewing the lesson plan the researcher found out that only 56% (28) of the pre-service trainee teachers tried to apply their own creative teaching and logical thinking in designing their lesson plans. 18% of the pre-service trainee teachers (19) used the lesson plan design with suitable modification according to their subjects which were given in the classroom as an example; they haven’t paid any specific interest to design lesson plans. 26% of the trainees (13) used both interpersonal sources, web sources / external resources teaching kit and own teaching kit materials to design the lesson plan. In fact, it was the fabricated lesson plans, there was no originality and creativity.

**Figure 1. Type of Teaching Material Kit Preferred to Design the Lesson Plans by the Pre-service Trainee Teachers**

The majority of the students, 56% (28 of them), utilized only the web resources and readymade templates. These results showed that maximum number of the pre-service trainee teachers 18% (9 of them), couldn’t design their lesson plan on their own; 26% (13 of them), or tried but because of their time constraint and inconvenience they were unable to complete the lesson plan on their own and so made use of fabricated lesson plans.

This result is an alarm for the teacher trainers to focus more on the lesson plan designing and to emphasize the importance of designing a lesson plan.

### 3.2.4 Planning and Assigning Activities- Analysis

The two important components which the teacher should keep in mind while designing the lesson plans.
1. Activities
2. Rubrics

The teacher must match the activities with the real, factual world. This would enhance the students’ awareness and interest in specific topics. So they must incorporate it in the concluding part of the lesson plan.

The second but major component is rubrics, which accordingly to the trainee teachers must be prepared and used to evaluate the students’ in the planned activities. The pre-service trainee teachers must know and be aware of the importance of rubrics and an evaluation method. So that the pre-service trainee teacher can prepare the rubrics themselves to achieve their best. If they realize the significant role of rubrics, the trainee teachers must prepare the rubrics on their own, according to their subject and the classroom teaching. Correspondingly, they should inform and alert the students at the beginning of the class to get good grades or to plan for their examinations.

Figure 2. Planning and Designing Activities

Only 28% of the trainees were able to prepare and apply the activities as per the plan in the classroom. Other 68% of the trainees used the off-the-rack tasks which are mentioned in the plan because of this they were not able to understand the structure of the class and level of the students, so they were not able to execute the plan as they expected. Remaining 4% of the trainees prepared activities; it’s merely readymade and not at all used in the classroom.

4. Discussion

Pre-service teachers who were all participated in the research pointed out that they have difficulty in finding appropriate activities for their students' learning levels. Supporting this finding, Nilsson (2009), stated that pre-service trainee teachers lack experience regarding planning and managing teaching activities.
Pre-service trainee teachers meet their trainer every day in the field. However, if the pre-service trainee teachers do not meet their trainers before their visits to schools, they have difficulty in understanding the students' level of learning, needs, and expectations. However, it is important to note that the only limitation this research faced was, it only focused on pre-service trainee teachers' opinions and problems in designing a lesson plan. Therefore, exploring the teachers' views about the teaching practice in addition to analyzing the pre-service trainee teachers' lesson plans will help us to acquire a deeper understanding of how pre-service teachers learn to plan their lessons.

5. Conclusion

The findings regarding the lesson plan designing conclude that the use of information and resources of the trainee teachers vary depending upon their knowledge. This current finding showed a clear picture of the pre-service trainee teachers’ interest and competency level. This research finding may help the educators and trainer to think and execute the far-reaching teaching strategies to motivate the trainees to excel in their plan designing tasks.

Pre-service teachers used a broad selection of information channels and resources in their lesson plan design. Few trainees actively seek information for their lesson plans from external information sources, but the entire information taken from web sources. This is the foremost objectionable feature among the trainees.

These external sources cannot provide entire information regarding a particular lesson what they desire to teach. However, out of laziness or their own problems, trainees are interested to take the readymade materials and reluctant to prepare on their own. At the time of teaching, the trainee teachers perplexed and fail to execute the assigned task. Eventually, they are unable to deliver the teaching task effectively and lose their confidence. It is very important to mention that; the creative skills of the pre-service trainee teachers were at best as they designed the activities for their teaching practice session. Majority of the teacher trainees were good in preparing and arranging aids. This effort clearly showed their creative skills.

As an observer, the researcher found two contrast practices among the pre-service trainee teachers. One of trainees were competent enough to attract the class because their engagement plan was supple and adept. Hence, it was easy for them to execute the plan and accelerate the class. Moreover, the trainees conducted the activities suitable to the standard and the interest of the children using the rubrics. The researcher could notice and understand the material which was prepared and designed by them showed their communicative competence. It is important to give a optimistic note that these pre-service trainee teachers’ lesson plan designing and execution were commendable. It was very obvious the trainees who were not successful in their teaching were using the off-the-rack materials without any rehearsal. Actually, they are all ignoring their literary skill and purely relying on the prefabricated materials.

During the first few days of training the trainees felt nervous and out of excitement became anxious. It was observed during the whole training period that the majority of the students were
struggling in administering their plan. The researcher could feel there were some problems in their plan and its execution.

But, the pre-service trainee teachers’ perception regarding specific information cannot be indicated only in terms of their current lesson plan. They may instantly access well-known information resources to sufficiently complete the designing lesson plan task. The ready-made teaching kit and jerry-build lesson planning materials are extremely simple and easy to use, but it impedes the students from thinking and writing on their own. Moreover, they felt that this practice i.e., the training session is merely to score marks and complete the course. This clearly indicates that the pre-service trainee teachers failed to recognize the importance of the training sessions.

Another important obstacle is designing the lesson plan; it is a very new notion for them. In this context the main issue is time. So, just to teach them to manage the time is very important. In addition to that, making them understand the information acquisition is a very important factor in the process of designing the lesson plan also which in turn will help them to design the task on their own.

Predominantly, the findings of this research offered insights into the pre-service trainee teachers' point of view of designing lesson plans. The findings revealed that although most of the pre-service trainee teachers are aware of the importance of lesson planning, they found it difficult to develop a lesson plan.

It is assumed that the pre-service trainee teachers are not spending considerable time to design the lesson plan. If they, pre-service trainee teachers spend more time on designing lesson plans, they will become meticulous in designing and excellent in executing it.

So, the study concludes that the trainers must focus and give special attention to the trainees to design the lesson plan effectively. Also, insist the pre-service trainee teachers spend enough time to plan their lesson.

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### Appendices

**Sample Lesson Plans**

![Sample Lesson Plans](image)
## Study of the Pre-Service Trainee Teachers Problems in Designing Lesson Plans

### Alanazi

#### Lesson Plan for Reading

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Objectives</th>
<th>Procedures</th>
<th>Evaluation</th>
<th>Aids</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Students will:</td>
<td>- Read the story silently.</td>
<td>- Read the story</td>
<td>- Reading strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learn that every story has a main idea and supporting details</td>
<td>- Guess the appropriate subject of the story.</td>
<td>- What are the ideas for the parts of the story?</td>
<td>- Writing prompts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Find the main idea</td>
<td>- Read aloud under the new words.</td>
<td>- Read new words</td>
<td>- Exercises and exams</td>
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#### Table

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<tr>
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<td>- Guess the appropriate subject of the story.</td>
<td>- What are the ideas for the parts of the story?</td>
<td>- Writing prompts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Main idea</td>
<td>- Read the story silently.</td>
<td>- Read the story</td>
<td>- Reading strategies</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Notes

- The table above outlines the objectives, procedures, evaluation, and aids for a lesson plan on reading. Each row describes a specific aspect of the lesson, such as identifying the main idea, finding supporting details, and reading strategies.
- The notes include details on how to engage students in reading activities, focusing on comprehension and understanding.
Participant Consent form- Sample
Consent to Take Part in Research

Title of My Research: A Study of the Pre-Service Trainee Teachers Problems in Designing Lesson Plans

I, Ms./Mrs………………………………………………
agree to participate in this research study.
understand that I will not benefit directly from participating in this research.
agree to my interview being audio-recorded.
understand that all information I provide for this study will be treated confidentially.
understand that in any report on the results of this research my identity will remain anonymous.
understand that disguised extracts from my interview may be used in your publications

Signature of research participant -------------------------------------- Date: ----------------

I believe the participant is giving informed consent to participate in this study

Signature of researcher ......................... .......... Date.................................
The Concept of "Money" in the Context of National Linguocultures

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Abstract:
This paper presents an analytical review of scientific works devoted to one of the topical studies in cognitive and cultural linguistics, to the concept of "money" that is included in the corpus of basic concepts of European civilization. The framework consists of systematization of most of existing scientific results of verbal representation, structuring of the concept of "money" in the context of Russian, English, German, French languages. A comparative analysis of the ways and means of language representation of the concept "money" in Russian, English, German, French, sets the combination of versatile and specific features that embody the nature of the concept of "money" in these national languages. The obtained scientific findings represent the opportunities of an embodiment of the general cultural concept of "money" in national linguocultures. The practical value is determined by the fact that the obtained structured scientific data in the specified conceptual field can be used by scientists when developing linguoculturological dictionaries of basic concepts of European culture, as well as in the development of training courses, for which these dictionaries will become a content database.

Keywords: concept, money, language representation, national language, European culture.

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.16
Introduction
One of the current trends in modern linguistics is cognitive linguistics, the subject of which is mental formations such as the conceptual worldview, conceptual categories, concepts, frames, etc. In recent decades, linguistic studies have been focused on discussing the problem of culture, language and consciousness interrelation due to interdisciplinary scientific knowledge integration (Yuzhakova & Polyakova, 2018). Therefore, close attention is paid to the study of concepts and verbal means embodying them within the framework of linguistic and cultural studies, cognitive linguistics, and discourse analysis. A large number of scientific articles and thesis works, devoted to the problem of basic European civilization concepts representation, indicate the relevance of the above phenomena study in relation to the national cultural worldview and the ethnos national mentality, leaving open the possibility of existing similar worldview features in different national conceptual spheres. The concept is known as a notion, marked by the cultural component, and represented by its own set of language signs, forming a certain lexical and semantic paradigm. A number of concepts can be attributed to basic ones which reflect phenomena dominating the life of the ethnics and are actualized through language signs of different levels. The above group includes socially-oriented concepts (for example, family, work), the intellectual sphere concepts (for example, mind), the emotional sphere concepts (for example, love), value-oriented concepts representing moral values (for example, truth), material values (for example, money) and many others. Scientists have developed not only the theoretical foundations of the concept category but also have proposed various scientific descriptions of lexical and phraseological, as well as syntactic concepts.

Literature review
The fundamental contribution of language researchers in studying the structure, cognitive attributes and specific properties of concepts captured in the native speakers’ linguistic consciousness is highly appreciated (Arutyunova, 199; Babushkin, 2001; Goodwin, 2018; Karasik, 2001; Kubryakova, 2005; Popova, 2002; Stepanov, 2001; Vorkachev, 2001). The multivolume research paper “Anthology of Concepts” edited by Karasik and Sternin (2005) is based on thesis works and is focused on the wide range of concepts descriptions. The content of the concepts “life”, “woman”, “work”, “meeting”, “money”, “sin”, “punishment”, “property”, “friendship”, “soul”, “health”, “love”, “language” and many other concepts important for human society is revealed (Karasik & Sternin (ed.), 2005, pp.2-3).

The interest to the concept of "money" is due to the fact that this concept as a fragment of the linguistic world view is a part of the ethnos national value system. From ancient times to the present, money has been integrated into the life of people. The corresponding concept has reflected people’s attitude towards this phenomenon following changes taking place in the society (Al-Hindawi & Al-Saate, 2016; Denisenkova, 2013; Mayorenko, 2005). The relevance of the work is proved by the linguists’ special interest in concepts studies in general, as well as in the study of ways to designate the conceptual sphere of “money” by linguistic means; in the identification of universal characteristics and features of ethnics’s cognitive manifestations fixed in the meanings of language units of different levels. The purpose of the article is a comparative analytical review of the existing research results on the concept of "money" on the material of European languages (Russian, English, German, and French). The objectives are a comparative analysis of the ways and means of the concept “money” language representation in Russian, English, German, and...
French; an overview of the established universal and specific features that embody the essence of the concept “money” in the above national languages. Systematization of the data obtained through scientific research in the specified conceptual area determines the scientific value of the work in compiling linguistic and cultural dictionaries of basic concepts of European culture, as well as in developing training courses for which these dictionaries can become a basis.

In modern studies, there is a trend to investigate the embodiment of the concept “money” on the material of different national languages (Russian, English, French, and German) in a comparative aspect (Mayorenko, 2005; Dyorina, et al., 2017; Paleeva, 2010). Following the current anthropocentric approach in modern linguistics, scientists are interested in the process of “reconstructing concepts on the material of various fragments and subsystems of linguoculture” (Fedyanina, 2005, p. 193), conceptualizing attitude towards money (Mayorenko, 2005, p. 258), different attitudes towards money in national (Russian, English, German, and French) worldviews, which makes it possible to “talk about differences in the ways and means of verbalization of the concept under study” (Agarkova, 2005, p. 76; Dyorina, et al., 2017, p. 21). Particular emphasis is placed on the historical aspect of the development of the concept of "money," for example, in Russia and the UK (Denisenkova, 2013, p. 227), in France (Dyorina, et al., 2017, p. 23).

Scientists prefer to study such linguistic material as phraseological units, including paremias, aphorisms, linguistic and cultural analysis of which reveals the national-cultural uniqueness of the people, reveals cultural-specific components (Mayorenko, 2005; Korbut, 2015; Agarkova, 2005; Ermakova, 2012). They "figuratively and aptly note the important, essential moments of human activity. By exploring them, one can become familiar with the culture of the country of the language being studied” (Dyorina, et. al., 2017; Hussein & Sawalha, 2016).

Discussion

Since money has been included in the circle of vital interests of a human being since ancient times, proverbs and sayings reflect the traditional viewpoint regarding the concept of “money” as a knowledge quantum of the language worldview (as a way of conceptualizing reality) (Korbut, 2015, p. 113). The integration of cognitive and cultural-linguistic, psycholinguistic and anthropocentric approaches is considered by linguists as the methodological basis for the analysis of the verbalization of the concept “money”. The choice of methods, techniques, and analysis of the study of language units embodying the concept of "money" is determined by the specific tasks set in the works of researchers. Most often, scientists use the field method of lexical or conceptual fields, the method of definition interpretation (Dyorina, et al., 2017, p. 24; Korbut, 2015, p. 113; Mayorenko, 2005, p. 258; Fedyanina, 2005, p. 193), a comparative method for identifying universal and national markers (Dyorina, et al., 2017; Mayorenko, 2005; Korbut, 2015; Fedyanina, 2005), a conceptual analysis to identify pragmatic constituents (gestalts) (Agarkova, 2005, p. 83), the classification of language units into semantic groups, (Oshea, 2015, p. 390; Agarkova, 2005, pp. 75-76), the frame classification to identify the actual meanings of paremiological signs (Dyorina, et al., 2017, p. 30), an experiment to verify the description of linguistic signs in national paremiological foundations (Paleeva, 2010), an associative experiment to clarify the specifics of the reflection of money in the everyday consciousness of the ethnic group (Agarkova, 2005, p. 73; Fedyanina, 2005, p. 193), diachronic analysis for studying the concept of “money” in the historical development and formation of the money nomenclature, (Denisenkova, 2013, p. 227), the semantic
differential method, during which a group of students evaluated the concept of “money” to create a semantic profile of the concept “money” (Golubeva, 2008).

Despite the fact that the majority of scientists prefer to use such language expressive means as proverbs, sayings, aphorisms as research material, the results obtained through studying the concept of “money” are unique in their own way. Thus, the research carried out by Korbut (2015) is based on the material of Russian proverbs and fairy tales, representing the traditional historical, which means the base layer of the concept ”money”. The presence of abstract properties (“money is wealth”), which form the core of the concept “money”, is characteristic of the traditional Russian language consciousness. In contrast to the historical, stable layer of the concept, the current layer of the concept “money” is subject to change, which allows the linguists to study the representation dynamics of the considered concept in Russian (Korbut, 2015, p. 113-119).

Mayorenko (2005) explores the conceptualization of the concept “money” in the lexical and phraseological corpus of Russian, English, and French; defines the general and specific characteristics of attitudes toward money in Russian, English and French linguistic and cultural societies in the process of their actualization in lexical units, idioms, paraemias and aphorisms. The anthropocentric character for the Russian, English and French idiomatic sphere of the concept under study is noted. Differences are manifested in the configurations of the paremic field of the languages in question. For Russian linguistic consciousness, there is no basis for metaphorizing human qualities through the “money” phenomenon. For the English mentality, there are single variants of metaphorizing human qualities. For the French consciousness, the frequency of such metaphorization is characteristic (Mayorenko, 2005).

Based on the choice of various methods, techniques, research analyzes and their integration, the “mobility” of the considered concept is confirmed through differences and changes in attitudes towards money in the national Russian, English, German, and French linguistic cultures (Paleeva, 2010).

The hypothetical models of the concept ”money” structure, proposed by the researchers, demonstrate the universality of this phenomenon, and, at the same time, to the ”different concept content in the minds of speakers of different languages.” For example, in the concept “money” field structure proposed by Paleeva the inequality of attitudes towards money in the Russian and English worldview is noted. The difference lies in the cognitive attribute “big / much”, distinguished by native Russian speakers as one of the fundamental attributes of the concept. Paleeva, 2010 states:

Power is a cognitive attribute that emphasizes the power and importance of money for a modern English language speaker. ... for the speakers of Russian language, the following actions related to money are relevant: to lend, to borrow, while for the representatives of the English language culture the most prominent associations are actions: to sell, to deposit, to work (p. 15).

In cognitive science, there are such structures of knowledge representation as cogitative pictures, schemes, frames, scenarios. The possibility of varying the semantics of paremiological units is an important principle that has been taken into account by linguists when classifying proverbs.
objectifying the concept of "money". The method of paremia frame classification allows identifying the relevant "meanings" of proverbs in French: "Money is accumulation, movement", "Money is labor, work", "Money is reasonable waste, economy, saving", "Money is impermanence", "Money is power", "Money VS greed, avarice", "Money VS happiness, love, friendship, reputation" (Dyorina, Savinova, Zalavina, et. al, 2017, p. 29-31).

As a result of an analytical comparison of judgments about money found in Russian and French proverbs, Ermakova (2012) classifies paremia in three groups. Antinomical paremias, in which there is a contradiction in relation to one and the same situation, belong to the first group. The second group presents the concept of "money" in comparison with other concepts. The paremias in the third group are united by the theme of using the money.

Agarkova, (2005) for better presentation and understanding of how the concept of ‘money” is structured, proposed a classification of lexical - phraseological and paremic means of English, based on a combination of the lexeme “money” with intentional predicates: 1) money + verbs of motion (come / in / from / back, go, move / in / out, arrive, walk / out, land in, hopscotch); 2) money + verbs of feeling and perception (like, look, want, know); 3) money + speech verbs (talk, recommend, answer); 4) money + action verbs (make, work, buy, work, do strange things, burn) (pp.78-79).

Researchers Kamyshanchenko and Nerubenko, (2012) using the example of English and German proverbs embodying the concept of "money" argue that the similarity in the interpretation of this concept by the English and German ethnic groups is manifested in the identification of such semantic groups as “Power of money”, “Influence of money on a person”, “Money is higher, than moral values "; "Moral values are higher than money. " Differences in the compared languages are manifested primarily in the paremias component composition, which is explained by the figurative basis reflecting the peculiarities of the national perception and categorization of the world, the peculiarity of the national life, traditions of the English and German ethnic groups (pp. 79-80).


Conclusion
Thus, the research results demonstrate the dominance of scientific interest in the study of concept verbalization not only on the material of one language but also when comparing two or more languages. Scientific research on the concept of "money" makes its valuable theoretical and practical contribution to cognitive linguistics, linguistic culturology. The researchers, relying on the extra-linguistic knowledge of money, reveal the more complete content of this concept as a fragment of the ethnic group everyday life from the point of view of the characteristics and originality of the national mentality, reflected in language means. The disclosure of linguocultural
specificity associated with the concept under study contributes to a better understanding of national value orientations and the characteristics of the communicative behavior of ethnic groups. Comparative identification of conceptually significant values of ethnic groups - representatives of linguocultural communities - on the material of different national languages can represent a logical continuation of scientific research.

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References


Realization of Authorial Ideations & Purposes through Transitivity Analysis of Media Texts Written by Native and Non-native Writers of English: A SFG Perspective

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Abstract
This study explores how ideational meaning is realized in media texts written by native and non-native writers of English. Particularly, the paper attempts to analyze transitivity or process types from a semantic-grammatical point of view based on Halliday's (1985) framework of Systemic Functional Grammar. The study aims to describe and compare the process types used by the authors to transmit their experiences/ideations and fulfill the intended purposes. To this end, eight articles from Washington Post (WP) & Arab News (AN) online newspapers were analyzed. The selected texts were divided into clauses and the process types (material, mental, relational, verbal, existential & behavior) were identified and compared. The analysis reveals that the authors of both newspapers give prominence to the use of material and relational processes seeming to focus exclusively on the actions of physical nature and make links between actions and actors with some qualities associated with them. The subsequently used processes in WP articles are verbal, mental and existential; whereas in AN articles they are mental, existential and verbal. Behavior process is the last and least frequently used process type in both newspapers articles showing that the physiological responses of the actors are not a major involvement. However, the rates of process types in all articles of both newspapers differ considerably. This variation is ascribed to the authors' choice to include a process type more than the other or exclude another to transmit their own experiences and bring about the intended purpose.

Keywords: ideational meaning, process types, systemic functional grammar, transitivity

Cite as: Alraimi, L. m., & Abdalla, A. Y. (2019). Realization of Authorial Ideations & Purposes through Transitivity Analysis of Media Texts Written by Native and Non-native Writers of English: A SFG Perspective. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 190-208.
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.17
1. Introduction

Halliday (1985) states, “A fundamental property of language is that it enables human beings to build a mental picture of reality, to make sense of their experience of what goes on around them and inside them” (p. 101). Therefore, what writers produce in texts is a reflection of their world experiences. However, texts are written for a particular purpose in mind. To fulfill the intended purpose, linguistic choices have to be made and these choices are due to the writers' outer world experiences including inner consciousness. In an attempt to understand the writer’s underlying purpose, interpreting the context of the writing, to see why writers make the decisions they do from the largest decisions about what information to include and what words to use; a lexico-grammatical analysis of Transitivity was carried out from the perspective of Systematic Functional Grammar. “Transitivity specifies the different types of process that are recognized in the language, and the structures by which they are expressed” (Halliday, 1985). So, through clause analysis using transitivity system we can realize all the processes in a language and know how writers state their experience in the world.

2. Literature Review

According to Halliday (1985, cited in Mehmood, Amber, Ameer & Faiz, 2014, p. 79) language is used functionally, what is said depends on what one needs to accomplish. Halliday & Hassan (1985) describe the Systematic Functional Grammar (SFG) view of language as “attempt to relate Language primarily to a particular aspect of human experience, namely, that of social structure” (p. 4). This implies that language use is viewed as a system of choices made among other options within the context.

The context of the situation is thus arranged in categories. They are Field, Tenor and Mode. Halliday's ideas of metafunctions; the ideational, interpersonal and textual are corresponding to them respectively. According to him, each of these metafunctions is related to grammatical systems. Experiential/ideational Metafunction considers grammar of a clause as representation, and it is realized by the systems of transitivity, whereas Interpersonal Metafunction reflects grammar of a clause as exchange and the systems of mood and modality recognize it. Textual Metafunction looks at the grammar of clause as message and it is realized by the systems of theme and Rheme. Our major concern in this work lies in the grammatical choice of transitivity system or process types.

According to Fowler (1986) transitivity refers to how meaning is represented in clauses; transitivity patterns can reveal the certain worldview “framed by the authorial ideology” (p.138). Mehmood, Amber, Ameer & Faiz (2014) refer "transitivity can show how speakers/writers encode in language their mental reflection of the world and how they account for their experience of the world around them" (p. 80).

The Hallidayian proposed transitivity system consists of three major types of processes, they are, material, mental, and relational. Other three minor types: the behavioral, verbal, and existential processes are also identified by Halliday which lie on the boundaries of the major processes. Each process type provides its own model or schema for construing a particular domain of experience (Halliday & Matthiessen, 2004).
According to Halliday (1994), each situation includes three constituents: “the process itself, participants in the process, and the circumstances associated with the process” (p.107). The process is recognized by a verb and it is the essential part of the situation. A nominal group considers participants and circumstances are realized by adverbial groups or prepositional phrases. For the current study, detailed analysis of the six process types are carried out. But analysis of the participants and circumstances are not dealt with.

The process types are clarified by Ezzina (2015, pp. 287-288) as follows:
- The Material process includes clauses of doing and happening.
- The Mental processes are grouped into four subtypes which are perception (see, hear, feel), cognition (know, understand, believe), affection (like, love), and desire (hope, want, wish).
- The relational process occurs outside and inside human being. Relational processes are typically realized by the verb ‘be’ or some verbs of the same class (known as copular verbs); for examples, seem, become, appear, etc., or sometime by verbs such as have, own, possess. This type is realized by the verbs: sound, look, play, cost, have, get, seem, etc.
- The behavioral process lies between the material and mental processes. It characterizes the outer expression of inner working and reflects physiological and psychological behaviors.
- The verbal process is between mental and relational processes, which represents the act of saying.
- The existential process is between relational and material processes which proves states of being, existing, and happening. Existential processes typically employ the verb be which follows [there] or its synonyms such as exist, arise, occur.

3. Purpose of Study

The main purpose of this study is to explore and compare how ideational meaning and purposes are realized in media texts written by native and non-native writers of English from two online newspapers through the analysis of transitivity or process types within the framework of SFG.

4. Data Description

The data for analysis in this study comprises eight online articles; four from Washington Post (WP) newspaper and the other four articles are from Arab News (AN) newspaper. Selection of the sample articles is based on two factors: authenticity and variation of topics. The selected articles were paired; one from the WP and the other from AN for the sake of comparison. Each pair deals with different topic, but articles in the same pair discuss similar idea.

For the following analysis, Texts' transitivity is examined exploring the mentioned six process types, adopting the criteria set by Halliday, but the detailed analysis of the participant types has not been dealt with in the present work. First, clauses in WP & AN articles were identified. Secondly, clause constituents were determined considering the type of the process (verbal phrases) that was used in the clause. Then, the frequencies and percentages were calculated for each category. Finally, tables of frequency and percentage were formed for each newspaper articles. (For full texts of the data, the articles' links are provided in the appendix) A comparison between data from each table was made.

5. Data Analysis
The tables 1 & 2 present a summary of the process types analysis showing the percentage of each process choice to the total number of clauses in each article.

**Table 1**

*Frequency and Percentage of Process Types in WP Articles*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article No.</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process Types</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>58.33</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>51.42</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10.41</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>18.75</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>8.33</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>14.28</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existential</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5.71</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.08</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Processes</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 2**

*Frequency and Percentage of Process Types in AN Articles*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Article No.</th>
<th>(1)</th>
<th>(2)</th>
<th>(3)</th>
<th>(4)</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Process Types</td>
<td>Freq</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Material</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>50.79</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mental</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17.85</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.52</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relational</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21.42</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>31.74</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Existential</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.35</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.93</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Behavioral</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Processes</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>172</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Before doing any further analysis, it is worth mentioning that the length of articles in pairs differs noticeably. Despite the choice of articles from WP and AN was made on the basis of topic similarity dealt with in each newspaper, they remained unequal in length. As long as the total number of process types of per article are concerned, the above tables show that AN articles are longer than WP articles in pair 1 & 2, whereas it is the reverse in pair 3 & 4. The density of process...
types in certain articles points out that they are more informative than the others including many details.

Since it seems there is no one to one relationship to account for the length of the articles, we may assume that the authors' origin factor; being native or non-native of English, does not affect the information density.

5.1. Material Process

The predominance of material process in all pair articles except pair 3 indicates that the writers of both newspapers, WP & AN, have a tendency to focus on the expression of 'doing and happening' and doers of actions to transmit their external experiences as far as they are reporting facts about particular issues. Despite the difference of the authors' origins, their matrix of thoughts and the texts' contexts, both WP and AN newspapers center exclusively on using the material process to give details on actions and doings to fulfill the writing purposes.

The following are examples from each pair, though they deal with similar topics, they display that the writers used certain actions and definite clause structures through different word-choice to manifest their writing purposes. Hence, they bring about some world realities as they experienced.

Pair 1 :

a- "The price tag of the bailout is suddenly going up. As a result, the administration said it will seek twice as much money from its proposed bank tax ..." [WP 1]

b- "the administration put the cost of the government's financial rescue at $28 billion. Now, it's expected to reach $54 billion". [WP 1]

c- "The proposed "Financial Crisis Responsibility Fee," which would charge big banks $61 billion over 10 years, would square with President Obama's political strategy to harness the anger against Wall Street reelection campaign". [WP 1]

d- "The tax would apply to J.P. Morgan, Goldman Sachs and other banks with more than $50 billion in assets, even though these firms have generally repaid their bailouts to the Treasury with interest. Taxpayers may lose far more money in companies, such as the automakers, which won't have to pay the fee". [WP 1]

e- "What's more, the bailout also sets aside $46 billion for programs to help homeowners. But only $3.3 billion has gone out the door for this purpose, and it is difficult to know how much will ultimately be spent". [WP 1]

f- "Together with the 2014 budget, the government issued the most detailed statement to date about actual performance of both government finances and the economy as a whole during 2013. Government expenditure rose in 2013 to $247 billion, an increase of 15 percent over 2012. Spending went over budgeted outlays by about 13 percent. Remarkably, however, despite lavish government expenditure, the economy did not heat up. Inflation was kept at around three percent (3.35%), only slightly over the 2012 level of 2.9 percent". [AN 1]
g- "Actual revenue in 2013 exceeded budgeted revenue by a massive 34 percent. However, the government statement reveals a substantial drop in actual oil revenue from the previous year. While oil revenue hit the record level of $1,140 billion in 2012, it has declined to $1,017 billion in 2013, a drop of about 11 percent". [AN 1]

h- "Looking at GDP components, we see that oil GDP in fact declined in 2013 by nearly four percent, while non-oil sector grew by over 9 percent. The healthy growth in the private sector moderated the impact of the oil sector decline, pointing again to the significance of economic diversification...." [AN 1]

These examples show that the WP author's purpose is to present facts concerning the budget and describe some economic issues in the present and relate it to future planning and expectations. So, through the choice of material process (e.g. going up, seek, pay, repaid, lose, apply, spent, ...etc.), and relating them to participants/ doers/ actors such as (administration- taxpayers, automakers) the author could achieve his writing purpose and influences the readers about the subject matter showing what he knows and what he does not. Besides, the use of modal operators in verb groups adds influential sense about the writer's expectations.

As the example above illustrates, the AN author's purpose is to deal with the governmental recent years financial and economic performances and compare them with previous years and private sectors. So, the use of the material processes (e.g. issued, rose, went over, kept, exceeded, declined, grew) in the past tense form- with actors like (government, economy, spending, oil revenue, growth, private sector) were appropriate to accomplish his purpose of writing. The comparative structure used by the author makes the statements more influential.

On the other hand, processes of knowledge formation are implied in the authors' language use of verbal phrases. Through the use of future tense along with present tense, the WP writer showed that he built his expectations for the future budget depending on current resources or experiences. But, the AN writer showed that he has an exposure to KSA previous years' budget and performances while discussing the current one as long as the past tense is the most frequent. So he depended on his previous experience or encountered knowledge to introduce his ideas.

Pair 2:

a- "Men were hit harder and earlier by job losses than women in the downturn". [WP 2]

b- "But men are also recovering faster and have made back about 28 percent of the 6.1 million jobs they've lost; women have regained about 10.8 percent". [WP 2]

c- "Women get back into the workforce". [WP 2]

d- "While unemployment rates for Saudi men moved slightly downwards between the first and fourth quarters, they declined dramatically for non-Saudi men and non-Saudi women. However, for Saudi women, unemployment rates continued their upward climb from previous years" [AN 2]
“For non-Saudi men and women, unemployment also declined at a much brisker rate during 2012”. [AN 2]

“For non-Saudi men and women, unemployment also declined at a much brisker rate during 2012”. [AN 2]

“women who have been seriously searching for work during the month preceding the survey. It thus does not include in the rate those women who are not looking for work” [AN 2]

“Saudi Arabia has made great advances in educating women” [AN 2]

Both writers of WP & AN discussed the issue of unemployment & gender showing the employment gap between men and women. Each author referred to his related context; the American and Saudi one. So we find different word choice of material processes connected with particular participants, and different comparative styles. For instance, The WP used verb phrases such as (men are recovering/ have made back, women have regained /get back), but the AN author used (Saudi men moved downwards /they declined / Saudi women unemployment rates continued upward/ non-Saudi men and women, unemployment also declined/women who have been searching /who are not looking for/ Saudi Arabia has made). In addition, the AN author included several statistics regarding men and women's unemployment rates to achieve the intended purposes. All these components (the participants, the process types, the comparative style and the statistical figures) hang together and support the authors' intentions to produce influential texts.

Pair 3:

a- “Thousands of book enthusiasts flocked to the Mall on Saturday to experience the small but exuberant world of literature”. [WP 3]

b- “The event, organized by the Library of Congress” [WP 3]

c- “DeLillo, whose 1985 novel, “White Noise,” won the National Book Award” [WP 3]

d- “DeLillo will receive the award at a public ceremony on the Mall on Sunday”. [WP 3]

e- “The Riyadh International Book Fair 2014 was inaugurated by Culture and Information Minister Abdulaziz Khoja”. [AN 3]

f- “The book fair focused on Saudi-Spanish relations”. [AN 3]

g- “The book fair serves as a great networking platform for publishers, writers and scholars, as well as academic institutions”. [AN 3]

The material process in pair 3 does not constitute high frequency. In WP article the rate is 20.45 % and it is 18.75 % in AN article. This low frequency shows that the writers' major intention was not to present the participants' doings and actions. Instead, we realize that the WP author's chief purpose is to report the National Book Festival visitors' opinions and insights as long as the verbal process forms the highest frequency rate in the article. For the AN article, the relational process was the author's concentration as it forms a rate of 37.5 % to total process types. This highest rate of relational process reveals the author's intention to identify and classify the books in the International Book Fair in Riyadh. In addition, the material processes such as (focused & serves)
make a clear indication about the writing purpose as to illuminate the International Book Fair value.

Pair 4:

a. "Nick Lynch, the Suitland High School football coach and athletic director and one of the most respected figures in Prince George's County athletics, was killed early yesterday morning in a two-car collision about a mile from his Brandywine home". [WP 4]
b. "Lynch -- known as "Nick," even though his given name was David -- was traveling south on Branch Avenue about 2:30 a.m. when he attempted to turn left onto Brandywine Road, said Trooper Wesley Brown of the Maryland State Police. Lynch's car, a 2008 Dodge Magnum, was struck by a 2000 GMC Sierra traveling north on Branch Avenue, Brown said". [WP 4]
c. "He took over a Suitland program in 1996 that had never made the playoffs and turned it into a state power, winning two Maryland championships and qualifying for the playoffs nine times in his 13 years. He also never stopped doing the little things; he usually collected yard-markers and goal-post pads after home games and occasionally could be found making sure the bathrooms were clean". [WP 4]
d. "He tried to give his players a family atmosphere that some of them may have lacked at home. His players regularly joined Lynch for services at the Ebenezer AME church in Fort Washington, and he held postgame meals for his team in the school gymnasium". [WP 4]
e. "It takes a special guy to work at Suitland and be effective at Suitland. And he was the guy". [WP 4]
f. "the veteran player died on the spot when the BMW car he was driving at top speed flipped over after the front tire burst throwing him 80 meters away from the scene of the accident". [AN 4]
g. "Saad and his friends were coming from the Eastern Province to Riyadh traveling on the Dammam-Riyadh highway. The accident happened 180 kilometers away from Riyadh". [AN 4]
h. "Al-Dossary began his professional career at Riyadh Club. In 2002 he transferred to Al-Ahli" [AN 4]

Both newspapers deal with the death of a sportsman. But the two authors reported the news differently. WP author did not only report the death of 'Nick Lynch' but he also presented some interviews with his family and friends (as long as some verbal process are included) and gave a brief history of his achievements and contributions to society through material processes as in examples c & d (never stopped doing , collected ,could be found making , give , joined , held ). This can be considered a cultural aspect as it is experienced by the WP author, especially when this article is compared to the corresponding article in the same pair. The author in AN article was stuck to present details about the accident through material processes as (was driving , flipped over, burst throwing) and just reporting the death of "Al-Dossary" without adding any information about his life and contributions, apart from his shift to 'Hilal' team as in example h through the verbs (began & transferred). Such
a way of reporting death news in AN is also considered a cultural issue since good deeds and social contributions of a person are not publically posted in Saudi Arabia.

Additionally, the expression 'guy' occurs 4 times as goal in the WP article to refer to the dead man 'Nick Lynch' with the main aim to praise him. If the writer in AN newspaper uses 'guy' to refer to the Saudi dead man, it would be seen as disrespectful. This is, in fact, a purely cultural way of experiencing things. Here, we may draw an assumption that cultural aspect affect the reporting style and word choice of participants and process types.

The material process utilized by the authors shows their different word-choices and their appropriateness to contexts bringing about the intended purpose. The choices display what they experienced, what they know about the concerned topic, and what they expect to be done.

5.2. Mental Process

The use of mental process represents the writers' internal experiences; their feelings and personal point of view. Below are some examples from the pair articles.

Pair 1:

a- "But Obama's team may see political advantage in its proposal...". [WP 1]
b- "Administration officials note that, under the law that created TARP, they are required to recoup the costs of the financial bailout". [WP 1]
c- "Looking at GDP components, we see that oil GDP in fact declined in 2013". [AN 1]
d- "Looking at the trade side of things, we also see a drop in the overall value of exports....." [AN 1]
e- "looking at trade more closely, we see a more pronounced drop in the value of oil exports" [AN 1]

As long as pair 1 articles are concerned, the writers differ considerably in their attitudes. The WP writer seemed to have neutral tone reporting facts about the United State budget depicting the participants' cognitions or senses and detaching himself from them. 'Obama's team' & 'Administration officials' are the participants in WP examples whose mental processes are (see & note). Here the writer did not include himself and therefore he did not express his believe or point of view, but rather transmitting experiences he encountered with. So, he appeared to be neutral or objective.

On the contrary, the AN writer in order to transmit his inner believe regarding the Saudi budget, he included himself with the audience and shared them their cognitions and senses in process as (looking & see). He made use of the first person plural pronoun 'We' showing the inclusion with the audience to express his internal views influencing them to accept these views.

In pair 2, the WP writer did not use mental process. Accordingly, his inner experience or consciousness was not revealed. The participants' emotions, feelings and cognitions were not apparent insofar as they were not depicted as sensors or cognizants. Quite the reverse, the AN
author transmitted his inner consciousness through the use of mental process (expected & look). Illustrations are shown below:

a- "As expected in a segmented labor market, unemployment rates in Saudi Arabia are drastically different between Saudis and non-Saudis, as well as between men and women". [Cognition] [AN 2]

b- "Let us look more closely at the unemployment rates for each of the four groups. For Saudi men, unemployment declined from (6.9) percent in the first quarter of 2012 to (6) percent in the fourth quarter, or a (13) percent decline, thus reversing a decade-long trend of rising unemployment among Saudi males". [Cognition] [AN 2]

In example a, the doer is not stated as the verb phrase is used in the passive voice 'As expected', but it is implied as 'WE'. Here, with the use of mental process, the author manifested his internal ideas and awareness about the subject matter trying to convince the readers by including them in 'we' as it is implied. Similarly, in example b there is an apparent inclusion of the author with the audience through the use of the first person plural pronoun 'us' attempting to influence the readers communicating with them mentally.

Unlike pair 2, the WP article in pair 3 is characterized by the use of mental process while AN article is not. This, in fact, proves that it is the authors' choice to select particular process types and avoid others in order to transmit their experiences and fulfill the intended purposes and influence the readers. Below are some examples:

a- "they heard their favorite authors..." [Sense] [WP 3]

b- "that experience inspired him to work ..." [Cognition] [WP 3]

c- "she enjoyed interacting with famous costumed characters..." [Feeling] [WP 3]

d- "the girl who knows all the words in the dictionary". [Cognition] [WP 3]

e- "Tania and her three younger siblings also listened to Nelson talk..." [Sense] [WP 3]

f- "she looks forward each year to meeting her favorite authors..." [Feeling] [WP 3]

Hence, the WP author's inner consciousness, as he experienced, was exposed to the readers through the participants' depiction as sensors. As the author's main purpose was to report the visitors' insights and opinion about the International Book Festival, the choice of certain mental processes (the bold ones above) support the transmission of the participants' (the visitors') feelings and cognitions. The readers can realize these feelings and have mental impact.

In pair 4, both WP and AN authors used mental process but with different rates (2.59 % for WP vs. 8.10 % for AN ). Even though the length of the WP article is longer than the AN article, the rate of mental process use in AN is higher than WP use. This again is ascribed to the author's choice to include a particular portion of a process type or another. However, it also could be attributed to authors' different intentions in reporting the events. The WP writer intended to include many quotations or indirect speech to report the death of a football coach. Hence, the
mental process did not form the majority of occurrence, instead, it is the verbal process. So, many of the writer's own words were not exposed to the readers but someone else's words. In contrast, the AN writer used direct speech uncovering his personal words to the readers transmitting the participants' mental states. (Regarding direct and indirect speech, more explanation will be provided in the discussion of verbal process).

- "Lynch -- known as Nick" [WP 4]
- "Police theorized the accident" [AN 4]
- "Saad was last seen at Hilal club on Wednesday" [AN 4]

5.3. Relational Process

Among the six major types of process, relational process forms the second large group in the pair articles. Writers of both newspapers, WP & AN, use the relational process to provide descriptive information about the phenomenon concerned and qualities of the relevant participants.

Tables 1 & 2 above display that the relational usage percentages vary from one article to another in all pairs. The higher rate in a particular article signifies that more descriptive information is included. Therefore, realization of the process type supports the audience getting the author's intended purpose whether to describe, to inform, to argue or to transmit opinion.

The relational process type is oriented with being, possessing and becoming. It means that an entity has some characteristics that ascribed to it. Below are some examples:

Pair 1:

- "A main reason for the increased bailout cost is that the government's stock holdings of companies rescued by taxpayers have fallen in value" [WP 1]
- "Shares of AIG and GM, for instance, are above what they were at the end of November" [WP 1]
- "The bright spot of the financial rescue is the program to aid banks". [WP 1]
- "This is the sixth budget since the global financial crisis". [AN 1]
- "government finances remain solid" [AN 1]
- "Slow implementation has been the bane of many ordinary Saudis". [AN 1]

Pair 2:

- "The hiring gap is partly attributable to the fact that men and women are concentrated in different industries" [WP 2]
- "Women, by contrast, hold an outsize number of public-sector jobs" [WP 2]
- "Physical infrastructure projects that have been at the heart of most Democratic recovery plans" [WP 2]
- "unemployment rates in Saudi Arabia are drastically different between Saudis and non-Saudis, as well as between men and women". [AN 2]
k- “The only losers among the four groups were Saudi women”. [AN 2]
l- “they are too discouraged” [AN 2]
m- “They …..do not have the means to “seriously” or properly search for employment” [AN 2]
n- “unemployed Saudi women hold university degrees”. [AN 2]

Pair 3:

o- “The event….has become a must-go-to event in Washington” [WP 3]
p- “The event is even popular with young readers”. [WP 3]
q- “A large number of senior Saudi officials, intellectuals, publishers, scholars and writers were present to boost nationalization initiatives by the Saudi government”. [AN 3]
r- “The book fair serves as a great networking platform for publishers” [AN 3]
s- “The Riyadh International Book Fair is the most prominent book fair in the Middle East”. [AN 3]

Pair 4:

t- “Nick,” even though his given name was David”. [WP 4]
u- “The accident remains under investigation”. [WP 4]
v- “Lynch, 43, carried an immense stature in the District Heights community”. [WP 4]
w- “Lynch became adept at helping his team” [WP 4]
x- “Turki Al-Ammar was in serious condition and with broken ribs” [AN 4]

These examples prove that the writers have expressed their views and knowledge in a natural way which unconsciously draw the audience's acceptance. Via relational process choice, they provided descriptive information including possession as in examples (h, m, n & v), becoming as in (e, o, r, u & w), and being relations as in instances (a, b, c, d, f, g, i, j, k, l, p, q, s, t & x).

5.4. Verbal Process

Verbal process is also used by WP and AN authors to indicate the ‘saying’ and encode the physical act of speaking. According to tables 1 & 2, the portions of verbal process usage vary in the pair articles and it is not used by AN author in article 2.

Through the use of verbal process, the voices of the participants other than the writers’ were also heard. The verbal process usage develops the use of quoted speech. The quoted language presents a speech said by others. Here the writers intend not only to enable the readers read the speech, but also they want them to hear it as it is actually spoken by others. Direct speech is also employed by the authors to give a more dramatic effect on meaning by reporting heard speech using their own words and expressions. By doing this, the two voices (the heard one and the writer's) are combined and not distinguished.

Examples are listed below:

Pair 1:
a- "Despite claims to the contrary, the facts on [the federal rescue] are very clear: ........," Frank Keating, president and chief executive of the American Bankers Association, said Monday". [WP 1]

b- He added, "This would simply be an arbitrary tax with no regard to where losses actually occurred." [WP 1]

c- "Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques King Abdullah has several times publicly admonished ministers and other officials about unfinished projects". [AN 1]

d- He said, "We realize that what matters is not budget figures, but what they represent in reality as projects" [AN 1]

In these examples, the writers used the verbal process to introduce quoted speech supporting their claims and confirming their viewpoints adding more proofs of what they believe.

Pair 2:

a- "As the stimulus revealed, physical infrastructure projects often proved to be daunting logistical endeavors, some of which were not as "shovel-ready" as promised". [WP 2]

In this example, the WP author presents his point of view about 'infrastructure projects' showing how his knowledge or point of view was built; on the basis of a previous encounter or stimulus stated in the clause 'As the stimulus revealed'. Then the verbal clause in the same example 'as promised' shows the author's other source for his experience or knowledge. He stated that physical infrastructure projects were not as "shovel-ready". The idiom "shovel-ready" means that projects are complete. The clause 'as promised' indicates that the writer heard someone else had spoken this before, "that the projects would be complete", but he is opposing the idea.

The verbal process 'as promised' displays the use of 'intertextuality', i.e., including someone else's speech or thoughts. In this case, it is used not to confirm the author's stand or claim; but rather to introduce an opposition state.

For this pair, the AN author did not use a verbal process or clause. This seems to be due to the way he presented his topic about unemployment where he included several statistics comparing gender's opportunities in the present and the past and there seemed no need to include any reported speech or other forms of intertextuality.

Pair 3:

a- "authors read from their most recent works and discuss a range of topics" [WP 3]

b- "Illustrator and author Kadir Nelson told a crowd of young readers about memorizing the Rev. Martin Luther King Jr. 's “I Have a Dream” speech" [WP 3]

c- "Singer and songwriter Linda Ronstadt discussed her new book, “Simple Dreams: A musical Memoir,” and weighed in on the debate over immigration” [WP 3]
d- "The event is even popular with young readers. Tania Mendez-Lopez, 11, of the District said she enjoyed interacting with famous costumed characters" [WP 3]

e- "Saleh Al-Ghamdi, director of the Riyadh International Book Fair, said: “There is a special pavilion for Saudis....." [AN 3]

The excerpts in this pair illustrate that the verbal process is employed not only to present reported speech directly or indirectly, but also to convey the participants' physical act of speaking (consider examples a & c).

Pair 4:

a- "It was an accident that I deal with all the time in my career," said Gansert" [WP 4]
b- "The football players had great respect for him," said Lynch's brother" [WP 4]
c- "According to doctors at the hospital, Saad died from head injuries which resulted in severe internal bleeding. The other casualty, doctors added, also died from similar injuries. The manager of the ambulance department at the hospital said that the final medical report would be released tomorrow." [AN 4]

In this pair extracts, the authors also used the verbal process type to introduce quoted speech directly and indirectly to confirm their statements and get the readers convinced. The phrases 'according to, added, & said' point out the verbal process. Though the phrase 'according to' is not a verb phrase, but it implies the act of speaking. In example c the author paraphrases a heard speech said earlier. He states "According to doctors at the hospital...". Instead, it is possible to state "doctors at the hospital said..." changing the paraphrased statement into reported speech. In addition, the verb 'added' may not denote the act of speaking if it is used in another context. So, it is worth to note that verbs may be used in more than one way- the lexico-grammatical context determines the process type.

5.5. Existential Process

Existential process did not constitute a large portion among the process types. The reason why existential process was infrequently used compared to the material processes is that, in the pair articles the writers were largely concerned with the concrete or physical actions of the participants. Only on a few occasions, existential clauses were chosen so as to introduce the presence of a participant, or express positional states. In addition, such process type also tells the readers to what will take place or be detailed in the following discourse.

A correlation between tables 1& 2 above, it appears that the AN authors tend to use the existential process in their produced texts more than that of the WP authors. The total number of existential process frequency in AN articles is 13 while it is 7 in WP ones. This constitutes a total percentage of 37.43% for AN and 13.95 % for WP.

Some extractions from the pair articles are listed below.
The choice of the existential process as shown in the examples above, expose the writers' experienced knowledge and purpose for the discussed subject matters. It is mainly employed by authors of both newspapers to present the existence of an event or entity rather than to show the positional states or what will take place or be detailed in the following discourse. This assumption is proper at least as far as the sample articles are concerned. The existence of an event or entity is illustrated in examples a, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, q, r & t. Unequally, there is only one case in which existential process is used to express what will take place next as in example b; and other two instances to indicate positional states as in p & s.
5.6. Behavior Process

Behavior process is the second least occurrence among the six process types. Besides, it did not occur in pair 1 AN article and pair 2 both articles. This could be construed that the writers' chief intention was not to report the participants' physiological responses or the results of the material process produced by them. Instead, the writers were informative reporting facts about particular issues.

Unlike the existential process occurrence in WP articles in comparison to AN ones, the behavior process marks a higher portion of usage in the WP texts than the AN texts. The total number of this process frequency in WP articles is 6 when it is only 4 in AN. The variation of processes rates remains the authors' choice to include a particular process more than the other or exclude another based on their own experiences trying to transmit their knowledge and bring about the intended purpose in line with the targeted audience.

Some illustrations are presented below; the behavior process verbs are bold and underlined:

Pair 1:

a- "The Obama administration has repeatedly boasted how the historic rescue of Wall Street will cost taxpayers" [WP 1]
b- "Republicans pledged to oppose the tax" [WP 1]

Pair 3:

a- "They waited excitedly at standing-room-only readings and packed author appearances, hopping from event to event". [WP 3]
b- "Canadian novelist Margaret Atwood drew laughs from the audience when she talked about the competition between readers and paper books". [WP 3]
c- "Khoja expressed gratitude to Custodian of the Two Holy Mosques King Abdullah and welcomed Spain as the guest of honor for 2014". [AN 3]

Pair 4:

a- "Lynch didn’t hide his emotions. In a 2003 playoff loss to Eleanor Roosevelt, he pulled his team off the field" [WP 4]
b- "In deference to his death the long-awaited clash between rivals Hilal of Riyadh and Al-Ittihad of Jeddah in the King Fahd Cup today in Riyadh was postponed to a later date". [AN 4]
c- "he did training before taking permission from Hilal officials to drive his family to the Eastern Province" [AN 4]

In fact, depicting the participants as behavers or physiological beings, acting out with consciousness unfolds the authors' inner experiences to the readers' eyes who may get influenced by their responses.

6. Findings

With the major objective to explore the ideational meaning or the transmission of the writers' world experiences to bring about some intended purposes, a lexico-grammatical analysis has been attempted on eight articles from two newspapers, the Washington Post and Arab News,
detecting the process types. The analysis reveals that there is no one to one relationship to account for the length of the articles as the total number of all process types in per article randomly form inequality. AN articles are longer than WP articles in pair 1 & 2, whereas it is the reverse in pair 3 & 4. Building on this result, it is assumed that the authors' origin factor; being native or non-native of English does not affect the information density. On the other hand, considering the process types frequency, the authors of both newspapers give the material and relational processes a prominence of frequency use to transmit their world experiences. The material process discloses the actions of physical nature which are employed by the authors. The relational process makes links between the actions as well as the actors with some qualities that are associated with them. Then the verbal process is the third frequent occurrence in WP articles but it is the fifth in AN ones. This represents that more intertextuality (reported speech) is used by WP authors to confirm and provide more evidence for their claims. While mental process is the fourth frequency in WP article, it is the third in AN ones. This reveals less inner status and psychological concerns are showed by WP authors as compared to AN writers. Thus the AN authors' inner consciousness and insights are more exposed to the readers than the WP authors. As still there is no much involvement with the mental process paralleled to material and relational processes, the authors appear to be more objective in nature than being subjective. Consequently, the readers may be led to frame their own insights on the basis of the actions represented through material and relational processes. Existential process is the fifth in WP and the fourth in AN articles. This embodies less positional states and presence of an entity are depicted in the articles. The behavior process is the last and least occurrence in both newspapers articles showing that the physiological responses of the actors are not a major concentration in the articles. However, the rates of process types in all articles of both newspapers differ considerably. This variation is ascribed to the authors' choice to include a process type more than the other or exclude another to transmit their own experiences and bring about the intended purpose trying to influence the readers.

7. Conclusion

Through the analysis we realize that despite the topic similarity of each pair, the texts' contexts of WP and AN articles differ remarkably along with the writing purposes. Different writing purposes led the authors select certain words and structures and avoid others through diverse process types as they served their purposes and the target audience. Thus, realization of the process types support the audience getting the authors' intended purposes and understanding their ideas.

About the Authors
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References

Appendix: (Washington Post & Arab News Articles)

**Pair 1:**
[WP 1] "Price tag for Wall Street bailout goes up" by Jia Lynn Yang & Zachary A. Goldfarb, February 13, 2012
https://www.washingtonpost.com/business/economy/price-tag-for-wall-street-bailout-goes-up/2012/02/13/gIQAUdB3BR_story.html?utm_term=.fff9a0ffe25e

**Pair 2:**
Pair 3:
[WP 3] "National Book Festival draws thousands to National Mall", by Luz Lazo, September 21, 2013
[AN 3] "21 nations take part in Riyadh International Book Fair, by Ali Fayyaz, March 5, 2014

Pair 4:
http://www.washingtonpost.com/wp-dyn/content/article/2008/12/31/AR2008123101058.html
[AN 4] "Saudi Soccer Star Al-Dossary Dies in Car Accident", by Mahmoud Ahmad, December 12, 2004
http://www.arabnews.com/node/260319
Language Games in Teaching and Learning English Grammar: A Literature Review

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Abstract
Traditional teaching and learning process referring to chalk-and-talk has become outdated in lessons. Teachers and learners are exposed to various task-based process to encourage a better participation among learners throughout the lesson. One of the most common and preferred teaching strategies is the use of language games to aid the teaching of various skills. The growth of digital learning tools and web applications being used in lessons taking the use of language games to a modern and advanced platform for learners to engage in lessons. The use of interesting and suitable materials along with the various approaches when conducting language games during lessons helps to cater to learners' needs and interests on the subject-matter especially in learning grammar in context. Many researches have used various language games to show its effects on learners' knowledge, competency and motivation in learning a language, focusing on different targeted language areas and skills such as grammar. Therefore, this paper, based on reviews of past literature, will explore the use of language games in teaching and learning grammar, with reference to second language (ESL) learners. The findings indicate the beneficial usage of language games to teaching and learning of grammar in ESL learners. This study is useful to prove the importance of language games as a teaching strategy to help enhance learners' English grammar acquisition.

Keywords: ESL, grammar games, language games, learning grammar

Cite as: Yaccob, N.S., & Yunus, M.M. (2019). Language Games in Teaching and Learning English Grammar: A Literature Review. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 209 -217. DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.18
1. Introduction

The importance of grammar in the English language cannot be ignored (Savignon, 2017) as it is relatively an essential language form (Alijanian, 2012) that learners need to master in order to create meaningful sentences. Grammar is defined as the study of words operating together to form meaningful sentences (Thekes, 2011; Goodman & Goodman, 2014). It is important for ESL learners to construct sentences and confidently express their ideas since some might feel shy because they are scared of making grammar mistakes resulting in a misunderstanding of the original ideas. Similarly, some find grammar rules to be challenging to grasp (Baharudin & Yunus, 2018) thus suggesting the use of technology tool as an effective teaching aid. It reflects the advantage of language games to improve the teaching and learning of grammar and importantly assist learners to work on their grammar proficiency. This fun approach to the teaching and learning of English grammar is accommodating and efficient especially when dealing with young and teenage ESL learners. In Malaysia, grammar or Language Awareness acts as pillar in ESL and is a skill that must be taught during English lesson with textbooks and workbooks presenting the key grammar rules that learners have to master by the end of their secondary school years.

The introduction of Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) approaches since the past years has brought a more effective style of language teaching and learning. According to Ngoc and Iwashita (2012), “CLT is a language teaching approach that emphasises the communication of meaning rather than the practice of grammatical forms in isolation” (p.26). In the 21st century second and foreign language acquisition, a CLT approach is able to shape a classroom practice that allows learners to be communicatively competent according to the contexts in which English is taught (Savignon, 2017). Language games are part of CLT approach for its characteristics that include learner-centredness, meaningful collaborative and interactive activities, the use of relevant and authentic materials, the focus of meaning and linguistic forms in context and also the roles of teachers as facilitators (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, as cited in Ngoc & Iwashita, 2012). It encourages learners to use language creatively and communicatively other than offering relaxation and enjoyment to them as the participants (Adeng & Shah, 2012). In definition, language games are language learning through gameplay (Godwin-Jones, 2014) which involves the communicative aspects of learning (Willis & Willis, 2013; Adeng & Shah, 2012). Therefore, it brings about the sentiment that teaching and learning of grammar should not be done in isolation but in a proper context and authentically. There are two types of language games; digital and non-digital or physical games with both being widely used to aid language lessons. Non-digital language games such as board games; Snake and Ladders and Grammar Monopoly, Dominoes and Wheel of Grammar (WOG) are still relevant among teachers and learners. Whereas Quizlet, Edmodo, Frogplay and Massively Multiplayer Online Role-Playing Games (MMORPG) are among the choices for schools which are equipped with proper facilities for digital language games to take place.

Hall (2017) explains that “typically, communicative and interaction-based approaches to English language teaching (ELT) have suggested that teacher talk should be minimised, providing the opportunities for learners to talk, practise and produce language” (p.23). Naturally, this fulfils the requirements of a 21st-century teaching and learning approach where learners dominate their learning (Hall, 2017) as well as integrating the Higher Order Thinking Skills (HOTS) elements in grammar lessons. Language games in CLT also plays a vital role to ensure ESL learners’ ability...
and confidence to use grammar correctly in performing all language skills including when solving riddles and problems. The educational environment is fast evolving to challenge and adapting learners to a VUCA (volatility, uncertainty, complexity, ambiguity) environment (Meng, 2014) in which learners’ thinking and problem-solving skills are developed. In regards to the English language syllabus, the current Malaysian English textbooks introduce functions and practices for the intended grammar items, however, do not reflect CLT principles. Chambers & Yunus (2017) have similar opinion that “the Subject-Verb Agreement (SVA) and Verb-To-Be (VTB) introduced in textbooks in primary and secondary schools are usually in the form of tables which can slow down the learning process as most learners find it distasteful” (p.1642). The design for layout and the presentation of the grammar rules in textbooks and workbooks are considered important as they play a role to attract learners’ interest. When grammar teaching is concerned, language games become a medium to teach ESL learners both grammar structures and the use in communicative and real-life context. As assured by Savignon (2017), “learners seem to focus best on grammar when it relates to their communicative needs and experiences” (p.4-5). This sums up the effectiveness of teaching grammar through various independent and communicative approaches. In keeping abreast with the recent technological advancement, education needs to be meaningful and effective for the development of skills. Hence, ESL learners should learn the basic of grammar to use it in communication instead of merely on the purpose of examination. They should be exposed to not only the technical aspects of the language namely the grammar and forms but also, the structural and functional aspects of it. Both should not be differentiated but to be adapted and assimilated in order to create a link for meaningful use. This paper reviews past literature for the use and advantages of language games in teaching and learning of grammar with particular reference to ESL learners particularly on fluency, interest and motivation.

2. Literature Review

Adhering to various communicative approaches, language games in teaching and learning holds numerous advantages in enhancing ESL learners’ fluency and language skills. It creates an enjoyable environment for an effective learning process. Goodman & Goodman (2014) state that “children learn language best in an environment rich with opportunities to explore interesting objects and ideas” (p.197). Language games provide a platform for learners to communicate using the target grammar forms in a more interesting and authentic manner as supported by Ellis (2006, as cited in Alijanian, 2012) that “grammar is no more considered as meaningless, a context-independent set of rules prescribed about language forms but it is regarded with respect to communication" (p.415). It should be taught with the willingness to engage learners in interaction using the targeted grammar items and by providing them the freedom to use the target language (Willis & Willis, 2013). Likewise, according to Krashen (1988), in second language performance, there are two independent systems named as ‘the acquired system’ and ‘the learned system’. The acquired system (acquisition) requires a natural communication or meaningful interaction in the target language, while the learned system (learning) is the product of a conscious process which resulted in knowledge of the language, such as grammar rules (Krashen, 1988). Learners play an active role (Thirusanku & Melor, 2014) and the active involvement from the learners when accomplishing language games creates consciousness on the importance of practicing the grammar forms in their interaction freely. The real-life situations act as a platform to enrich ESL learners’ language skills and confidence when facing various and common events.
However, a study done by Alijanian (2012) shows that “CLT and direct grammar teaching were both favored by the teachers” (p.416). Another opinion regarding ESL learners is that, there is a need for them to first grasp the basic knowledge of grammar by doing structural practices (Chambers & Yunus, 2017) before being given the communicative task which is supported by the findings in Alijanian (2012) in her study that “learners became distracted if the rule was not explained first” (p.417). The study explores teachers’ beliefs about the teaching of grammar. It investigates how teachers view the traditional grammar teaching and also through games, hence taking another study on Iranian EFL learners, by Taheri (2014) which firmly assured that “games are beneficial in language learning, while traditional form-focused is not that most effective because they lack some features of the game” (p.548). According to Willis & Willis (2013), “many traditional methodologies begin by teaching grammatical forms before going on to set communicative activities for learners to use those forms” (p.18). Adding to that, Thekes (2011) says “the constant explanation of grammar rules and decontextualizing grammar are quick ways for teachers to demotivate their learners and some English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers still fall into the comfortable trap of presenting grammar through rules” (p.1). Hence, there are the demands of variation in the teaching and learning of grammar to escape the traditional ways which often be used in grammar lessons (Briewin, Naidu & Mohamed, 2013; Taheri, 2014). TBLT is said to be an approach that encourages learners to engage in meaning (Willis & Willis, 2013) rather than learning the language skills in isolation. Similarly, this reflects the use of language games to help ESL learners develop their language skills, confidence and communicative skills.

In a wider context, when games are integrated with language lessons, it supports higher-order learning and thinking skills (HOTS) which are very important for learners to develop themselves as future professionals (Rahman & Bakar, 2018; Thirusanku & Yunus, 2014). Nevertheless, there are different views being discussed in Alijanian (2012) on “the separate treatment on grammar which fails to produce language knowledge and that learners learn grammar best if it is presented within a text” (p.417). The differences of ideas show the differences in teachers' perceptions towards approaches in teaching grammar. Language games as a task-based language teaching (TBLT) approach is designed to produce ESL learners who are able to use English in the real world, using the learned grammar forms in real-life communication (Willis & Willis, 2013) and to participate effectively in society (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Although it is argued that this learning approach is not structured and learners are required to take initiatives with the use of an authentic target in fostering autonomy and competency (Benson, 2011, as cited in Chik, 2012), once learners are motivated and interested in the language, they are able to be responsible in their own learning. Language fluency or competency is enhanced due to ESL learners’ willingness to use the language at all times.

2.1 Language Games To Stimulate Interest On Learning

Adeng & Shah (2012) state that “grammar teaching that is too dependent on rules and memorisation makes learners lose their interest and motivation" and add that “games are the most suitable to learn the grammar of a second language" (p.23). It comes to terms that learning grammar in different communicative settings through active games is more interesting rather than doing grammar practices with workbooks. ESL learners are more interested to learn particular grammar through authentic language games with a widened repertoire of tasks related to real-life contexts. Also, the application of different classroom activities and learning strategies is crucial to assist
learners with various needs (Chambers & Yunus, 2017) as these can encourage learners to participate and engage in grammar lessons. Undoubtedly, language games have activities to suit ESL learners’ language needs and for them to learn in an effective and encouraging environment. Godwin-Jones (2014) claims that “games can offer an immersive environment in which extensive use is made of the target language” (p.10) which is similar to digital games as stated by Chik (2012) that, “learners can practise foreign language learning and use autonomously through activities they were passionate about, and moved the learning process beyond classroom” (p.96). Both non-digital or physical and digital language games arouse ESL learners’ interests to participate in the usually boring grammar lessons other than it can be applied in lessons even though the classroom is not equipped with modern technological tools. The context given to suit the targeted grammar items permits ESL learners to learn effectively as it brings about the authentic time and places used. As highlighted by Briewin et al. (2013) on providing context to present targeted grammar items, “it can arouse interest, stimulate interaction and help them to understand places, people and events as well as simplify situations which would otherwise be abstract and difficult to explain in words” (p.250). They are informed on which tenses to use given the situations. Apart from that, through language games, learners have a greater autonomy in learning grammar (Baharudin & Yunus, 2018) as they are able to make sensible connection of the knowledge and its usage, also fit in Butler’ (2017) statement on game-like materials “that allow individualised learning and encourage autonomy in order to cater to the genuine interests of learners” (p.735).

Interestingly, based on a study on Iranian EFL teachers’ beliefs on grammar teaching, Alijanian (2012) says:

the experienced teachers were aware of the fact that grammar classes are boring and the need for them to use a variety of teaching styles and extra activities to keep the learners interested and motivated through working out tasks and grammar games (p.418)

Whereas Nedomova (2007, as cited in Adeng & Shah, 2012) agrees that “it makes the lesson more attractive and protect them from being bored” (p. 575). Teenage ESL learners are at the age where they are keen and eager to play and explore thus, attracting them to focus and involve actively in the grammar games throughout the lesson. Similarly, Mubaslat (2011/2012) expresses that “games ought to be at the heart of teaching foreign languages and that games should be used at all stages of lesson” (p.4). It is, therefore, appropriate to conclude that using interactive games to teach grammar helps to stimulate learners’ interests. In fact, this is agreed by Godwin-Jones (2014) that “the strong motivational factors involved, game playing can be a powerful agent for learner autonomy, a potential resource for long-term language maintenance, and an entry-point for gaining interest in learning new languages” (p.11). Learners who are interested in learning will be emotionally involved in the lesson and fully appreciate it. In the long run, this element helps learners to understand and remember the lesson especially the targeted grammar items. Learning through language games is an enjoyable retreat from a boring grammar lesson for ESL teachers who are looking for ways to keep learners interested and motivated in acquiring the English skills (Thirusanku & Yunus, 2014) since the innovative materials will appeal to them (Briewin et al., 2013; Mubaslat, 2011/2012).
2.2 Language Games To Develop Fluency

Developing ESL learners’ fluency in the target language, English is a highlight to a successful language lesson. Learning grammar provides learners with proper and deeper understanding of the English language especially when it is learned unconsciously through practices (Chambers & Yunus, 2017). Equally, ESL learners must use the language actively through communication with others in order to progress in a game (Godwin-Jones 2014; Chambers & Yunus, 2017; Adeng & Shah, 2012) providing a room for improvement in fluency and proficiency. Godwin-Jones (2014) further explains that “learners are using language in real and meaningful ways to accomplish a task through games” and it is great that “they are exposed to cultural and linguistic knowledge that they are unlikely to have encountered in a textbook or in the classroom” (p.10). A research conducted by Chambers & Yunus (2017) has found out that Wheel of Grammar (WOG) has helped Form Five learners from a school in Sarawak to construct simple sentences and apply correct basic rules of Subject-Verb Agreement (SVA). Equally, Adeng & Shah (2012) from their research on the use of games in teaching grammar has resulted in the revelation that “grammar games encourage, entertain and promote fluency” (p.28). It is opposed to traditional language learning that stresses grammar drill and limits the overall practice of using the English language through interaction.

Language games also allow ESL learners to work with partners and in groups, giving them more opportunities to use the language themselves (Willis & Willis, 2013) and progressively improving fluency. A clear example of a game is role-playing which needs learners to be creative and spontaneous. In addition, ESL learners experiment, explore and cooperate through playing games (Mubaslat, 2011/2012). They develop their language skills by interacting with others and learning from mistakes. Based on these studies, it implies that language games which constitute of learner-centredness and 21st-century teaching and learning styles, focusing on learners' independent learning are highly recommended to replace the traditional teaching method as to promote and develop ESL learners' fluency (Adeng & Shah, 2012) in using the target language. Learners are able to lessen anxiety, build self-confidence and portray positive emotions and behaviours as they are unafraid of using the target language interactively (Adeng & Shah, 2012).

2.3 Language Games To Motivate Learners

Motivation needs to be instilled for ESL learners to have the drive to learn the grammar of a second language or a foreign language. Briewin et al. (2013) claim that some learners “are motivated because they know the importance of grammar in constructing sentences” (p.252). Therefore, most of the time, they are aware of the needs to improve their grammar abilities to be fluent in English, however not necessarily prepared to directly learn the rules. As teaching and learning strategies are among factors that influence learners' perseverance to learn grammar, language games as TBLT will fit in the scenario perfectly. The motivating elements in language games can be connected with Flow Theory that is a motivational theory developed by Mihaly Csikszentmihaly in 1975 (Oppland, 2016). It refers to a mental state experienced when doing challenging activities in a comfortable zone between boredom and anxiety, as well as find pleasure while completing the task, ensuring the activity is not too difficult or easy to avoid frustration and boredom (Franciosi, 2011). When learners are learning using language games, the Flow Theory is established because they receive a motivation boost to concentrate on finishing the games. As those games are based on particular grammar aspects, learners would learn to solve the grammar problems in order to complete the games and compete with others. The hands-on learning will not
only enable them to explore and delve into the rules but also, act as a motivation to understand the language better (Chambers & Yunus, 2017) and improve language skills (Chik, 2012). In other words, they are given the platform to be critical and active when learning English (Baharudin & Yunus, 2018).

Adeng & Shah (2012) also agree that “games are motivating and entertaining way of teaching grammar” (p.28) and “learners are entertained and get involved in acquiring it” (Thekes, 2011, p.2). It consists of activities that challenge learners yet still can be accomplished which involve optimal emotional, motivational experiences and learning (Oppland, 2016). To further explain, the Flow Theory addresses how one experiences educational contexts and how it influences learning and motivation (Oppland, 2016). Hence, the extrinsic and intrinsic motivations gained by learners participating in language games are the reasons language games would work very well in grammar lessons which is supported by Godwin-Jones (2014) that “self-generated and self-directed discovery can further the kind of intrinsic motivation that commits users to learn more” (p.13). Namely, as games enhance classroom environment, it motivates learners who play certain games to learn, more than learners who use traditional learning methods (Mubaslat, 2011/2012). It diminishes the fear of learning a grammar form of another language, of which ESL learners become less anxious when games are employed (Franciosi, 2011). Baharudin & Yunus (2018) assert that “games promote an independent learning among the learners consequently, motivating them to be more confident in learning” (p.107) as they are in charge of the situations and not vice versa. Besides, participation, cooperation and interaction with others are among the sole reasons for successful language learning through games (Adeng & Shah, 2012) and group tasks (Savignon, 2017).

3. Discussion

The paper explores the teaching and learning of grammar using language games by highlighting the advantages and related past studies on learners’ fluency, interest and motivation. The main concern for ESL learners’ lack of interest, fluency and motivation is due to difficult, boring and traditional methods of learning grammar. Hence, this paper points the need to expose learners to the use of language games; both digital and non-digital or physical games when learning grammar. Although, there have been debates comparing the effectiveness of traditional grammar learning and the ones using games. It draws a conclusion that language games are an effective and advantageous option when learners are not cooperative or interested in grammar lessons because games create engagement, connection and in-context learning. It also saves more time as learners are directly exposed to using grammar in context and developing fluency in creating sentences. Language games are fun (Adeng & Shah, 2012) and learners are motivated to learn grammar whenever fun and exciting elements are included (Mihaly Csikszentmihaly, 1975 in Oppland, 2016). Gradually, ESL learners are able to improve their grammar fluency as they practise through playing games (Briewin et al., 2013).

4. Conclusion

This paper has shown that teachers’ used of language games as an approach to enhance ESL learners’ grammar understanding and acquisition as it directly develops their interest, fluency and motivation in the learning process. Mastering grammar is important to digital generations today as it shows competency and is useful in daily interaction with people. Similarly, the proficiency in
using grammar in context builds better confidence. Hence, grammar should not be taught or learnt in isolation but through meaningful methods where ESL learners can relate easily to its usage. Last but not least, it is believed that language games will help educators to create fun learning materials to arouse learners’ interest, fluency and motivation as well as to suit their proficiency level and learning styles. It definitely makes learning grammar easier and more relatable for ESL learners.

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Reference


An Attempt at Promoting Undergraduate Sudanese EFL Students’ Performance in Academic Writing Skills

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Abstract
The study aims at suggesting effective methods and techniques that could improve English as a foreign language EFL students’ performance in writing skills. The researcher uses the descriptive, analytical method. Four tools were adopted pretest, post-test, supporting program, and a questionnaire for teachers for collecting data. Twenty-five students in Holy Quran University, Sudan, were chosen purposively, and thirty EFL teachers at a university level were randomly selected as a sample for the study. Ninety percent of the teachers agree on the suggested program and techniques. The findings of the study indicate that: using varied techniques and activities in pre-writing stage promotes students’ performances in writing, integration of reading and writing skills in the classroom improves students’ writing skills, as well as encouraging extensive reading outside the classroom promotes students’ performance in writing skills. Accordingly, the researcher recommends that: teachers should focus on the prewriting stage through different activities as well as reading and writing should be used in an integrated way in-class writing to guide the writing process.

Keywords: academic writing, performance, undergraduate EFL students

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.19
Introduction

Writing skill is essential because it is a thinking tool and helps in the development of a language. Bjork & Raisanen 1997 as cited in Javid & Umer, 2014 state:

We highlight the importance of writing in all university curricula not only because of its immediate practical application, i.e., as an isolated skill or ability but because we believe that, from a broader perspective, writing is a thinking tool. It is a tool for language development, for critical thinking and, extension, for learning in all disciplines. (p.164)

To write it is essential to understand the primary system of a language. In English, this includes knowledge of grammar, punctuation and sentence structure. Vocabulary is also necessary, as is correct spelling and formatting. It is retrieved from https://www.englishclub.com/writing/what.htm

Mohammad & Hazarika, (2016) state that “

There is no doubt in the fact that writing is a tool for the creation of ideas and the consolidation of the linguistic system by using it for communicative objectives in an interactive way. Thus, it implies the successful transmission of ideas from an addressee through a text, and this exchange of information becomes a powerful means to motivate and encourage the development of writing skills. Writing is often a challenge for EFL learners as it is the most painstaking and challenging language skill. (P.1)

Nunan (2003) notes that writing is both a physical and a mental act. At the most basic level, writing is the physical act of committing words or ideas to some medium. On the other hand, writing is the mental work of inventing ideas, thinking about how to express them, and organizing them into statements and paragraphs that will be clear to a reader. (P.22)

This study aims to suggest some techniques and activities to be used in teaching writing skills to the students belonging to English department in the College of Education at Holy Quran University to improve their writing skills.

Statement of the problem

As an EFL teacher for ten years or more, the researcher has observed that most of the EFL students in Holy Quran university do not benefit from writing courses. Teaching writing at the university level has little effect on students’ writing performance. It seems that the students are not exposed to sufficient and suitable writing materials, which are not enough to enable them to make use of the prescribed instructions.

Significance of the Study

This study suggests effective techniques and activities for improving students’ performance in writing. There are various techniques and activities which are very important for improving the students’ performance in writing skills. Applying these techniques in teaching writing will enable the students to write effectively and efficiently to achieve his/her purpose. EFL teachers’ trainers
who teach methodology can benefit from the study by applying the techniques and activities suggested by the researcher.

Objectives of the study
This study aims to:
1. Suggest appropriate techniques and activities in pre-writing stage to create interest and promote students’ performance in writing.
2. Implement writing techniques and strategies such as organization, outlining, formatting, revising, and editing to improve the students’ performance in writing.
3. Integrating reading and writing by suggesting reading materials that improve students' proficiency in both reading and writing through adopting blended methods.
4. Emphasize the necessity of extensive reading outside the class.

Questions of the study
1- How can students’ performance in writing skills be promoted?
2- To what extent does the integration of reading skills and writing skills enhance students’ performance in writing?
3- How can extensive reading outside the classroom promote students’ writing performance?

Hypotheses of the study
1- Using varied techniques and activities in the pre-writing stage like reading about the topic, watching a film, listening to a situation, or even describing a picture of the topic promote students’ performances in writing.
2- Integration of reading and writing skills improves students’ writing skills by reducing spelling, punctuation, quotation, and capitalization mistakes.
3- Reading outside classrooms (extensive reading) promotes students’ performance in writing skills.

Methodology of the Study
The descriptive analytical method was adopted. Four tools of data collection will be carried, a questionnaire, pretest, supporting programme and post-test. A questionnaire was distributed among thirty EFL university teachers. The pretest was given to twenty-five students from Holly Quran University to assess their performance in writing skills. The supporting programme was proposed to enhance students’ performance according to the pretest results. The post-test was given to the same group of students to see to what extent the students benefit from the supporting programme.

Literature Review
Definition of academic writing
According to Al Fadda, (2012) academic writing is a mental and cognitive activity, since it is a product of the mind. The image of an individual working alone in a quiet environment has furthered the view of writing as a mental and cognitive activity. However, as it has been pointed out, “writing can be understood only from the perspective of a society rather than a single individual” (Burke, 2010, p. 40-41). Al Fadda, (2012) also adds that: “one of the basics of academic writing is the ability of the learners to access the relevant references and evaluate them
in order to put the different ideas and opinions together so that they can develop their own voice”. (P.2)

Academic writing includes making an outline, summarizing and paraphrasing which students might struggle when writing their tasks. Al-Khasawneh & Maher (2010).

Concepts about academic writing

Writing could be a difficult skill to be learned or taught due to the fact that it is not a simple cognitive activity; rather it is believed to be a complex mental production which requires "careful thought, discipline and concentration" (Grami, 2010, p. 9). Al Fadda (2012) finds out that the main challenges English a second language (ESL) students encounter are differentiating between written and spoken words and phrases, reviewing grammar including subject-verb agreement and joining sentences together to make a coherent paragraph. (P.1)

Richards & Renandya, (2002) claim that “Writing involves very complex skills. Learners of the second language (L2) writing have to attend to higher skills such as planning and organizing and lower skills such as spelling and punctuation”. (P.304)

Difficulties of academic writing

Many factors may cause the difficulties of academic writing when the students try to create their own piece of writing. Writing is a complex process because it requires the mastery of grammatical devices, conceptual thinking and judgmental (have a purpose and activating) elements (Byrne 1988, P.4).

In the process of learning EFL, students face many difficulties in writing, especially in capitalization, punctuation, language use, tenses, preposition, spelling, word order, subject verb agreement etc. The same issues have been raised by Khan (2011) as he mentions that they face several problems in phoneme clusters, spellings, grammar, mistakes due to first language L1 interference, structure, doubling of subjects, doubling of preposition, tenses, articles, appropriate vocabulary, incorrect use of prefixes & suffixes etc.

There is a study conducted by Ridha (2012) as cited in Taj Mohammad, & Zoheb, Hazarika (2016.P.2) on Iraqi college students where she investigated errors in English essay writings of EFL students. The errors were categorized according to the following taxonomy: grammatical, lexical, semantic, mechanics, and word order types of errors. The grammatical and the mechanical errors were the most serious and frequent ones. Most of the students’ errors were led by the Arabic interference

Methodology

This section is designed to display the methods used to collect the data.

Population of the Study

The population of the study consists of English Language teachers at Faculties of Education in Gezira Locality and EFL students’. The study takes place at Holy Quran University.
The sample of the study was composed of students of level Seven (Semester No 7) in the college of education, Holly Quran University the total number of the student was (25). A number of (30) EFL teachers were selected randomly from two universities (University of Gazira, and Holy Quran University) to respond to the questionnaire.

A pre-test in writing skills was designed to check the students’ proficiency in writing in which the students were asked to write about one subject.

Supporting Programme

The researchers proposed a supporting programme with the purpose of enhancing students’ performance in writing skills, to be taught in eight weeks for the students, two periods per a-week. The researcher selected graded and interesting texts that suited students’ level of understanding which contains different subjects to be taught as models of writing, with the use of a variety of effective techniques and activities while teaching writing starting by:

pre-writing stage: In this pre-writing stage, the researcher used some techniques and activities to help students to generate ideas through brainstorming sessions like reading about the topic, watching a film, listening to a text related to the topic, and describing a picture about the topic. Then the researcher sets a time limit for the students to be trained on how to brainstorm about a topic by giving the students different topics and different activities and exercises, because the researcher thinks that thinking and planning before writing will enable students to produce much better writing.

Other formal writing stages: the researcher here wants to help the students understand how to organize the material according to the requirements of the writing task and the general structure of the English composition by asking the students to write their ideas about the topic. This could be achieved by a writing technique called Listing. In this step, the student will write the topic at the top of a piece of paper and then quickly make a list of words and phrases that come into his mind. The next step is to organize the ideas into a simple outline. Next, the researcher asks the students to write a rough draft, using their outline as a guide. The students will write their rough draft as quickly as they can without stopping to think about grammar, spelling, or punctuation. just the aim of this stage is to get their ideas on a paper. This rough draft will be full of mistakes and errors, and this is perfectly usual and acceptable, because it is only a rough draft. They will fix the errors later. The next step, is for revising and editing. First, the students should revise the issues of the content and organization. Second, they should work on the smaller issues of grammar, punctuation, and mechanics. At the end students will write their final copy of their topic.

The researcher provided more topics, exercises, and activities to deepen students’ understanding of the suggested techniques and steps of writing. Besides, the researcher gave them eight articles about different topics to be read outside the classroom, hoping that this would help them to read extensively to increase their linguistic competency and general knowledge. Weekly the students were asked to summarize what they have read outside the classroom, and the researcher provides them with the feedback. This mixture of in-class writing and outside reading gives the students the practice they need to improve their writing skills.
This programme lasted in eight weeks, then it was followed by a post-test to see how much students benefit from the supporting programme. The results of the post-test confirm the students’ improvement. It was a repeated test designed to assess students’ improvement by means of the supporting program.

The **Post-test**

It was a writing test including one subject. It was designed to evaluate students’ improvement after the pre-test. From the pre-test given before the supporting program the researcher could distinguish the areas of weaknesses and difficulties students face when they write such as inadequate formatting, poor vocabulary knowledge, spelling mistakes, and misuse of punctuation marks. The researcher developed a supporting programme to tackle the areas of weaknesses. So, the post-test was expected to come out with better results.

The **Questionnaire**

The questionnaire contains twelve statements is meant to gather the relevant required data from the teachers of English language at the universities of (Holy Quran University, and Gezira university). It contains three various axes as follows:

- The first axis, deals with the adequacy of the effective techniques and activities in prewriting stage that can motivate the students.
- The second axis deals with the integration of reading and writing skills inside the classroom while teaching writing steps.
- The third axis is concerned with how practicing reading (Extensive Reading) outside the classroom develops the students’ writing performance.

This questionnaire has been arbitrated by experienced teachers of the English language at different universities.

The questionnaire and the tests were arbitrated by experienced teachers from different universities. They confirm both the tests and the questionnaire measure precisely what should be measured.

**Data Analysis and Discussion**

This section is confined to the presentation, analysis, discussion and interpretation of the data which were collected by means of the study tools: pre-test, post-test for students and the questionnaire for EFL teachers. This section is divided into two parts: the first part includes the tests results and the second part includes the questionnaire results.

The pre-test consists of the students writing work. First they were asked to write an essay in not less than 500 words about “Living in Cities or Villages”. Time to finish this task was 90 minutes. Total papers were 25 essays. They were marked by five experienced teachers in the department. Any one of them has been given five papers. They identified mistakes and provided comments on the overall work. Their comments are summarized as follows:

- The format is untidy.
- Incorrect use of mechanics of writing (spelling, punctuation, quotation, and capitalization).
- Very weak structure.
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- Lacking the ability and capability to generate new ideas and thoughts.
- Lacking the ability of how to develop a paragraph using topic sentence and supporting sentences (Paragraph Development).

Some samples of the students’ work: (see appendix-A)

After the supporting program finished, the researcher asked the students to write an essay about “Advantages and disadvantages of Co-Education in Sudan” (not less than 500words). The same previous time for the pretest 90 minutes has been given for students to finish the posttest. Total papers were 21 essays, because four of the students didn’t complete the program. The papers were marked by the same teachers who marked the pretest papers. They identified few mistakes this time and provided comments on the overall work. Their comments are summarized as follows:

- The students used a good format.
- Mistakes are not much in using of mechanics of writing (spelling, punctuation, quotation, and capitalization) as in the pretest.
- Most of the students’ work is organized and structured.
- Most of the students have the ability and capability to generate new ideas and thoughts based on the main topic. (most of the students’ works contain several specific and factual supporting sentences that explain or prove the topic sentences, including at least one example)
- Most of the students have the ability to develop a paragraph using topic sentence and supporting sentences (Paragraph Development).

The Results of the questionnaire

In this section, the results of the questionnaire will be displayed, analyzed and discussed. The tables below show the responses, which reflect the respondents' point of view on the questionnaire’s questions about writing skills. Each table corresponds to one axis in the questionnaire.

Hypothesis one: Using varied techniques and activities in a pre-writing stage like reading about the topic, watching a film, listening to a situation, or even describing a picture about the topic, promote students’ performances in writing’.

Table 1. Using varied techniques and activities in a pre-writing stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Varying techniques while teaching writing creates motivation and interest.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%60</td>
<td>%26.6</td>
<td>%10</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td>%3.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spending more time on pre-writing stage helps students to create ideas about the topic.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>%53.3</td>
<td>%40</td>
<td>%6.6</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td>%0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As stated in table 1 and figure 1, ninety four percent of the respondents to the questionnaire agree that: the use of the appropriate techniques and activities in prewriting such as reading about the topic, watching a film, listening to a situation, or even describing a picture …etc promote students’ performances in writing. This result strongly consolidates that variety of techniques and activities in the prewriting stage creates motivation and interest and promote students’ performance in writing.

Hypothesis Two: Integration of reading and writing skills improves students’ writing skills by reducing spelling, punctuation, quotation, and capitalization mistakes.

Table 2. Integration of reading and writing skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching writing skills through using reading texts</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(model)</td>
<td>%60</td>
<td>%33.3</td>
<td>%6.6</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td>%0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 1: Percentage of teachers’ viewpoints towards using varied techniques and activities in pre-writing stage
develops the students’ writing format background.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching writing skills through using the reading texts (model) develops the students’ language proficiency.</th>
<th>22</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>%73.3</td>
<td>%23.3</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td>%3.3</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching writing through using reading texts (model) develops the students’ grammar awareness.</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%70</td>
<td>%30</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching writing through using reading texts (model) develops the students’ awareness of writing mechanics. e.g punctuation, quotation, and capitalization.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%66.6</td>
<td>%26.6</td>
<td>%6.6</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOATL</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%67.5</td>
<td>%28.5</td>
<td>%3</td>
<td>%1</td>
<td>%0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Percentage of teachers’ viewpoints towards the integration of reading and writing

The results of table 2 demonstrate that, ninety six percent of the respondents to the questionnaire agree that: integration of reading and writing skills enhances students’ performance, and solve the problems of using of incorrect mechanics of writing (spelling, punctuation, quotation, and capitalization). This result shows that nearly all the teachers insist the using of reading and writing integrated while teaching writing.

Hypothesis Three: Reading outside classrooms (extensive reading) promotes students’ performance in writing skills.
Table 3. Reading outside classrooms (extensive reading)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Freq</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Most of the successful writers are keen readers</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading outside the classroom develops the students’ competence about the</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>language and this will develop their performance in writing.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading outside the classroom helps the student to know different</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>styles in writing and this will help student to have a good format when</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they write.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading outside classroom improves the students’ word choice, sentences</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>structure, and how the whole content will sound when they write.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOATL</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 3: Percentage of teachers’ viewpoints towards the importance of extensive reading.
The results of table 3 demonstrate that, ninety four percent of the respondents to the questionnaire agree that: reading outside classrooms (extensive reading) promotes students’ performance in writing skills. The results make it clear that the students’ writing performance can be enhanced through extensive reading.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

**Conclusion**

This section concludes the study with the findings and recommendations. The study is an attempt aiming at improving undergraduate EFL students’ performance in writing skills. Four tools were used to collect the data (a questionnaire for EFL teachers- Pretest and posttest for students- a supporting program). The sample was chosen purposefully from English language students in college of education in Holy Quran University. Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) was used for analyzing the data of the questionnaire which was constructed of three dimensions with twelve statements concerning various aspects of the study. Thus, the data was discussed, analyzed and the main findings were carried.

**findings**

1. Using varied techniques and activities in pre-writing stage like reading about the topic, watching a film, listening to a situation, or even describing a picture about the topic. promote students’ performances in writing’.
2. Integration of reading and writing skills improves students’ writing skills by reducing spelling, punctuation, quotation, and capitalization mistakes.
3. Reading outside classrooms (extensive reading) promotes students’ performance in writing skills.

**Recommendations**

1. Teachers should vary the teaching methods when teach writing.
2. Teachers should insist on the prewriting stage through reading about the topic, presenting a video, listing tips or describing a situation for students to help them to create ideas about the topic.
3. Teachers should give the students models of texts and ask the students to organize and format their work as found in the model.
4. Reading and writing should be used in an integrated way in class writing to provide guidance throughout the writing process.
5. Regularly assign brief writing exercises in your classes.
6. Teachers should give their students different articles and reading texts to be read outside classroom and ask them to write summary about what they have read.

7. **Acknowledgments**

The author would like to thank Deanship of Scientific Research at Majmaah University for supporting this work under project number (52-1440)

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Appendix A
Some samples of the students’ work
English Adjectives in Online Comments of Algerian English Speakers

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Interdisciplinary Laboratory of Pedagogy and Didactics (LIPED)
University of Badji-Mokhtar Annaba Algeria

Abstract
Adjectives are central in any use of language due to their role in providing descriptions to the aspects of the noun. The role of adjectives becomes more and more important with the emergence of computer-mediated communication (CMC). The aim of the present paper is to shed light on the use of adjectives in CMC. It is assumed that adjectives in online comments do not keep the same linguistic structure and function like in spoken English and new forms emerge as the result of using CMC. It analyses adjectives used by non-native English speakers through collecting a corpus of fifty utterances obtained from comments posted publically in Facebook. The results demonstrate that adjectives take different forms by means of combining with non-linguistic forms, and express functions other than just modifying nouns in the narrow sense. Adjectives combine with non-linguistic forms to reinforce their function, and a pragmatic function seen in implying the description.

Keywords: Adjectives, CMC, comments, emojis, English, Facebook, function, online, pragmatics

Cite as: Belfarhi, K. (2019). English Adjectives in Online Comments of Algerian English Speakers. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 231-241. DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.20
Introduction
Modifiers such as adjectives and adverbs are needed in CMC for the huge descriptions they made along commenting or messaging. Adjectives, in particular, are frequently used especially in comments and posts as they take less space if compared with other word classes. However, the form and function of adjectives change once used in CMC including the total omission of the article, noun and intensifier as well as modification in their morphology. What is instead communicated are other features which act to transmit the message in a pragmatic way wherein the syntactic function of the adjective is carried out by pragmatic functions such as abbreviation, repetition, capitalization and emoticon.

Research on adjectives in social networks is very limited if not absent. Adjectives are important in CMC as they are generally the theme of utterances especially in the case of comments. They are not well treated in the literature of CMC may be because the language used in this medium is considered in its totality and, therefore, syntactic categories are not yet treated each one for its own sake. Another reason can be the fact of treating online adjectives as deformed adjectives and not part of the English grammar. Moreover, as being a new genre CMC as a discourse resists institutionalized.

Adjectives are selected as a topic of the investigation because they are considered as a heterogonous word class and function in relation to other word classes, a point which makes adjectives more interactional with linguistic and non-linguistic elements. To describe English adjectives used in CMC, a corpus of fifty comments has been obtained from Facebook comments of English speakers in Algeria who are generally graduated students of English as a foreign language. The main objective of this study is to shed light on adjectives used in CMC along with their modified form and the functions they take.

Adjectives in Electronic Discourse
Information communication technology has changed the way language is used as several new emerging forms become usual in the language of users. Blurton (1999) attributes this to the flexibility, connectivity and interactivity of the modern digital communication: “It is possible to have many-to-many, many-to-one, one-to-many, and one-to-one modes of communication with modern digital information communication technology (ICT). These features of digital ICTs enable them to have a more pervasive influence on forms and uses of language” (as cited in Adams, 2009, p.112). Language underwent changes at several levels including most importantly the grammatical, semantic, and pragmatic aspects whereby users de-emphasize accuracy and focus more on the message. As Herring (1996) notes, this language has unique situational features, and embodies a distinctive set of linguistic features. The focus on the message more than the language it expresses resulted in the use of utterances where the form is structurally short. As adjectives modify aspects of nouns, they are preferred in the descriptions as there is a tendency towards attributive than predicative adjective since the former implies the predicate while the latter does not and presents as a short form. Thus, adjectives that are close to verbs are less used than adjectives close to nouns.

Adjectives had been classified as nouns or substantive nouns due to their similarity with word classes such as nouns and adverbs. They were considered as difficult to classify for this overlap.
The syntax of English adjectives underwent changes. In that, old English was marked by adjectives-nouns agreement in number, case and gender. Besides, adjectives had more inflections than in Middle English and were differentiated in terms of strong and weak in relation to their position. Smaller changes in the English grammar occurred after the 1700s (Gelderen, 2014). Adjectives are classified in terms of prototypical vs. less prototypical (Quirk et al, 1985) including stative vs. dynamic; gradable vs. non gradable; and inherent vs. non-inherent (as cited in Aschenbrenner, 2014, p.101). Adjectives underwent other changes when used in the medium of online or electronic communication. In that, adjectives, like other parts of speech, go through the constraints of electronic use of language where the structure and function of some types of adjectives change for the aim to cope with CMC. However, these changes are not yet acknowledged for the fact that the language of CMC is still looked at as a new and different type of discourse.

English of CMC is considered as a new type of English (Crystal, 2003) because it differs from the English language used throughout the world. Collot & Belmore (1996) say in this respect:

Electronic language is characterized by a set of situational constraints which sets it apart from other varieties of English. Messages delivered electronically are neither ‘spoken’ nor ‘written’ in the conventional sense of these words. There is an easy interaction of participants and alternation of topics typical of some varieties of spoken English. However, they cannot be strictly labeled as spoken messages since the participants neither see nor hear each other. Nor can they be considered strictly written since many of them are composed directly on-line. (p.14).

This new form of English is studied as a unified discourse opting for the syntactic simplification. Users develop through time codes of communication by using linguistic and non-linguistic elements as they combine the linguistic material with other objects such as symbols and emoticons. The focus on the message rather than accuracy opened the scope to this combination allowing native English or non-native to communicate with forms of adjectives often different from the usual. In that, there is a tendency to simplify the adjective to some extent degree. Simplification has been studied in phonetics and morphology in contexts of language contact. Simplification is typographical in the way that words may change in their internal structure. In the context of digital communication, the simplification of forms results from the contact with the computer or digital machine. Users of English transcend the syntactic rules and instead bring more simplifications that the grammar of English itself may consider as strange to the language. Adjectives are used differently from the way they are set in the theory of grammar. The change or modification is facilitated by the multimodal aspect of CMC; in that, there is more freedom in the construction of new forms as far as they fit the purpose of CMC.

**Research Methodology**

The present study is realized through the analysis of adjectives collected from Facebook comments of English speakers in Algeria. The corpus was collected by focusing on descriptions because they contain adjectives. Participants vary between English learners who still learn English and others who are already graduated. The participants can be considered as being in an on-going developmental stage because they improve their English proficiency through study and, also,
through social media along the CMC. The result of this interaction is the English language influenced by the electronic discourse at all the linguistic levels. Comments of English speakers on Facebook constitute a real and a large corpus allowing the collection of the different types of adjectives used in CMC, and which satisfies the aims of the present research which are to approximately estimate the most frequently used adjectives and the form these adjectives take in CMC. It is postulated that adjectives in online comments do not keep the same linguistic structure and function like in spoken English and new forms emerge as the result of CMC.

DATA

As the collected data had been taken from Facebook comments of English speakers, it is worth noting that the corpus has been taken as it is including the syntactic errors of users. Also, anonymity has been preserved when names of persons or groups are cited by the users. In such a case, the item is put replaced by three points between brackets. Finally, it should be noted that the mistakes in the informants’ utterances are kept as they are without corrections to preserve the descriptive aspect of the data.

1. what a monster?
2. Enviably Smart! Must Watch Plz!
3. I wish u all the Facebook friends…..👍
4. That's why the greatest scientists are true believers in the existence of a supreme Creator.
5. We really need these😊😊😊precious tips
6. Airplanes are magic!! Hhhhhhhhhhh
7. wow! it's amazigh:) 😚
8. Another quote of the day❤️<3 but from an anonymous 😊
10. Huge dislike! The only things I liked are the music choice and some philosophical parts in the storytelling/dialogues.
11. Thank million to everyone for participating
12. Another activities are waiting for you!
13. Warmly Welcome To (…)
14. you get a chance to practise many different skills in a setting that is more like real life.
15. Sometimes we passed by difficult times
16. …..i just want to ask about the 2nd sequence read
17. Algeria🌄 the best Sunset and sunrise in the world
18. Not only does Algeria have a great educational system but it also has a lot of smart qualified teachers
19. It has been an incredible journey!
20. Perfect
21. Still your opinion is also subjective.
22. Too many ambiguous points!!!
23. Always the most precious and the most valuable among other departments
24. a very interesting offer ........... don't miss it
25. 1000 likes ☝️(…)thank you !!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!❤️
26. nice canu
27. Here’s some pictures of day one❤️
28. an exciting program an exciting program
29. amazing .... good continuation 😊
30. Come and adopt some old, lonely book from us.
31. Good job!
32. Welcome 😊
33. Morning period varied between different presentations,
34. It was a great event indeed, thx to (...) team for this wonderful journey 😊
35. it was nice to be there ^_^
36. your attendance was and will always be our greatest honor and support.
37. Here’s some pictures of day one 😊
38. I can't find ur cmt!!! It's awkward 😞
39. LIVE! (...) interacting! GROUP WORK 😊
40. This is the worst post on facebook 😞
41. happy friEndship day for you too ^^. 😊
42. Hi how it is great 😊
43. such an amazing move 😊
44. Have a peaceful night (...)❤️
45. proud of u team ❤<3 keep up the great work 😊
46. Everyone is welcomed ❤️
47. Wow! such an honor for the Team ❤️
48. Thank you 😊
49. Her English! 😊
50. Due to your constant support and encouragement, the (...) was honored for the outstanding work done by every and each member.

**Reporting the Results**

The results have been quantified in terms of adjectives and its relatives such as adverbs and modifiers.

**Table 1. Adjectives Frequency**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Smart</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>too</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>true</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>ambiguous</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supreme</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>most precious</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>magic</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>most valuable</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amazing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>other</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>too much</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>interesting</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>nice</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huge</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>exiting</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>another</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>old</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>many</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>lonely</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>different</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>constant</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>real</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>outstanding</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difficult</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>wonderful</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>best</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>greatest</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>great</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>awkward</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>educational</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>live</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>qualified</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>the worst</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incredible</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>happy</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>her</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subjective</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>peaceful</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The corpus includes 41 adjectives. They are grouped in the following table in terms of attributive and predicative.

Table 2. Attributive and Predicative Adjectives

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Attributive Adjective</th>
<th>Predicative Adjectives</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>greatest</td>
<td>Enviably</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>magic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>True</td>
<td>subjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incredible</td>
<td>nice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Big</td>
<td>awkward</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>master</td>
<td>welcomed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peaceful</td>
<td>a peaceful night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great</td>
<td>the great work</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>Good morning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amazing</td>
<td>an amazing move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>worst</td>
<td>the worst post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>happy</td>
<td>happy friEndship day a great event</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>greatest</td>
<td>our greatest honor and support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>difficult</td>
<td>difficult times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>different</td>
<td>Different presentations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Real</td>
<td>real life</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Constant philosophical</td>
<td>constant support philosophical parts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exciting</td>
<td>An exciting program huge dislike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>huge</td>
<td>nice canu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice</td>
<td>nice canu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bad</td>
<td>a very interesting offer bad energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Adverbs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Adverb</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>warmly</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>just</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>still</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>always</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>very</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>definitely</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>indeed</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>there</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>inviably</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The big majority of the words in the corpus falls in the category of nouns, and more particularly common nouns. Adjectives came in the second level with 41 ones including six predicative adjectives and 27 attributed adjectives. The modified adjectives are 12. These listed adjectives in tables 01, 02, and 03 consecutively can be described as “linguistic adjectives” falling in an objective category following the syntactic rules: AP→ (AdvP) + A, or occurs within the NP: NP→A NP.
Most of the linguistic adjectives are attributive representing 28 out of 41. Predicative adjectives are just seven out of 41 adjectives. Other types of adjectives take another form identified as combinatory adjectives.

**Adjectives in Combinatory Forms**

The corpus includes other forms of adjectives which are not “usual adjectives” as other adjectives because they take forms different from the linguistic or objective adjectives. These adjectives combine with other forms such as emojis or can even combine with marks like punctuation. They are presented in their complete utterances for the aim to describe them appropriately.

**Analysis**

The description of adjectives in the present corpus can be achieved by setting two groups. The former includes linguistic adjectives and the second non-linguistic adjectives. Table 1 shows that there are 41 linguistic adjectives with 28 attributive adjectives and seven predicative adjectives. The second group includes non-linguistic adjectives which are constructed in forms that do not fall within the grammar of the English language, and, therefore, cannot be generated by the adjective rule (AP → (AdvP) + A). This is due to their combination with other elements making the word, as a whole, referring to an adjective but cannot be considered as part of the English adjectives.

The combination is often with emojis which occurred a lot in the analyzed corpus. The following utterance, for instance, has a description of the monster substituted by the emoji: “What a monster 😈?”. The Adjective is substituted by the emoji. The latter substitutes an adjective like “terrible, terrifying”. The emoji acts as a description of the noun “monster”. It is not a typical adjective but rather an adjective by the mediation of the emoji. Since the emoji replaces the quality attributed to the noun “monster”, it acts, therefore, as an attributive adjective.

The same thing can be said about the following utterance: “I wish u all the Facebook friends 😊”. The adjective is substituted by the emoji which is used to refer to the adjective “well”. The emoji is a description of the noun “facebook friends”. The adjective is used indirectly by the mediation of the emoji. The emoji replaces a predicative adjective “well” which is part of a predicate that is not present in the utterance but implied by means of the emoji.

A similar occurrence of the adjectives is seen in the following utterance where the adjective is present and reinforced by another adjective in the form of emoji: “We really need these 😊😊😊precious tips”. The three smiling emojis can be considered as an adverb like “wonderfully” or an adjective like “wonderful”. The emojis add a further description of the noun “tips”. If seen as an adjective, it is then an attributive adjective like the adjective precious.

Another form of adjectives described or reinforced by emojis is seen in the following examples:

- a- I can't find ur cmnt!!! It's awkward 😞
- b- such an amazing move 😊
- c- This is the worst post on facebook 😞
- d- wow! it's amazigh 😊😊
- e- 🎉🎉🎉an exciting program 🎉🎉🎉an exciting program
- f- Everyone is welcomed 😍
g- amazing .... good continuation 😊

The emoji come at the end of the utterance and just after the adjective. However, it is to consider from two angles: either it adds to the description of the adjective by reinforcing it; or as a general comment on the utterance. While a, b, c, d and e have the emoji playing the role of reinforcing the adjective with a more descriptive value, f and g have rather the emojis like a comment. Since the adjective is already present in these utterances, the emojis cannot be qualified to be attributive adjectives because this quality is already carried out by the adjective. The emoji, however, adds more description to the adjective.

Other forms which reinforce the adjective are punctuation marks as show the following utterances

- a. Enviably Smart! Must Watch Plz!
- b. Too many ambiguous points!!!
- c. Her English!

In a, the exclamation marks add further description to the adjective “smart”. The described noun is implied because it refers to the post which is the subject of the object of the user’s utterance. The exclamation marks add to the ambiguity of points in b. Three marks designate the user’s description of the adjective “ambiguous”. In the third utterance, the adjective is replaced with the exclamation mark. The utterances used as a comment on the speech of Queen Elizabeth whereby the user is impressed by the Queen’s English, and wants rather to say “Her English is perfect”.

The second type of adjectives is presented indirectly by means of implication. The following utterances illustrate:

- a. Another quote of the day ❤️
- b. Algeria 😊
- c. proud of u team ❤️<3 keep up the great work 😊
- d. Here’s some pictures of day one ❤️
- e. GROUP WORK 😊
- f. 1000 likes 😊(...) thank you !!!!!!!!!!!!!!!!❤️
- g. 

In this category the adjective is absent. It is implied by means of the emoji in indirect way. In a, the heart emoji means that the user liked the quote. Since it is a comment, the user cannot say “I liked the other quote of the day”. Instead, he/she put the emoji at the end to mean that the quote is wonderful. The emoji makes the adjective distributed along two states. The first is the act of liking the quote, and the second is the result of liking the day is itself the adjective modifying the noun “day” which is implied as the result of being distributed. The same thing can be said about d.

Similarly, utterance b has the emoji as a smiley referring to the state of being happy, which itself acts as a description of the noun “Algeria”. The emoji makes the adjective distributed along two states. The first is the act of being “happy”, and the second is the fact of being happy is a description or a quality that Algeria is nice. The adjective is implied as the result of being distributed.

For c, the heart means that the user liked the pictures. The user does not say “I liked the pictures” because he/she posted them. Instead, he/she put the emoji at the end to mean that the
pictures are wonderful. The emoji makes the adjective distributed along two states. The first is the act of liking the pictures, and the second is the result of liking the pictures as itself the adjective modifying the noun “pictures” which is implied as the result of being distributed.

For f, the smiley emoji means that the user liked the group work. Since it is a comment, the user cannot say “I liked the group work”. Instead, he/she put the emoji at the end to mean that the group work is great. Besides, the two nouns are capitalized which is another emphasis on the appreciation of the group work. In this way, the emoji makes the adjective distributed along two states. The first is the act of liking the group work, and the second is the result of liking the pictures as itself the adjective modifying the noun “group work” which becomes implied as the result of being distributed. Besides, the capitalization of the words reinforces the adjective implied by the emoji.

In f, “1000”, “likes”, “the exclamation marks” and the two emojis are all description of a comment which is very appreciated by the user. The “1000 like” plus the “emoji” means that the posted item is “wonderful”. 1000, likes, the exclamation marks make the adjective distributed along two states. The first is the wonderfulness of the post, and the second is the fact of liking the post as the result of its wonderfulness. The exclamation marks plus the heart emoji means that the user liked the post a lot.

**Discussion**

The studied corpus reveals various facts about English adjectives used in online language. The first thing that retains attention is the use of attributive more than predicative adjectives. The user’s descriptions through adjectives tend to be more in relation to nouns than verbs. The reason behind using attributive adjectives is in the fact that users develop through the attributive adjective the theme of their utterance. The majority of the attributive adjectives describe an object which is itself the point around which the theme turns. In fact, the attributive adjectives are also found in the second category of combinatory adjectives. The users’ combined adjectives focus more on the noun and less on the verb. It means, when adjectives are put in a combined form, they still follow the same principle of modifying nouns.

Concerning combinatory adjectives, they have two mains functions. Either they reinforce the attributive adjective with further descriptions or they are indirect adjectives by means of implication. The adjective has a reinforcing descriptive function when used to reinforce the description of the noun, i.e. attributively like in the examples where the emoji is itself an adjective used for reinforcing another adjective. A similar occurrence of the adjectives is seen in the following utterance where the adjective is present and reinforced by another adjective in the form of emoji: “We really need these 😊😊😊precious tips”. The three smiling emojis can act as an adverb like “wonderfully” or as an adjective like “wonderful”. The emojis act as an added description of the noun “tips”. If seen as an adjective, it is then an attributive adjective like the adjective precious.

The combinatory aspect of adjectives has been already discussed in the literature of ICT. Kress (2000) talked about mode-mixing as a combination of codes and symbolic systems (as cited in Adams, 2009, p. 117). These multimodal features are combined in particular ways because they
give to the user space for representing the same thing with the inclusion of the linguistic and non-linguistic material. It means the combination is functional as it assists in conveying meaning. Moreover, the different modes interrelate in the way that one leads to the other as it has been seen in the distributive function.

Adding emphasis to adjectives by means of the combination is the main point in the present research. While the present paper analyzed the function of emojis and punctuation marks, other studies revealed different means. Hall (1996), for instance, studied discursive styles that characterize feminism in computer-mediated communication. Among the analyzed utterances were adjectives. For adding emphasis on adjectives, users put the adjective between two asterisks like in the following example: *easily*, *bad* *serious* (p.153). Other reinforcing symbols can be capitalization, numbers, and other forms that users think they reinforce the adjective.

The adjective has a primitive state as the result of bearing quality in indirect way. It is turned to its primitive state as being a description of a quality or a description of a given object. Due to the pragmatic function of indirectness the facebooker has it more appropriate to say quality of something by means of implication rather than declaration. The utterance "Another quote of the day 💖" is an implication that the quote is lovely as the user is commenting on the quote and s/he is not in instant communication.

The use of capitalization is also for adding emphasis to the adjectives. This practice is not frequent by English native speakers using the net. It is rather considered as rude, a reason why users avoid it in online language.

Adams (2009) has categorized the language of ICT as a modification of existing forms and uses and change as the emergence of novel and original creation of language. It is also at the level of pervasive emoticons to express the feeling when writing. The adjectives analyzed in the present study can be characterized as combining the three changes together. The adjective is modified because of the new features brought to it. For example, capitalizing the noun that the adjective refers to is a change or modification of an existing form. The combination with the emoticon brings together the second and the third change as in the following example: GROUP WORK 😊. The full utterance is a new and original use of language.

Emoticonymy is also one of the main features of the analyzed adjectives and can be considered to bring new features in the grammar of the language used in ICT. Emoticonymy is defined as by Bodomo & Lee (2002) as “a subfield of CMC which involves the analysis of ad practices of employing smileys and related icons for conveying emotions and other linguistic ad kinesic features intended by the author” (as cited in Adams, 2009, p. 117). Indeed, the emotions that the adjectives have been expressed through could reinforce the descriptive value of the adjectives as it mediated pragmatically between the adjective as a linguistic material and the description as a combination of both description and emotion.

Finally, it should be noted that adjectives in combinatory forms impose constraints in their understanding as they deviate from ordinary English adjectives. In a comment on the overuse of adjectives and adverbs on online language, Musburger (2012) said that these modifiers confuse
the audience as they can muddy the meaning with the inaccurate degree of intensity. In fact, users develop through time small virtual communities where they create a common code understood within these small groups.

Conclusion

The adjectives analyzed in the present corpus take forms and functions peculiar to the digital discourse. It has been shown through the analysis of utterances taken from English non-native speakers’ facebook comments that attributive adjectives are preferred than predicative adjectives. Adjectives are grouped into linguistic and non-linguistic. The former includes English adjectives generated by the adjective rule while the second category contains combinatory adjectives which are adjectives presented by the combination with other non-linguistic forms such as symbols and emojis. This type of adjectives have the adjective reinforced by the emoji and in this case the e-adjective can be said to be equipped with more descriptive capacity than the linguistic adjective because the non-linguistic material allows the user to extend in the scope of the adjective unlike the linguistic adjective which is rather rule-based. Adjectives are also presented indirectly by means of implication. The reinforcing function is present indirectly when the adjective implies the description. This means that when the adjective combines with the non-linguistic material such as symbols and emojis, it is not necessary to keep the same placement before the noun. The analyzed corpus demonstrated that adjectives take a final position and the whole description is implied as the result of being indirect.

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References


The Influence of Derivational and Inflectional Morphological Awareness on the Writing of Undergraduate EFL Students: An Empirical Study

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Abstract
This current study aimed to investigate the influence of derivational and inflectional morphological awareness on the writing of undergraduate students studying English as a Foreign Language. They were divided into two groups and each group comprised 200 advanced EFL learners. Explicit morphological instructions were given to group two in the classroom for full one semester whereas group one wasn't given any kind of morphological knowledge. To collect data, exactly the same lists of word-formation on different morphological processes and their use in the writing samples were administered to both the groups. The main objective of this research was to examine the correlation between the morphological awareness and the EFL writing after testing learners' reflection on word-formation. Then it also tried to explore the difference between their performances to check whether the morphological instructions improved their writing or not. The findings stated that group two students always performed far better than group one and showed a strong understanding of word-formation structure while applying and manipulating in the morphological-instructed tasks. The formulated hypothesis-the teaching of explicit morphemic rules improves not only morphological awareness to a large extent but also grammatical, intralingual, lexical and syntactic awareness that results to enhance collaboratively EFL writing competence. A promising contribution of this current study to pedagogy was that explicit teaching of morphology improved writing to a concrete, large extent and revealed clearly that it must be introduced to EFL learners from the early education so that their writing skill can be developed effectively.

Keywords: Morphological awareness, EFL writing, derivation, inflection, internal change, suppletion

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.21
Foreign language learning depends mainly on its lexical knowledge. Morphology is the study of the words, their formation, and their relationship to other lexemes in the same language, and it is an essential factor in building a foreign language vocabulary. With the development of vocabulary, foreign language learners achieve target language proficiency and accuracy. According to Carstairs-McCarthy, (2002), Yule (2010) and Aronoff and Fudeman, (2011), morphology analyzes the structure of words and parts of words, such as stems, roots, prefixes, and suffixes. It looks at the parts of speech, intonation, and stress, and the ways context can change a word's grammar, pronunciation, and meaning. This paper discusses the influence of inflectional and derivational morphology on EFL text at the undergraduate level and attempts to examine the correlation and contribution of morphological awareness to EFL writing, and takes into consideration affixation and some other morphemic processes as variables, to measure the data, which students come across while forming words. These processes include derivation, inflection, internal change and suppletion. The paper focuses mainly the morphological awareness that is referred as “the awareness of the morphemic structure of words and the ability to reflect on and manipulate that structure” (Carlisle, 1995, p. 194) and its effect on EFL writing.

1. Theoretical Framework

1.1. Morpheme & Affixation

Free (roots) and bound (affixes) are two types of morphemes (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002). Affixation is a morphological process whereby an affix, is added (before, after or within) to a morphological base or a word stem to form a new word. It is a grammatical part that is combined with a word, stem, or phrase to create copied and modified forms. Most English words are made up of the base word known as root which contains the heart of the meaning of the word. Prefix is an attached affix at the beginning of the root while a suffix has it at the end of a word. The process of adding these affixes to the roots is referred to affixation and the root is the key to building new lexemes (Coates, 1999). For example, ‘advantage’, ‘forgive’, ‘measure’ are the roots in ‘disadvantageous’, ‘unforgivable’ and ‘immeasurable’.

1.2. Derivational Morphology

Derivational morphology derives new words by altering the lexical category of a word (Lieber, 2004 & 2009). In English, derivational morphology can be both prefixes and suffixes unlike inflection. Derivation forms a new lexical category or a meaning distinct from that of its base through the process of affixation (Booij, 2007). For example, if ‘-er’ is added to a verb base ‘sell’, it results in a noun ‘seller’. When derived words are produced, they become independent lexical items that receive their own entry in a speaker’s mental lexicon (Pinker, 1999). Acquiring derivational morphology requires a long time and conscious efforts to develop it completely (Tyler & Nagy, 1990). There are two types of derivational suffixation: Class 1 and Class 2.

1.2.1. Class 1 Suffixation

In this type of suffixation, the affixes are mostly Latinate. According to Vanderweide, O’Grady, Aronoff and Rees-Miller, (2002), this type of suffixation normally trigger phonological changes either in the consonant or vowel segments of the base with which they occur. In addition, they
usually affect the assignment of stress. For instance, ‘-ive’ suffix in the word ‘product’ as ‘productive’ shifts stress to a second syllable or ‘-ial’ in ‘part-ial’, here, final consonant of the base changes from /t/ to /ʃ/.

1.2.2. Class 2 Suffixation

Unlike class 1 suffixation, class 2 suffixes (which are mostly native) usually don’t trigger any phonological change. Merrifield, Naish, Rensch and Story (2003) say that this kind of suffixation is neutral, having no effect on the segmental make-up of the base or on stress assignment such as ‘-en’ added to ‘dark’ resulted in neutral sound ‘darken’.

1.2. Inflection Morphology

All languages have grammatical contrasts such as singular versus plural, and past versus non-past. Inflection often marks this contrast to indicate the grammatical subclass to which it belongs: the base to which an inflectional affix is added is sometimes called a stem. In the case of English nouns, for instance, normally the inflectional affix ‘-s’ as in ‘chair-chairs’ is added to indicate the plural subclass. In the case of verbs, on the other hand, inflection marks a grammatical distinction between the past and non-past forms of a verb usually by adding the suffix ‘-ed’ to point out the past tense like ‘talk-talked’ or it can be said that inflections are only grammatical variants of one lexeme (Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002). Berko (1958) and Brown (1973) are of view that inflections are easily acquired by children as well as by second language learners.

1.2.1. Internal change

It is a process that replaces one non-morphemic segment for another, as shown in the pairs of words ‘sit-sat’, ‘foot-feet’, ‘goose-geese’, etc. (Vanderweide, O’Grady, Aronoff & Rees-Miller, 2002). A verb such as ‘sit’, forms its past tense by changing the vowel. The term ‘ablaut’ is often used for vowel alternations that mark grammatical contrasts in this way. Ablaut can be distinguished from umlaut, which involves the fronting of a vowel under the influence of a front vowel in the following syllable, for example, ‘foot-feet’.

1.2.2. Suppletion

It is a morphological process whereby morphpo-syntactic element of a lexeme is substituted by a phonologically unrelated form in order to indicate a grammatical contrast (Hippisley, Chumakina, Corbett & Brown, 2004). A simple example of suppletion is the use of ‘went’ and ‘was-were’ as the past tense form of the verbs ‘go’ and ‘be’.

Further, the paper discusses the students’ use of morphological processes or rules in the formation of words before and after being taught morphology. It also analyses the ways students apply these rules and according to that analysis, the solutions/strategies are implicated for the correct formation of lexemes in the writing of EFL students.

2. Literature Review

There are abundant studies on the influence and correlation of morphology with different language skills especially with vocabulary building and reading comprehension. As morphology has a very important role in language learning and learning morphology is an essential part of language learning like the other language structural and grammatical components. Many researchers like Agustin Llach (2010), Ramirez, Chen, Gena and Luo (2011), Zhang and Coda
(2013) and Zhang (2017) have focused mainly on the relation of morphology and reading comprehension. Zhang and Koda (2013) have conducted an investigation on young EFL Chinese learners’ morphological awareness and its contribution to reading comprehension. According to this study, morphological proficiency is achieved by students’ first language morphological knowledge and L2 lexical exposure. This investigation finds that derivational and compound awareness among the students are related and contributes to EFL reading comprehension. Another study by Zhang (2017) again emphasizes the contribution of morphological awareness to English reading comprehension. This longitudinal study investigates derivational morphological competence two times with an interval of one year. This research claims about a significant role of derivational morphology in English reading comprehension. Another study (Agustín Llach, 2010) shows a clear relationship between the reading and writing of L2 students. High level of L2 proficiency (aware of morphological rules) students perform better in reading and writing at the same time than the students with less L2 proficiency or morphological awareness. The average learners also indicate a relationship between their L2 reading competence and writing competence.

Word-formation has a key role in developing spelling, vocabulary, grammar, word-recognition, production of different lexical categories, and it facilitates not only reading, grammar, vocabulary but also lexical processing and writing, or overall learning (Masrai, 2016). Consequently, learning morphology cannot be avoided. Actually, it should be taught explicitly like other skills of language. Teachers and curriculum designers must pay an equal attention to morphology like teaching and designing curriculum of any other skill. Bowers and Kirby (2009) and Tabatabaei and Yakhabi (2011) examine morphological instruction and its effect on vocabulary learning. Both the studies find out a significant relationship between the English as second language learners' vocabulary performance and morphological knowledge. Saeidi and Mirzapour's (2013) investigation has tried to explore the role of morphological awareness in listening comprehension. They have experimented on twenty participants who have been administered four short listening conversations with morphemic structures of thirty token words in the pre-test. Then, after the four sessions, four short listening passages have been again used for the post-test. The research shows that the students do well in listening comprehension after getting morphological instructions.

Much less research has examined the effect of morphological awareness on writing competence. A very specific study by Engber (1995) reports how morphological knowledge develops lexical components of a second language. She concludes the results of her research that the ESL learners with lexical competence score holistically in written compositions. Moreover, Crossley and McNamara (2009 & 2010) explore that L2 students’ proficiency is related to morphological and lexical features in their writing tasks. Furthermore, Kieffer and Lesaux (2007) and Karimi (2012) explain in their research that learners with morphological knowledge can easily break words into their meaningful production; this ability builds up not only their vocabulary but also a better understanding of reading and a good command over writing comprehension. Next, Kieffer and Lesaux’s (2012) investigation on Spanish, Filipino, and Vietnamese speaking learners, as well as native English speakers, reveal that derivational morphological awareness boosts students’ cognition to guess word meanings; consequently, derivational morphology guides in developing a better knowledge of understanding words and texts via reading vocabulary. One more study (Ginsberg, Honda, & O’Neil, 2011) also assures that morphological knowledge acts for
building up the comprehension of complex words and the ability of reading and writing competence. Some other studies like Kielar and Joanisse (2010) distinguish several responses to inflectional morphology: regular, irregular and internal change/suppletion. These researchers advocate that regular and irregular inflections are processed differently, and the difference and production might be affected by orthographic, phonological, semantic, formal and informal factors.

Overall, there is no significant research or evidence that shows a direct contribution of morphological knowledge to EFL writing. However, all these studies tend to focus on the importance of morphological awareness in learning different language skills or overall learning a language. Therefore, it remains a question whether different types of morphological awareness have a significant effect or correlation on writing comprehension.

3. Analytical Framework
The research has been designed to analyze the morphological awareness among Saudi fourth year undergraduate learners’ writing. The study has three measures: intralingual, phonological and grammatical processes to investigate the students’ morphological errors. The main purpose of the investigation is to find out how morphology affects EFL writing and how it contributes as a tool of learning to enhance writing skill. To meet the goals of the research, the answers were sought to the following questions.

1. Do EFL learners have enough morphological awareness to use different lexical categories of words in their writing? If not, does the teaching of morphology improve their performance in EFL writing?
2. Is their performance the same or different in derivational and inflectional morphology, and whether they know properly the regular and irregular base forms and affixation?
3. What are the reasons that affect their morphological knowledge and how does their writing get affected by their vocabulary and morphological performance?
4. How can the explicit teaching of morphological rules improve their writing?

4. Methods
4.1. Participants
For this empirical study, the data was collected from the two groups. Each group comprised two hundred fourth-year undergraduate Saudi students. Group one was not taught morphology explicitly in the class whereas group two had studied morphology for four months explicitly in the class. However, both the groups had already known about vocabulary building (some basic rules of affixation along with other common words) and had enough FL exposure, EFL learning experience, but group two had morphological awareness to a larger extent. They share almost the same age, level of learning, experience and homogenous linguistic background of Arabic as their first language.

4.2. Materials
The researchers prepared seven morphology tasks adapted from Vanderweide, O’Grady, Aronoff & Rees-Miller (2002) and Carstairs-McCarthy (2002): in the task one and two, they were asked to add class 1 and class 2 derivational suffixes into words; in the task three and four, to add
regular and irregular prefixes; in the task five, the regular and irregular inflectional suffixes and in the task six and seven, zero affixation like internal change (only inflectional) and suppletion (See Appendix). Each task comprised of four different words. Both the groups formed the words for the same instructed tasks and after that, they were asked to use them in sentences. The data was analyzed through the following variables: correct and incorrect morphological forms, avoidance, overgeneralization (a vague expression to the point of inaccuracy/an application of a language rule too broadly), lexical category incomprehension and morphophonemic unawareness. All the variables were counted manually and then the statistics (the percentage and mean score) was calculated.

It was hypothesized that teaching of morphology directly in the classrooms affect EFL writing on a large basis. When the students don’t know morphemic processes, either they overgeneralize one rule to exceptions, avoid or they make errors in the understanding of lexical category and its place of occurrence in a sentence due to less morphological and syntactic awareness. Group two who had the knowledge of morphology was likely to make fewer errors in the production of different lexemes and in the writing task comparatively to group one who didn’t study morphology.

4.3. Procedure

In this experimental study, the concrete derivational and inflectional morphology was explicitly taught to group two students for one semester in contrast to group one. Both the groups were previously aware of vocabulary building (they had studied it in the beginning levels of graduation). Group two was given morphological instruction around in twenty classes for the entire derivational and inflectional morphological pedagogy with different kinds of exercises and drills. After that, the questionnaire was made and distributed among both the groups to examine the difference between their writing and the influence of morphological instruction on the second group's writing and to investigate morphological awareness effects on the EFL writing.

5. Results and Analysis

In this section, an overview of data is presented through the percentage and mean value of formulated words in the questionnaire. First, the results of the research are compared between both the groups: their incorrect and correct use of morphology and the avoidance of words due to students’ lack of morphological unawareness. Then the obtained results have been calculated and figured out on the basis of intralingual and grammatical processes e.g., overgeneralization, lexical category incomprehension, unawareness of morphophonemic rules leading to semantic change and errors in the formation of affixation that in turn results in the errors in writing.

Tables -1, 2, 3 and 4 demonstrate the percentage and mean value of derivational morphology: suffixes (class 1 and class 2), prefixes (regular and irregular), inflectional morphology: suffixes (regular and irregular), zero suffixes (internal change and suppletion) which are elicited from both the groups’ reflections on morphological awareness and the reasons of making morphological errors. Each group had 200 students.
Table 1. The Percentage and Mean Value of Avoided, Incorrect and Correct Forms of Derivational Suffixes and Prefixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Morphological processes</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Avoidance</th>
<th>Incorrect forms</th>
<th>Correct forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>47.5%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class 1 suffixes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>97.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class 2 suffixes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular prefixes</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular prefixes</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>45%</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.1. Derivational Morphology

According to table 1 and figure 1, it was observed that when group one didn’t have knowledge of morphological rules, either many of them produced words incorrectly or some preferred to avoid. The mean score for avoidance in class 1 suffixation was 5 and 15 in class 2, and the percentage was 2.5% in class 1 and 7.5% in class 2 suffixation as shown in figure 1. In regular prefixes, it was more (40), (20%) and 0 in irregular prefixes. Unlike one, group two didn’t avoid. It shows that these students were very confident because of their morphological knowledge. For group one, the percentage and mean score of the incorrect forms were 47.5% and 95 respectively in class 1 and 15% and 30 mean score in class 2 derivational suffixation because class 1 is more complex than class 2. In comparison to regular prefixes (17.5% and 35 mean value), the percentage...
and average score were very high (45% and 90 average score) in irregular prefixes. The percentage of correct forms was 50%, 77.5%, 62.5% and 55% with the mean score 100, 155, 125 and 110 in class 1, class 2 suffixes, regular and irregular prefixes respectively. Comparatively to group one, group two’s performance was far better. This group formed words incorrectly only in class 1 (5% and 10 mean value) and in class 2 suffixes 2.5% and the mean score was 5. In regular and irregular prefixes, this group formed all the words correctly.

Table 2. The Percentage and Mean Value of Overgeneralization, Morphophonemic Unawareness and Lexical Category Incomprehension in Derivational Suffixes and Prefixes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Morphological Processes</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Overgeneralization</th>
<th>Morphophonemic unawareness</th>
<th>Lexical category incomprehension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Class 1 suffixes</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>27.5%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Class 2 suffixes</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Regular prefixes</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Irregular prefixes</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>40%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Figure 2. Percentage of the groups’ responses

5.1.1. Overgeneralization

Table -2 and figure -2 illustrate the mean score of overgeneralization, in class 1 derivational morphology among group one, which was 55 (27.5%) and in class 2 derivational morphology, it
was relatively much lower (15) 7.5% only because in class 2 derivational morphology, there are no morphophonemic rules. Group one students just added suffixes. Here, their FL exposure facilitated them but in class 1 derivational suffixation, many of them failed to apply the morphophonemic rules. These findings indicated a significant difference between both the groups, as group two’s performance was far better in deriving a new word from the root and the mean score of class 1 suffixation was only 10 (5%) and in class 2, it was 0 (0%). It showed that explicit teaching of morphology helps students a lot in forming new words and writing them correctly in written tasks. Further, the mean and percentage of irregular prefixes, among group one, was very high (80) and (40%) whereas in regular, it was moderately lower (20) and (10%). Contrastively, group two didn’t make even a single error.

5.1.2. Morphophonemic Unawareness

In this category, group one learners make some errors because they aren’t aware of morphophonemic process. In class 1 derivational suffixation, the mean score was 15 (7.5%) while in class 2, it was 0 (0%) because only class 1 derivation includes morphophonemic rules. The mean for irregular prefixes was 80 (40%) that is again high because to do it accurately, the study of morphophonology is required. Whereas in regular prefixes, some errors which were 20 (10%) were made and comparatively very lower than irregular prefixes. Group two marked a very significant contrast as this group formed all the words correctly in the lists and in the sentences.

5.1.3. Lexical category incomprehension

To write the sentences correctly, morphological as well as syntactic awareness is a must. Hence, this measure: lexical category incomprehension checks whether the learners are aware of the word class of given words and can they form different parts of speech through suffixation or not? It also shows how morphological awareness develops their grammatical awareness. The result for this measure, in group one, was 30% and 60 mean score in class 1 derivational suffixation while in class 2, it was 7.5% and 15 mean score. It shows that the morphological incompetency affected clearly the grammatical competence whereas the experimental group clarified that their morphological knowledge helped them produce different lexical categories of a word since the results for them were 0%. The data (table -2 & figure -2) clearly indicates that the study of morphology clears the concept of lexical category change too.

Table 3. The Percentage and Mean Value of Avoided, Incorrect and Correct Forms of Inflectional Suffixes, and Internal Change and Suppletion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Morphological processes</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Avoidance</th>
<th>Incorrect forms</th>
<th>Correct forms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular &amp; irregular suffixes</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal change</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppletion</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Arab World English Journal
www.awej.org
ISSN: 2229-9327
5.2. Inflectional Morphology

In inflectional suffixation (regular and irregular), internal change and suppletion, the mean of avoidance was 10, 20, 15 and percentage was 5%, 10%, 7.5% (illustrated in table -3 and figure -3) respectively while totally different from group one, group two didn’t show any trace of avoidance since the members of this group opted all the words. Further, the control group applied incorrect affixation higher than the experimental group e.g., 15% with 30 mean score in regular and irregular suffixes, 35% (70 mean value) in internal change and 20% (40 mean) in suppletion while the second group produced incorrectly only 2.5% with 5 mean score, 5% (10 mean score) in suffixes and internal change and 0% in suppletion. For the experimental group, the results were significantly very low in comparison to the first group. So, it can be summed up that group one performed correctly 80% (160 mean) whereas the performance of group two was 17.5% higher with 97.5% and 195 mean score in regular and irregular suffixation. In internal change, the frequency of correct forms in group two was 95% with 190 mean score relatively almost double to the production of group one that was 55% (110 mean score). In suppletion, the second group supplied all the words correctly and the first group members again showed the lack of morphological knowledge because they supplied 72.5% (145 mean value). Thus, it can be stated that they underperformed to a large extent.

![Figure 3. Percentage of the groups’ responses](image-url)
Tables 4: The Percentage and Mean Value of Overgeneralization, Morphophonemic Unawareness and Lexical Category Incomprehension in Inflectional Suffixes and Prefixes, and Internal Change and Suppletion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Morphological processes</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Overgeneralization</th>
<th>Morphophonemic unawareness</th>
<th>Lexical category incomprehension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Regular &amp; irregular suffixes</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Internal change</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suppletion</td>
<td>Group one</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Group two</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.2.1. Overgeneralization

Group one overgeneralized the morphemic rules 7.5% (15 means) in regular and irregular suffixes, particularly in irregular ones. In internal change, overgeneralization was more (12.5%) with 25 mean score, and in suppletion, it was a little lower (10%) with 20 mean score. In comparison to group one, group two didn’t overgeneralize at all. It shows that they had morphological awareness as they always reflected on and manipulated the instructional morphological structure to the given words.

5.2.2. Morphophonemic Unawareness

For this category, the first group exhibited morphophonemic unawareness 2.5% only in the regular and irregular suffixation and the mean score was 5. On the other hand, the second group didn’t make any mistake in any of these categories. As discussed earlier, internal change substitutes a vowel, a non-morphophonemic segment in a word whereas suppletion supplies a new word either completely or partially and doesn’t require any morphophonemic change too. To use internal change and suppletion, the learners don’t need to know morphophonemic rules and they apply only the knowledge of morphological processes. Therefore, no traces of this measure were seen in the findings for both the groups as indicated in table -4 and figure -4.
5.2.3. **Lexical category incomprehension**

In inflectional suffixation, the mean score was 5 (2.5%), and in internal change and suppletion, it was 20 and 5 with 10% and 2.5% in the elicited responses of group one. While group two formed all lexical categories correctly. Moreover, they marked a highly significant difference between the performances of lexical category comprehension among both the groups.

6. **Discussion**

6.1. **Correct and incorrect forms**

In this category, group two students produce correct forms of lexemes almost everywhere as compared to group one students; they make errors in the words like 'permit', 'divide', 'beauty', 'sit', 'ox', 'goose', 'health', 'logical', 'balance', 'sing', 'black' etc. Group one produces sometimes either a word incorrectly or an incorrect lexical category in the word list as well as in the sentences most of the times such as 'song', 'permitted', 'perceived', 'beautiful' for 'sang/sung', 'permissible', 'perception', 'beautify'. Few times, this group supply incorrect spelling like 'oxed', 'oxes' for 'oxen' and 'divition' for 'division'. On the other hand, the latter group make less frequent, developmental errors e.g., 'permitted' for 'permissible' and 'blacked' for 'blacken' as these could be considered right but in a different lexical category or in a different place of occurrence. They use either the correct form mostly or just simply avoid to use it very less often if they don’t know it, but group one students were not sure in their knowledge, thus, they produce the incorrect forms very often in the word lists and sentences, for instance, ‘the girl has a job and is not depending (dependent) on her family’, ‘she is not a depending (dependable) person’ and ‘my uncle saw two oxes (oxen) near his building.’ This shows that there is a significant relationship between the correct use of words and the knowledge of morphological processes.

6.2. **Overgeneralization**

In the process of overgeneralization, group one students mostly overgeneralize suffixes. For example, they were asked to form a noun from the word 'divide'. Instead of replacing ‘-de’ by ‘-ion’, to make it a noun 'division' they write 'divition', because of a previous word 'produce-production', the same is the case with other words like 'oxes' in place of 'oxen'. They overgeneralize it with ‘chairs’ or ‘classes’, etc. On the other hand, group two students perform well except very few suffixes like, 'black-blacked' instead of 'blacken'. In writing the sentences, the first group carries overgeneralization e.g., ‘the man wears blacked jacket’, this gives absurd or vague meaning. These learners are supposed to using ‘blacken’ as a verb, but they prefer the incorrect adjective in place of a verb while the other group uses mostly the correct lexemes with the right place of occurrence in the sentences. They overgeneralize very less in comparison to group one because they are confident about the morphemic rules.

6.2. **Avoidance**

It is found that the least number of students in group one avoid word-formation. Without possessing a proper knowledge of suffixes, they try to form a word correctly or incorrectly. Only a few of them keep the space empty. In comparison, group two students outperform. It is observed that avoid a word rarely whether in listing the words with different morphological processes or using them in sentences. Because of this fact, they are aware enough in using those morphological processes.
6.3. Lexical category incoherence

Most of group one students show lack of knowledge in grammar as they could not change the lexical category in class 1 derivational suffixation, for example, the formation of a word ‘permit’ into an adjective, has been changed into a noun or a verb by adding suffixes ‘-ion’ or ‘-ed’ to it as ‘permission’, ‘permitted’. Similarly, in making a plural of word ‘ox’, ‘oxed’ is produced instead of ‘oxen’ (they try to make it a verb). In the same way, ‘perceives’ in place of a noun ‘perception’ is created, and so on. For instance, ‘I understand your perceives’. On the other hand, group two marks comparatively far better understanding of lexical category.

6.4. Morphophonemic unawareness

In this category, group one students in class 1 derivational suffixes appear to be unaware of morphological rules except few. For instance, in the words ‘produce’, ‘perceive’, ‘divide’ and ‘permit’, they had to change it to an adjective and noun by adding suffixes ‘-ive’ and ‘-ion’, but are seen frequently to create these words as ‘produced’, ‘produccion’, ‘perceived’, ‘perceives’, ‘perceivtion’ ‘divided’, ‘divition’ and ‘permitted’, ‘permition’. Class 1 derivation requires the morphophonemic awareness to produce a new part of speech or to apply suffixation. Hence, frequent errors are present in adding suffixes to class 1. According to the rule, they use suffix like ‘-ion’ correctly, but fail to change as per rule because of morphophonemic unawareness. Though, group two students are rarely found to lag behind in morphophonology. In class 2 suffixation of the derivational morphology, group one learners do well as it doesn’t demand any morphophonemic rule. Here, their L2 exposure helps them formulate the words correctly. As in irregular prefixes, the study of morphophonology is must, group one’s incompetence is relatively very high, for example, they form ‘unlogical’, ‘unbalance’ in place of ‘illogical’, and ‘imbalance’ (e.g., ‘it is unlogical (illogical)to follow’); however, the incorrect forms of ‘irregular’ and ‘incomplete’ are used less frequently. It might happen due to the fact that these words are very common in spoken and written use. Group two learners exemplify that they know the morphophonemic rules perfectly especially in prefixes. The findings indicate that there is a strong and significant correlation between morphophonemic awareness and the correct use of words in writing.

6.5. Semantic Change

The semantic change was seen while calculating the correct and incorrect use of words. It was observed that it occurs due to the effect of morphological unawareness. Sometimes, group one students, in class 1 derivational suffixes, demonstrate the change in the meaning of the lexemes e.g., in the word ‘black’, they have to change it to verb by adding a suffix ‘-en’, but they use a word ‘block’. For example, ‘she blocked the bread in the toaster’. Contrastively, group two doesn’t show such change.

To apply the morphological rules in the formation of words by both the groups, it has been figured out from the elicited responses that group two, who studied the rules explicitly, forms
words more appropriately in comparison to group one, who didn’t study morphological rules or this group had only implicit morphological knowledge. The difference between the affixation in the writings of both the groups signifies clearly the importance of learning morphology. As the focus of this paper is to demonstrate the differences in word formation among the students before or after studying morphological rules, it has been observed from the results that the range of vocabulary of group two students improves by learning morphology which in turn help them understand grammar better, denote lexemes in a proper part of speech whereas group one is the instance of poor results in the process of word formulation especially lexical category. Sometimes the improper application of morphemic rules causes semantic change e.g., in the process of suppletion, the word ‘good’ was changed to ‘goodness’ instead of ‘better-best’ in some students’ responses. Here, the change occurs not only in meaning but also from inflectional to derivational morphology. It is also discovered that in inflectional morphology, group one makes much less errors than derivational morphology because it requires learning the concrete grammatical, morphophonemic structure. It must have occurred possibly due to FL exposure and the commonly used words like ‘man-men’. The main reason behind the errors of group one is their morphemic unawareness which leads to other errors such as grammatical, intralingual, lexical, etc. It clearly focuses on the need for morphological knowledge. In order to avoid morphological errors in the words or text of EFL students, it is better to teach them the rules which will make them competent to reflect on the correct word-formation and further they can apply their knowledge in discourse: written as well as spoken. This research finds that there is a highly significant correlation between morphemic competence and the correct production of different words that affected EFL learners’ writing on a large basis. Morphological awareness doesn’t improve only the word formulation process but it boosts orthographical, cognitive lexical, grammatical, intralingual, semantic, syntactical accuracy, and proficiency of a language.

7. Conclusion

This study implies a promising contribution to language pedagogy, language learning, and computational linguistics. As this study has tried to prove that if morphological processes will be taught, errors will be less, so the writing of EFL students in terms of word formation can be enhanced by teaching them morphological and morphophonemic rules and this puts emphasis on teachers for giving some easy exercises of morphological rules while teaching skills (listening, speaking, reading, writing and written structure) at the beginning level. They need to teach different morphological processes step by step. First, language teachers may teach inflectional suffixes. After that, they can move to the derivational affixes, the complex ones. Then they can go ahead with other advanced morphological processes; therefore, learners may produce better and effective writing, and later learning syntax would be easier for them. In this way, they can also form different categories of words as nouns, verbs, adverbs, adjectives and so on. This research suggests that explicit teaching must be introduced from early education and curricula may be designed in such a way to raise morphological awareness among EFL learners. The teaching of morphology could be incorporated with other courses and taught separately as a full course. Though it is an empirical study to seek answers to many questions related to derivational and inflectional morphology, it is limited to derivational and inflectional affixation and only two morphological processes: internal change and suppletion. It is recommended that further work is required in this arena e.g., compounding, other morphological processes: conversion,
reduplication, clipping, cliticization, blending, acronym, abbreviation, onomatopoeia, etc. and syntax.

**Acknowledgments**
The authors extend their appreciation to the Deanship of Scientific Research at King Khalid University for funding this work through research group program under grant number R.G.P. 1/2/38.

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**References**


Appendix
(Adapted from Vanderweide, O’Grady, Aronoff & Rees-Miller, 2002; & Carstairs-McCarthy, 2002)

Add affixes to the following words.

Task 1: Add class 1 derivational suffixes in the list A and change the lexical category shown in the brackets.

1. Produce: _______________________ (Noun)
2. Permit: _________________________ (Adjective)
3. Divide: _________________________ (Noun)
4. Perceive: _________________________ (Noun)

Task 2: Add class 2 suffixes in the list B and change the lexical category shown in the brackets.

1. Health: ________________________ (Adjective)
2. Black: _________________________ (Verb)
3. Depend: ________________________ (Adjective)
4. Beauty: _________________________ (Verb)

Task 3: Add prefixes in the list C.

1. Complete: ___________________________
2. Regular: ___________________________
3. Logical: ____________________________
4. Balance: __________________________

Task 4: Add prefixes in the list D.

1. Health: ___________________________
2. Fortunate: ____________________________
3. Lawful: __________________________
4. Fasten: ___________________________

Task 5: Add inflectional suffixes in the list E.

1. Large: ___________________________
2. Class: ___________________________
3. Chair: ___________________________
4. Ox: ___________________________

Task 6: Apply internal change in the list F.

1. Sit: ___________________________
2. Sing: ___________________________
3. Goose: ___________________________
4. Man: ___________________________

Task 7: Apply suppletion in the list G.

1. Go: ___________________________
2. Good: ___________________________
3. Buy: ___________________________
4. Think: ___________________________

Task 8: Write ten sentences using all these words wherever necessary.
The Impact of the Formative Assessment in Speaking Test on Saudi Students’ Performance

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Abstract
The current research takes place at the English language department at Taibah University, Saudi Arabia, where all students are enrolled in undergraduate studies and must study English language course as a core module in their first year. One of the most challenging tests faced by Saudi students in their studies, is the summative speaking test. The test is consisting of three tasks in which students required to go through them all. Accordingly, there is a need to seek approaches to enhance students’ performance in the speaking test. In other words, formative assessment has not been used to overcome the challenges faced by the Saudi students at Taibah University in the speaking test. This research aims to investigate whether a formative speaking assessment has a significant impact on students’ performance in the summative test. Also, it aims to monitor student learning and to provide constructive feedback that can be used by teachers to improve students’ learning and help the students to identify their strengths and weaknesses in speaking skills. This study concludes that formative assessment helps Saudi students to overcome the challenges they face in speaking test. It is also recommend constructive feedback to improve their speaking performance.

Keywords: Constructive Feedback, Formative Assessment, Speaking Performance, Speaking skill, Summative Assessment

Cite as: Alahmadi, N., Alrahaili, M., & Alshraideh, D. (2019). The Impact of the Formative Assessment in Speaking Test on Saudi Students’ Performance. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 259-270. DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.22
1. Introduction
The field of education in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA) has been developed noticeably, as teaching English has taken a new positive shape. It is quite satisfactory that teachers and students are aware of the importance of the English Language, and tremendous efforts have been made at every level of education to impart proficiency among students. Halliday's (2004) indicates that language has developed "to talk about what is happening, what will happen, and what has happened (the ideational meta-function); to interact and/or express a point of view (the interpersonal meta-function) and to turn the output of (these) into a coherent whole (the textual meta-function), (p.30).

Much emphasis is given to improve students’ English communication skills. Speaking is one of the four skills that students should master in order to communicate properly and effectively. Ur (1996) in her study of language teaching, indicates that speaking is one of the most important skill intuitively, and people who know a language are referred to as ‘speakers’ of that language, as if speaking included all other kinds of knowledge; and many if not most foreign languages learners are interested in learning to speak, Harmer (2001) clarifies that if a person is able to speak a language, it means that he/she possesses the knowledge of the target language’s features and has the ability to process information when required. On the other hand, there should be a way to assess students’ speaking skill in order to evaluate their performance. Black and William (2006) assert that “assessment in education must serve the purpose of supporting learning” (p. 9). Many studies have shown that assessments serve teaching learning process in different ways. Hanna & Dettmer, (2004) also, define assessment as a process of gathering information about teaching and learning process that enables instructors to evaluate students’ performance.

The current research emphasizes the evaluation of Saudi students’ performance who study English language course as a core modules at their first year in their undergraduates study. The course is a pre-requisite for medical and science programs at Taibah University. The course aims to take students from the A1 Level of CEFR (The common European Framework of Reference for Language) entrance ability and exit them at the B1 language level based on the CEFR language levels scale. As a part of English language assessment procedures for measuring students’ English proficiency in the four language skills, Saudi students are required to take four English-speaking tests over two semesters. Speaking tests are initially summative which is considered to be one of the most challenging tasks for students. This research aims to answer the following questions: What is the impact of the formative assessment in speaking tests on students’ performance? Does formative speaking assessment help the students to identify their weaknesses and strengths?

2. Background
2.1 Assessments and Feedback
Assessment is a process of gathering information systematically. It is an essential element in the teaching-learning process that enables teachers to evaluate their methods of teaching and provides them with the required information regarding the learners’ progress. Huhta (as cited in Spolsky&Hult, 2008) refers to assessment as “all kinds of procedures used to assess individuals (e.g., informal observations, self-assessments, quizzes, interviews, tests)” (p. 469). Teachers should assess their students frequently in order to monitor their improvement and measure their ability to master the essential skills. When teachers consider an assessment task, they usually have some questions in their mind such as: “When and how often shall we assess the students?”, or “How
should we conduct an assessment procedure?” The question of “What” and “Why” rarely comes to teachers’ mind (Bachman & Palmer, 2010).

Teachers have many reasons for being interested in using feedback in their teaching practices. They are likely to be interested to know generally, what they are doing and how teaching should be done. Feedback refers to specific information that teachers provide to their students related to the task or learning process. The purpose is to fill in the gap between what the student understands and what is aimed to be finally understood (Hattie & Timperley, 2007). It provides teachers with a whole picture of their good practice and improvements they may achieve in teaching. Others teachers need feedback to be able to document the quality of their teaching skills. Research has shown that either type of feedback is better than none, and that, the more information is provided in the feedback, the greater is the impact on the resulting performance measured (Olina & Sullivan, 2002; Whyte, Karolick, Nielsen, Elder, & Hawley, 1995). Learners also need feedback to gain a better achievement in their summative assessment and also to help improve attendance and retention of learning. Akter, (2010) proves that giving feedback to learners on their performance is an essential aspect of effective teaching. Feedback can either be positive or negative and may serve not only to show learners how well they have performed but also to motivate them and build a supportive classroom climate.

2.2 Differences Between Formative and Summative Assessment
Assessment is vital to the education process. Schools, universities and Ministries or departments of education may use summative assessments and evaluations. In addition, assessment may also serve a formative function. In classrooms, formative assessment refers to frequent, interactive assessments of student’s progress and understanding to identify learners’ needs and adjust teaching appropriately. “Teachers using formative assessment approaches and techniques are better prepared to meet diverse students’ needs”. (Burner, 1996, p2)

Formative assessment methods are necessary to raise overall levels of student’s achievement. Quantitative and qualitative research on formative assessment are proved as one of the most important interventions for promoting high-performance ever studied. Black and Wiliam(1998) concluded that:

formative assessment does improve learning. The gains in achievement appear to be quite considerable, and as noted earlier, among the largest ever reported for educational interventions. As an illustration of just how big these gains are, an effect size of 0.7, if it could be achieved on a nation-wide scale, would be equivalent to raising the mathematics attainment score of an ‘average’ country like England, New Zealand or the United States into the ‘top five’ after the Pacific Rim countries of Singapore, Korea, Japan and Hong Kong. (p. 61)

These findings provide a strong foundation for further research on effective teaching, learning and assessment strategies. On the other hand, the aim of the summative assessment is usually focus on evaluating students’ learning at the end of instructional units, lessons, or course specifications and syllables. It is frequently comparing it against some particular test specifications or standard checklists. Consequently, Summative assessments are often considered to be a high stakes form
of assessment, which means it been recognized as a “high point value assessment”. Some examples of summative assessments include; final or midterm exams, graduation projects, scientific papers or writing compositions. Generally, gathered information from summative assessments has a profound influence on students’ development or faculty members to reflect on their own teaching in the future.

2.2.1 Formative Assessment
Formative assessment has been interpreted in many ways. Black and Wiliam (1998) define it as the whole activities undertaken by teachers, and/or by their students, which provide information that can be used as feedback to modify the teaching and learning activities in which they are engaged. Formative assessment can be used to facilitate the learning process in the classroom, and it might help the students in their learning. Tahir, Tariq, Mubashira and Rabbia (2012) state that formative assessment is a diagnostic use of assessment that provides feedback to teachers and students throughout instructions. Marsh (2007) claims that formative testing is a kind of strategies, which is designed to identify learner’s learning difficulties in order to provide remediation procedures to enhance the performance of the majority of students. The information provided to the students must be used in order for the assessment to be described as a formative one. The Assessment Reform Group (ARG) describes formative assessment as the process of looking for and interpreting evidence for teachers and their learners to decide where the learners fit in their learning, where they need to go, and how best to get there (Assessment Reform Group, 2007). Kathy (2013) also claims that formative testing aims for an analysis of learners’ learning difficulties to improve their academic achievement.

2.2.2 Summative Assessment
According to Black, Harrison, Lee, Marshall, Wiliam (2003), summative assessment is given periodically to determine at a particular point in time what students know and do not know. Summative assessment comes after the learning has been completed and provides information and feedback that sums up the teaching and learning process. Typically, no more formal learning is taking place at this stage, other than incidental learning which might take place through the completion of projects and assignments. For Scriven (1967), summative evaluation provided information to judge the general value of an educational program (as compared with some alternative), whereas the results of formative evaluation were targeted to facilitate the educational program. According to Shepard (2006), a summative assessment should fulfill its main purpose of documenting what students know and can do but, if carefully crafted, should also successfully meet a secondary purpose of support for learning. Yorke (2003) defines summative assessment as evaluation of the extent to which students meet the course’s objectives through a midterm or final examination. Summative assessment has been contrasted with the formative one, which has its roots in the field of program evaluation. According to Atkin, Black, & Coffey (2005), summative assessment is an assessment given at the end of a learning period to conclude if learning occurred, and often to place some value (score) on how much learning had occurred or to quantify how much a learner knows about the subject matter.

2.3 Applying Formative and Summative Assessments in Education
Recent research suggests that taking tests can enhance learning by strengthening the representation of information retrieved during the test, and it also slows the rate of forgetting (Rohrer and Pashler,
2010). Many studies and research have been conducted to show the effect of assessments on teaching. Dhindsa, Omar, and Waldrip (2007) claim that examining students’ perceptions of assessment stimulate them to develop an authentic assessment approach that “rewards genuine effort and in-depth learning rather than measuring luck” (p. 1262). Assessment in education is an essential tool of the 20th century. Scriven (1967) proposes the use of “Formative and Summative” assessment to distinguish between the roles of evaluation. Hence, an assessment is perceived to serve two different purposes: 1) informative, to improve teaching and learning process, and, 2) summative to measure students’ achievement. (p. 4). In order to investigate the effect of formative assessment on students’ achievement in secondary school Mathematics, Moysore (2015) conducted a study to evaluate the effectiveness of the formative assessment; the experimental research design was employed in that study. One hundred and twenty (120) Mathematics students in secondary II Art classes in two public schools in Iseyin Local Government of Oyo State, Nigeria were selected through purposive technique made up the study sample. Findings from analysis revealed that formative assessment has a strong significant difference in the mean achievement score of Mathematics students that are exposed to it (t = 36.54, p = 0.000) while there is no significant difference in the mean achievement scores of student who are not exposed to formative assessment (t=2.053, p = 0.045). Feedback used as part of formative assessment helps learners become aware of any gaps that exist between their anticipated goal and their existing knowledge, understanding, or skill and guides them through actions necessary to obtain the goal (Sadler, 2005). Ross (2005) used a mixed methods approach, which included self-assessment as a form of formative assessment, to study Japanese undergraduates who were enrolled in a two-year, sixteen course English for academic purposes program. Analyses showed that formative assessments produced higher language proficiency growth than those who were assessed by summative assessments only. Also, it revealed that even though formative assessment can produce substantive increases in achievement and proficiency growth, this impact might be domain-dependent, e.g., language listening comprehension improvement. However, this research is an attempt to focus on the impact of formative assessment in the speaking test on Students’ performance.

However, the course of the current study is a skill-based course that focuses on developing the general and academic language skills of the first-year English language students at the English language department, Taibah University. The major aim of this specific course is to develop students’ language skills and competencies by exposing them to a variety of general and academic contexts at the beginner, elementary and advanced elementary language levels. In addition, the course builds the students' abilities in the language area through equipping them with a wide range of vocabulary and grammatical structures. Moreover, the course develops the learners' cognitive skills such as analyzing, criticizing, synthesizing, and evaluate what students need at the university stage.

As a part of the English department assessment procedures for measuring students’ English proficiency in the four language skills, the students are required to take multiple summative speaking tests during the academic year. English Speaking tests in this case study is considered to be one of the most thought-provoking tasks for Saudi students. To overcome the challenge of the speaking test faced by students, the English Language Department (ELD) administration provides teachers with three materials as a part of test preparation: test specification with examples, practices with model answers and exercises for teachers. All teachers are encouraged to share these materials with their students. Therefore, this research been conducted to evaluate the formative
assessment based on the materials provided by the English language department in order to facilitate students’ learning and help them in the speaking test.

3. Research Methodology
A class of 30 first-year female students at the English Language department was divided randomly into two groups; controlled group and uncontrolled group. Each group has 15 students. Controlled group refers to the students who do not receive formative assessment while the uncontrolled group refers to the students who receive both formative and summative speaking tests. All students are homogeneous in terms of their education, ethnicity and age.

3.1 Description of Assessments Tasks
Both formative and summative speaking assessments are of three tasks; two teachers assess each student. The assessment begins with a one minute ungraded introductory chat between the assessor and the student. In this part of the test, the assessor greets the student and confirms the student’s name and ID number. The assessor then explains the format of the assessment to the student. This speaking assessment consists of three tasks: a dialogue, a description of a picture, and a reaction to a situation.

3.1.1 Task 1: A dialogue
In this part of the test, students have two-way discussion with the two assessors about the themes and topics covered in the book as part of the English language curriculum. The assessors explain to the student the format of this part by saying, in this first part, I am going to ask you some questions, and I would like you to answer them in full sentences. Do you understand?.

3.1.2 Task 2: A description of A Picture
In this part of the test, the assessor starts saying to the students, I will give you a picture, and I want you to describe what you see in the picture. I would like you to speak about what you see for about one minute. Students are required to describe a picture, based on the themes and topics covered in the book.

3.1.3 Task 3: A reaction to A Situation
In this part of the test, the assessor tells the student, I will describe a situation to you, and I want you to respond with one or two sentences to the situation. Are you ready? Students are required to respond to a particular situation, based on the themes and topics covered in the course book. The assessor randomly selects a different question for each task. Students are not given the chance to change any question.

The test takes six minutes and weights 10 scores. Two assessors assess students’ performances in the three tasks. Based on a unified rubric designed and accredited by the ELD administration. Students are assessed on the range, accuracy, fluency, interaction, and coherence. It is worth noting that the uncontrolled group was given feedback about taking the formative assessment and their weakness and strength areas were pointed out.
4. Data Analysis and Findings
For analytical purposes, the students’ scores were computed in continuous numerical variables range from one to ten values in which one refers to fail, and ten refers to excellence. The data of the formative assessment has been collected one week before administering the summative speaking test. All data have been processed by the statistical package for the social science (SPSS). Some analytical procedures have been used to investigate whether a formative assessment has a positive impact on the summative assessment such as frequency, means, standard deviation and One-Way ANOVA.

4.1 Descriptive Statistics:
Table (1) shows that the uncontrolled group’s scores in the summative speaking test are very high. The majority of the students get A+. On the other hand, Table (2) indicates that the students’ scores are distributed across all grades from A+ to F.

Table (1): Students’ scores in speaking summative test (Uncontrolled group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ Grades</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>C+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>13.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A+</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>80.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (2): Students’ scores in speaking summative test (Controlled group)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students’ Grades</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Valid Percent</th>
<th>Cumulative Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F+</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
<td>6.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C+</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>40.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B+</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>53.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A+</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>33.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These results are supported with focused group discussion. The majority of the students of the uncontrolled group demonstrated that formative assessment and the feedback that they received helped them to overcome three main issues related to the speaking test, which are (accuracy, fluency and coherence)

4.2 Comparing Means Statistics
One-way ANOVA analysis was conducted to investigate whether the means of controlled group’s scores differ significantly from the scores of uncontrolled group. Table (3) and (4) shows
that there was a significant effect of formative assessment on students’ scores in the summative speaking test at the p<.05 level \[F (1, 7.76) = 4.68, p = 0.01\].

Table (3): Scores of students in the summative speaking test as a function of controlled and uncontrolled groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Summative speaking test</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>36.300</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36.300</td>
<td>7.76</td>
<td>.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>131.067</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>167.367</td>
<td>29</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (4): Means of the scores of students in the summative speaking test as a function of controlled and uncontrolled groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. D</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval for Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Lower Bound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Controlled group</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7.33</td>
<td>2.845</td>
<td>.735</td>
<td>5.76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncontrolled group</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.53</td>
<td>1.125</td>
<td>.291</td>
<td>8.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.43</td>
<td>2.402</td>
<td>.439</td>
<td>7.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fixed Effects</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.164</td>
<td></td>
<td>.395</td>
<td>7.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Random Effects</td>
<td></td>
<td>1.100</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>-5.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Formative assessment of uncontrolled group (mean= 7.40 and standard deviation=1.68

These results are supported with focused group discussion. The majority of the students of the uncontrolled group demonstrated that formative assessment and the feedback that they have received help them to overcome the same issues mentioned above related to the speaking test.

5. Discussion
The figures mentioned above indicate the value of the formative assessment. The results clearly show an improvement in the overall performance of the speaking test, which resulted in gaining higher marks for students in the “uncontrolled group”. Interestingly, students who were given feedback in their formative assessment were able to perform better than the “controlled group” in terms of accuracy and coherence. On the other hand, the study’s results indicate a significant difference in student’s performance in the speaking test for the controlled group, as the students in this group had taken only the summative assessment without any feedback. Recent contributions to the literature show that there is a transition from the conventional summative assessment...
approach of language learning outcomes to gradually integrating formative assessments, but this is only a continuing process (Davison, 2004).

Therefore, the process of the formative assessment, which included in this study, indicates that when students are aware of their strengths and weaknesses they were able to perform better in their speaking test. It is a process through which they find out about their learning. The process involves them in recognizing, evaluating, and reacting to their own learning outcome. Students did reflect on their own performance, as well as they have received constructive feedback from their teacher such as pointing out their language errors, e.g. (grammatical and phonological errors). Formative assessment outcome in this study is also an indication of the importance of proper feedback to students in which teachers find out about the effectiveness of the learning process. Accordingly, Chickering and Gamson (1991) claim that frequent feedback as a result of formative assessments can keep students on task by helping to identify areas in which the student is not performing well. It can be viewed as the process by which teachers gather assessment information about the students’ learning and then respond to promote further learning and better performance. For example, assessment should contribute to instructions and learning. However, assessment after the instructions are over, does not allow the assessment to contribute to any instructional decisions. This can conclude to what extent can students master some amount of content. Thus, assessment must be a continuous process that facilitates “on-line” instructional decision-making in the classroom. (Gitomer & Duschl, 1995, p. 307).

6. Limitations
The size of the sample was small. The results of the study cannot be assumed to be generalizable to other populations beyond this group of subjects. Rather, this study should be considered as an exploratory investigation that has the goal of identifying possible issues and trends for further research.

7. Conclusion
The discussion raised in this study shows the value of the formative assessment. The results clearly indicate an improvement in the overall performance of the speaking test which resulted in gaining higher marks for students in the “uncontrolled group”.

Referring to the findings of this study, it could be concluded that when the formative assessment is implied, it improves the students’ performance in the speaking skills and also enables them to understand the contents of the subject properly, which is better than the use of summative test only. In addition, formative assessment tested in this case study plays a crucial role in enhancing students’ learning process by giving continues structured feedback.

Moreover, formative assessment places an emphasis on the process of teaching and learning, and actively involving students in that process through stressing the importance and the impact of formative assessment, which is identified in this research. The purpose of this research is to highlight whether students’ performance will be affected or not when undertakes this type of assessment and when students provided with constructive feedback, in comparison to students who undertake the summative assessment only. Assessment in general, accounts for "supporting learning (formative), certifying the achievement or potential of individuals (summative), and
evaluating the quality of educational institutions or programs (evaluative)" (Wiliam, & Thompson 2008).

However, both formative and summative assessment influences learning. In other words, to improve learning outcomes, we need to consider not only the teaching and learning activities, but also the assessment tasks (Gipps & James, 1998). Additionally, the extent to which formative assessment improves learning outcomes is now being recognized. For example, Black and Wiliam (1998), in their review of classroom assessment, boldly state: that formative assessment does improve learning. The gains in achievement appear to be quite considerable, and as noted earlier, amongst the largest ever reported for educational interventions. (p. 61)

To sum up, the value of formative assessment in this research was briefly introduced in order to highlight its importance to the teachers’ existing practice, as well as to raise students’ awareness of their English speaking competence. Moreover, formative assessment is a practical method that enables students to learn English effectively as well as to adjust and reflect on their own learning by the constructive feedback received. It also expands and deepens their knowledge of the language as they are supposed to be assessed regularly and thoroughly.

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References


The Implementation of the Project-Based Learning Approach in the Algerian EFL Context: Curriculum Designers’ Expectations and Teachers’ Obstacles

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Abstract
To help learners acquire and develop the necessary skills for the 21st century, Algeria has adopted the Competency-Based Approach (CBA) along with the Project-based Learning (PBL) approach within its educational system. Theoretically speaking, the goal behind such reform is to shift from a content-based to a process-based learning/teaching and thus to make learning more relevant and realistic for students. However, in practice, teachers find difficulties in putting into practice the two approaches. The aim of the present paper is to explore those obstacles that hinder the execution of the PBL approach in the third-year secondary education English classes and to identify to what extent English language teachers master and use PBL methodology in their classes. To reach the aim of the study, the following hypothesis is put forward: teachers lack both training and background knowledge on the approaches that help to implement PBL in classrooms. For the sake of collecting information about the issue tackled in this study, twenty EFL teachers from some secondary schools in Mostaganem city received a questionnaire. The research findings confirm the hypothesis mentioned above. They reveal that teachers neither master nor use the project-based instruction proficiently in their classrooms despite the guidance provided in the third-year pedagogical documents. Those hindrances are due to the lack of professional training and the insufficient theoretical knowledge on the diverse approaches, methods and strategies related to PBL.

Keywords: accompanying document, competency-based approach, project-based learning/instruction, teachers’ obstacles, third-year curriculum/textbook

Cite as: Baghoussi, M., & El Ouchdi, I. Z. (2019). The Implementation of the Project-Based Learning Approach in the Algerian EFL Context: Curriculum Designers’ Expectations and Teachers’ Obstacles. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 271-282.
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.23
1. Introduction

Before 1962, the French language was widely used in different sectors in Algeria. In the past few decades, the Algerian government decided to use Arabic in politics and education. However, English was first introduced in middle schools as a second foreign language in 2001. Like many countries in the world, Algeria has given English an essential pre-eminence in its educational system. It has been introduced in all levels (middle, secondary and university) because it is an international language and a language that is widely used in scientific and technological fields. The main aim behind its introduction is mainly to face the requirements of globalization and get in touch with all people of the world and to reinforce the international political and economic relations. As the Ministry of National Education (MNE) (2006) points out:

The aim behind teaching English in Algeria is to help our society to integrate harmoniously into the modern world by getting involved fully and effectively with the world multilingual communities that use this language in all kinds of interactions. Thanks to the sharing and exchanging of ideas, scientific experiments, cultural and economic capital, this involvement will enable a better understanding of oneself and others. In such a perspective, the old and narrow utilitarian conception of English learning will change and thus leading to a more daring approach where citizens will not be consumers, but actors and agents of change. Therefore, everyone will have the opportunity to get access to science, technology, and world culture.... (p. 3)

Since 2001, numerous changes have occurred in the Algerian educational system because of some deficiencies found in the previously implemented approaches, namely the communicative and the teaching by objectives approaches. Due to the rapid change that the educational systems of the world are continually witnessing, new teaching methods and approaches have emerged. Reconsidering the necessity of such change and thanks to the help provided by the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), the UNESCO and the Out-of-School Children Initiative (OOSCI) organizations, the Algerian MNE started to make some other reforms in its educational system in 2003 in order to adapt it to the national and the world requirements. To meet those requirements and to face the challenges of the 21st century needs, learners need to possess some skills like collaboration, creativity, critical thinking and communication. With the help of that reform and the birth of the new approach, namely the Competency-Based Approach (CBA) a noticeable shift occurred. The content-based curricula paved the way for the competency-based one. Since then, the MNE has introduced new curricula and textbooks at all school levels. The approach adopted within all those teaching resources is the CBA, an approach that embraces problem and project-based teaching/learning, learner-centredness, autonomy and some further approaches. Thanks to that approach, both teachers and learners’ roles have changed. Learners are no more passive; they become actively engaged and responsible for their learning development. Correspondingly, the teacher’s role has shifted from a spoon feeder of knowledge to a mentor, a guide and a facilitator, thus placing learners at the core of the learning process. In such an environment, learners will construct their own knowledge and try to exploit it, when and where necessary, in real-life situations. Since learner autonomy is the main focus of the learner-centered approach, the roles of the teacher and the learner changed. The process has become collaborative where the teacher has become a kind of companion. In this perspective, the Algerian English Framework (AEF), for example, has focused on learners’ competencies to encourage them to use higher-order thinking.
skills to solve real-life problems. Critical thinking, on the other hand, is also one of the 21st-century competencies that embrace the Project-Based Learning (PBL) approach. Accordingly, during the realization phase of the projects, students are supposed to make judgments and think critically to come to the final product.

Moreover, in order to facilitate the integration of the Algerian learner in the world community and increase the productivity and the efficiency of the educational system, the MNE has also focused on the incorporation of Information and Communication Technologies (ICTs) into schools and universities to help learners to obtain quality projects. Thanks to ICTs, learners can “investigate and construct new meaning. Technology helps them reach beyond the classroom to a community of learners” (Krauss & Boss, 2013, p. 9). So to put a focus on those technologies, the MNE (2006) confirms that ICTs:

- give access the Web to exchange ideas and opinions with all the people of the world through chatting and discussion forums;
- help learners to discover the world and its people, religions and cultures;
- create an authentic context of communication with native English speakers and non-native speakers;
- develop one’s autonomy in reflection and action;
- help learners to work within a motivating educational frame;
- give access to various documentation for research;
- encourage learners to use different software to shape their projects;
- improve different technological skills…(p. 9-10).

To highlight the impact of the recent educational reform on English teaching in Algeria, the present study on PBL at the level of secondary school third-year English classes can be a reflective mirror of such impact. It, in fact, attempts to investigate the accomplishment rate of the curriculum designers’ expectations and the obstacles that teachers are facing to implement the PBL approach in classrooms. In other words, the work draws attention to both the use of PBL by teachers and whether they are applying it as expected by curriculum designers. In order to explore such an issue, the study will focus on the curriculum designers’ expectations and the obstacles that hinder the implementation of PBL.

2. Literature Review

2.1. The Founding Principles of PBL

With the development of research in psychology and neuroscience, the relation between knowledge, thinking and doing becomes clear. Thanks to learning by doing, learners foster and develop their skills and competencies. The community, the peers and past experiences play an important role in the learning process. They also put learners in real-life contexts where learning improves through doing. Today, educationists are witnessing the rapid technological and scientific changes that are taking place in the 21st century. To succeed and face the challenges of the modern world, learners should be equipped with the appropriate and necessary knowledge, skills and competencies. Since the world is a large multi-language, culture and faith community, communication and collaboration have become a necessity. In this context, PBL has emerged,
paving the way to real-life learning experiences and problem-solving tasks beyond the classroom boundaries. There are many definitions and descriptions of PBL. Seen as a pedagogical approach, it helps learners to foster active and deep learning, thus engaging them and allowing them to investigate real-life issues in collaborative circumstances. The Buck Institute of Education (BIE) defines it as a “systematic teaching method that engages students in learning knowledge and skills through an extended inquiry process structured around complex, authentic questions and carefully designed products and tasks” (Markham et al., 2003, p. 4). It is also considered as a means to engage learners in “simultaneous acquisition of language, content, and skills” (Beckett & Slater, 2005, p. 108). PBL is essential for the development of learners’ target language, which they will use in various real-life purposes. In such contexts, learners will develop their speaking, reading, writing and listening skills in a natural way (Sheppard & Stoller, 1995).

In addition, in PBL learners are mainly exercising their higher-order thinking skills which enable them to inquire, plan, judge, scrutinize, make decisions, draw conclusions, synthesize, thus allowing them to evaluate the projects they realized on the basis of real-life issues (Blank, 1997; Harwell, 1997; Dickinson et al., 1998; Westwood, 2008). Through projects, learners also communicate and collaborate to find solutions to various real-life issues.

Project-based learning is a way to prepare students for life by enabling them to stimulate and solve real problems. To describe the hallmarks of the project-based approach, Boss & Krauss (2007) acknowledge that:

- Projects form the centerpiece of the curriculum—they are not an add-on or extra at the end of a “real” unit.
- Students engage in real-world activities and practice the strategies of authentic disciplines.
- Students work collaboratively to solve problems that matter to them.
- Technology is integrated as a tool for discovery, collaboration, and communication, taking learners places they couldn't otherwise go and helping teachers achieve essential learning goals in new ways.
- Increasingly, teachers collaborate to design and implement projects that cross geographic boundaries or even jump time zones (p. 12).

2.2. Constructivism: the theory underlying PBL

Constructivism has its origins in the works of Dewey, Kant, Vico and Hegel. It is a learning theory that focuses on how learners construct new knowledge through experience. John Dewey (1933) claims that in solving problem situations, learners vigorously build their knowledge. Hence, students become very active, engaged and motivated learners all along the learning process. Since constructivism mainly focuses on learners’ experiences, it becomes an essential agent in the implementation of PBL. Dewey sees the teacher as a nurturer, a facilitator and a collaborator. In this context, “since learning is something that the pupil has to do himself and for himself, the initiative lies with the learner. The teacher is a guide and director; he steers the boat, but the energy that propels it must come from those who are learning” (Dewey, 1933, p. 36). Learning occurs through experience, and a good teacher is the one who lets the learners do and solve real problems by themselves.
Railsback (2002) affirms that “project-based instructional strategies have their roots in the constructivist approach” (p. 6). Characteristically, the principles of PBL derive accurately from cognitive and social constructivism both of which embody the main strands of the constructivist theory. The project-based learning/teaching strategies have their origins in constructivism, an approach which is derived from the works of some theorists and psychologists like Jerome Bruner, Lev Vygotsky, Piaget and John Dewey.

2.2.1. Cognitive Constructivism
Cognitive constructivism traces back to the work of Jean Piaget, a developmental psychologist, who believed that learners develop their knowledge and that this development is a biological process. For Piaget, humans construct their knowledge by building it through experience. Each experience enables them to create new knowledge (schema). As Fosnot (2005) notes:

Piaget describes assimilation as the “acting on” a situation with initial organizing schemes—to make the situation “similar” to the present cognitive structures of the learner. This gets to the heart of constructivism. We know the world through the schemes and structures we use to explore it. Perturbations to these assimilatory schemes cause cognitive reordering (accommodation) (p. 288).

This idea confirms that humans try to construct new knowledge by referring to their prior existing background knowledge. On the other hand, accommodation remains the process of associating previous knowledge (old schema) to a new one. As a result, students cease to be passive recipients who are spoon-fed by their teachers. They rather become active learners who try to make connections with background knowledge and collect new information to create and construct new products. Also, students analyse and make connections between the real world and their own.

2.2.2. Social Constructivism
Social constructivism, on the other hand, is a further development of the constructivist learning theory. According to Vygotsky (1978), learning takes place through social interaction in the presence of a More Knowledgeable Other (MKO) - a skilful tutor, a teacher or a parent. The latter can help the learner to use verbal communication. In other words, the learner and the tutor will cooperate and collaborate, a union that leads to the cognitive development of the learner. As long as the social environment is an important factor in learning, learners mainly learn through social interactions with more skilful peers. Another focal point to consider is that the cognitive development revolves around the Zone of Proximal Development. In this area, the learner receives instructions and guidance that help her/him to develop skills s/he will use independently later. In such contexts, learners also develop higher-order thinking skills and strategies. In addition, collaborative and cooperative learning helps less competent learners to evolve and learn from peers who are more skilful. In this context, Vygotsky (1978) points out that:

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 (p. 86).
Many different studies have also shed light on the relationship between PBL and Social Constructivism. Furthermore, PBL concepts help learners to learn a language by interacting among learners, with their tutor (Williams & Burden, 1997).

In order to develop the learner’s knowledge and skills in project-based learning, scaffolding would be the best way to do so. Moreover, more knowledgeable peers and teachers can give effective scaffolding as an element of project work to reinforce learning and develop both learners’ critical thinking and problem-solving skills (Grant, 2002 & Newell, 2003). In a PBL classroom, the teacher teaches learners the ‘how’ to learn. In this case, the teacher’s role shifts from a spoon-feeder of information to a facilitator and a guide. This can help learners to be self-confident and thus motivated to do their best to reach their goals. Additionally, learners become ready to share their thinking by providing feedback to their peers and groups.

To ensure efficacy, a PBL teacher should “facilitate and manage the process of learning” (Markham et al., 2003, p. 8). In other terms, teachers must design tasks or activities that promote critical thinking and help students to solve problems and find solutions, especially while they are facing complex situations. In such context, teachers should possess outstanding skills and both “interpersonal and communication skills” (Markham et al., 2003, p. 9) in addition to the capacity to supervise the open-ended learning process.

3. Methodology

3.1. Method
To explore the issue of the PBL integration within the third-year secondary school English classes in Algeria, the present study has relied on two research tools: observation during a teaching period of six years and a questionnaire directed to some teachers from different secondary schools in Mostaganem city.

3.2. Observation
The exploitation of the researcher’s observations in classrooms, especially during the presentations of the projects, has been of a great benefit to the confirmation of the stated research hypothesis of the present work.

3.3. Questionnaire
Twenty third-year secondary school teachers from different schools in Mostaganem city received a questionnaire. The latter contained ten closed-ended and open-ended investigative questions. The analysis of the present issue focused on the most relevant answers some of which the present article discusses in details. It is worth pointing out that the questionnaire answers have helped to confirm the findings of the six-year observation period.

4. Findings, Discussion and Analysis
To validate the hypothesis of the present study, a questionnaire was given to twenty secondary-school English teachers from rural and urban areas of Mostaganem. The participants’ teaching experience ranged from one to more than twenty years, as detailed in Figure 1. The questionnaire comprises two parts. The first part investigates the teachers’ familiarity with PBL, and the second one examines their knowledge on the teaching approaches related to PBL.
participants were required to answer the questions by writing full sentences and ticking the right box(es) when/where necessary. The central aim of the questionnaire is to investigate the teachers’ knowledge on PBL and to find whether they are applying it in their classes or not.

Figure 1. Teachers’ number and years of experience

A. Teachers’ Familiarity with Teaching Approaches

Table 1 reveals that the majority (60%) of the teachers questioned are familiar with the CBA; however, 40% of them confirm that they are most familiar with the CA, OBA and CBA. Referring to the statistics above, it is noticeable that the teachers’ familiarity with the CBA records one of the highest rates; a deep analysis of the questionnaire shows that such rate concerns only teachers who have less than seven years of experience. It appears that this category of teachers is more familiar with the founding principles of the CBA. However, only 40% of the informants are familiar with the other approaches, namely the CA and OBA. It is noticeable that teachers who have more than seven years of experience find difficulties in coping with the CBA in their classes.

Table 1. Teachers’ familiarity with the teaching approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicative Approach (CA)</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objective-based Approach (OBA)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competency-based Approach (CBA)</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Teachers’ Tendencies Regarding the Teaching Approaches

The results in Table 2 confirm the teachers’ reticence about the CBA; however, the majority (70%) show a positive attitude towards the CA and feel more confident while using it in their teaching. Their answers clearly demonstrate the reason behind their choice. Most of them say they are well-trained on it. To justify their choice, they confirm that it is less complex and students perform better. Conversely, the ones who opted for the CBA claim that within the CBA teachers have less work and students are more active, creative and autonomous. According to them, the CA embraces an overuse of unrealistic facts.

Table 2. Teachers’ choice of the teaching approaches

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>CA</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CBA</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
C. Assigning Project Work to Learners

Table 3 reveals that 60% of the informants answered negatively. They say that they do not assign projects to students because of the lack of time and the lengthy English programme they have to cover before the end of the year for fear that students will have some difficulties in answering all the Baccalaureate exam questions. In addition, students are so swamped with the contents of the other subjects that they lack time for the preparation of the assigned projects. However, less than a half (40%) of the questioned teachers assume that they assign few of the projects the textbook proposes to students.

Table 3. Respondents’ application of project work

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. Teachers’ Acquaintance with the Term Project-Based Learning

As illustrated in Table 4, 55% of the informants do not have any idea about what the Project-based Learning approach means. They declare that they do not have a clear idea about it. However, 45% of them say they do, and some of them define it as a way of learning through projects, and the others describe it as a teaching method in which students are assigned projects to help them gain knowledge and develop skills both autonomously and collaboratively. According to the findings, most of the informants are not familiar with the Project-based Learning approach because they have never received any training on it. The statistics in the next table confirm that claim.

Table 4. Respondents’ familiarity with the term PBL

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>09</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>55%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

E. The availability of Workshops on PBL and their Impact on Teachers’ Classroom Practice

An analysis of the respondents’ answers, as illustrated in Table 5, reveals that the majority of them (70%) have never had an opportunity to attend training sessions on PBL. According to such results, it becomes apparent that lack of training on PBL is one of the major obstacles that hinder the implementation of this approach in classrooms. Due to that training deficiency, teachers do not have enough knowledge of such kind of approaches nor do they know how to implement them in their classrooms. Nevertheless, those who have already attended training sessions on PBL attest that they have become more knowledgeable about the importance of project pedagogy in teaching and learning.

Table 5. The respondents’ attendance rate in the PBL training sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>06</td>
<td>30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
F. PBL Obstacles

As demonstrated in Figure 2, the majority (90%) affirms that they encounter many difficulties in applying PBL in their classrooms. The analysis of the details of the respondents’ answers within this item identifies the textbook inadequacy and the classroom over-crowdedness as the main obstacles to the implementation of PBL (Figure 2). As for the textbook, they claim that it contains units, not projects, and it is over-filled with tasks. Over-crowdedness is another major problem raised by many respondents. They explained that in a class of more than twenty-five students, a teacher finds many difficulties in controlling/managing the class, and if s/he does, s/he will face another issue: a shortage of time. The other obstacles mentioned by the rest of the participants are as follows:

- Deficiency of teacher training workshops on PBL,
- Lack of teaching and learning materials: computers, video projectors, posters, photocopying machines and so on,
- The program structure: content-based and lengthy,
- Unsuitable timing: 3 hours a week for scientific streams,
- Lack of motivation among students with language difficulties.

The analysis of the participants’ answers shows that only two of the informants (10%), respectively of twenty-four and twenty-six years of experience, do not find difficulties in applying the PBL approach. They claimed that through years they learnt how to control their students’ behaviour appropriately. This evidence implicates that experience plays a significant role in applying the PBL approach, especially in large classes.

G. Teachers’ Familiarity with Cooperative Learning Methods

The statistics in Table 7 reveal that most of the informants (60%) are not familiar with the Cooperative Learning methods. However, those (40%) who know what it means, define it as a learning process that does not go in a one-way direction as it used to be with the traditional methods. Instead, they say that it goes in a two-way process: from teacher to learner and from learner to teacher. Although cooperative learning is well defined theoretically, its strategies are not used in large classes because of the noise they may engender.
Table 7. Respondents’ familiarity with Cooperative Learning Methods

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>08</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

H. Teachers’ Knowledge on the Experiential Learning Approach

With respect to Table 8, only 5% of the informants do know what Experiential Learning means, but the majority (95%) have no idea about it. The findings affirm that 95 % of informants, who do not have any information on experiential learning, are in need of professional training. One of the teachers, who is familiar with this term, says that the learner is expected to apply what s/he has learnt in class to solve real-life problems in and outside of school. In this particular case, project work is advisable.

Table 8. Respondents’ knowledge on the Experiential Learning Approach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>01</td>
<td>05%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>95%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I. Teachers’ Familiarity with Learner-Centered Teaching

Table 9 demonstrates that 85% of respondents have an idea about what the Learner-centered Teaching approach is. They define it as a teaching approach that puts the focus activity on students rather than on the teacher. They also add that within such an approach students become more responsible for their learning, thus reducing the teacher’s over-presence in class and decreasing theirs. Some of them also explain that when they design the classroom activities in such a way to fit learners’ levels, learning styles and interests, they will encourage learners to be very active and cooperative. However, the rest of the informants (15%) have no or an unclear idea about it.

Table 09. Respondents’ familiarity with learner-centered teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>85%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>03</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

J. The Frequency of Group Work Use in Class

Table 10 indicates that all the informants (100%) rarely encourage their students to work in groups. Even though the third-year English textbook accompanying document stipulates that group work allows students to support and help one another (MNE, 2011), the statistics reveal that teachers do not give priority to group work. They claim that they avoid asking their students to work collaboratively because of the classroom settings (space deficiency and the large number of tables/chairs) and the noise such strategy engenders, especially in overcrowded classes.

Table 10. The frequency of group work use in class

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teachers’ answers</th>
<th>Number of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Often</td>
<td>00</td>
<td>00%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rarely</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Conclusion

It is worth to say that the present study is exploratory and illuminative. It is limited to the analysis of the third-year secondary school curriculum and textbook. To limit the scope of the research, the investigation involved only five secondary schools in Mostaganem. Hence the results reported can, therefore, be regarded as being a modest tentative and could not be a generalization. The results discussed in this paper reveal that the way the curriculum and textbook under scrutiny integrate the principle of PBL and thus placing learners at the core of the learning process. Nevertheless, although the two documents are project-based, apparent obstacles hinder their application: the absence of detailed guidelines about the fulfillment of the different kinds of projects in the classroom, and the absence of teachers’ training on PBL. Other obstacles like the program length, the crowded classes and the requirements imposed by the baccalaureate exam also hinder the use of PBL in classrooms.

The research results show that the curriculum designers’ choice of integrating the project work as a tool of reinvestment and a culminating final product rather than as a central instructional pedagogy is a sound decision. This change would probably help both teachers and learners to shift gradually from the previously adopted teacher-centered learning theory to a learner-centered one. The latter finds its roots in the CBA, an approach that the Algerian MNE has recently adopted within its educational system. In fact, the shift from teacher-centeredness to learner-centeredness and from an unrealistic teaching theory to a real-life project-based theory has not been an easy task, especially in an educational system where spoon-feeding has been, for many years, a common teaching ‘myth’. Thanks to that reform, PBL has been given prominence by the textbooks designers. Actually, at the end of each teaching unit, learners are asked to carry out a project in which they should reinvest what they have already learnt in the file/unit.

The PBL implementation in secondary school education is a real challenge today due to the obstacles examined in this research and which the present article has tried to illuminate. However, due to the limited corpus of the study and its restriction to the third-year secondary school students of some high schools in Mostaganem, further future research on PBL implementation in other schools, levels and cycles can hopefully support and confirm the findings of this research. Besides, more advanced observational research methods like interviews with teachers, pupils, inspectors and school headmasters can add more reliability to the present results. If teacher mentors regularly conduct such kind surveys to identify the hindrances teachers are facing in the field, they will be able to intervene accordingly to remedy those weaknesses through regular in-service training workshops, seminars and study days. As for the length of the third-year programme, the MNE has recently advised teachers to start using the planning learning instead of the yearly planning. The former gives teachers some leeway to personalize their teaching and thus to finish the programme before students set for the baccalaureate exam.

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ORCID: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-3556-8582

References
The Value Students and Instructors Place on Multimodal Composition within Academic Life

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University of Findlay, Ohio, USA

Abstract
This mixed methods research-based study was conducted to investigate the advantages and possible disadvantages of using multimodal compositions (MMCs) in the English as a Second Language (ESL) writing classroom. The conveniently selected participants were thirteen ESL learners and a native speaker of English instructor. Two data collection instruments were employed to gather the primary data for this research study. The first instrument was a student survey to explore the perceptions and beliefs of the students about MMCs. The second measure involved a set of semi-structured interviews with four students and their instructor. The results of the statistical data analysis of the student survey indicated that the majority of the student participants expressed their preference for using MMCs because this writing approach enabled them to more completely and professionally explain their meanings to others. The findings from the analysis of the data gathered from the semi structured interviews demonstrated that the students believed that MMCs made writing easier than writing with words only. However, the perception of the teacher was that some students believe that MMCs add an extra burden to their writing assignments and do not constitute an integral part of an assignment itself. Suggestions and recommendations for the more effective use of MMCs in ESL writing classrooms in the USA context, based on this research study, are provided at the end of this study.

Keywords: Multimodal composition (MMC), English as a Second Language (ESL) context, mixed methods, TESOL

Cite as: Alghamdi, M., & Reed, M. C. 2019). The Value Students and Instructors Place on Multimodal Composition within Academic Life. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 283-297. DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.24
1.0 Background:
In the past two decades twenty years, a confluence of events has generated the need for ESL instructors to follow pedagogically advantageous methods in their teaching, employing a wide variety of materials like textbooks, diagrams, photographs and drawings to facilitate students’ understanding and their Second Language Acquisition (SLA) (Simpson & Bogan, 2015). This area of English as a Second Language (ESL) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teaching has been addressed extensively over the past two decades. Ajayi (2012) states that: “English teachers have grappled with how to integrate different learning modalities into classrooms” (p. 16). This was evidently stated in Gardner (2000) book reflecting on the groundbreaking theory of multiple intelligence, where he stated that: “students possess different kinds of minds and therefore learn, remember, perform, and understand in different way” (p. 11). Gardner (2008) stresses that learners have different perspectives and therefore, they learn, analyze, remember, perform, and understand through different approaches.

Lotherington and Jenson (2011) argue that learners are currently living in a digital universe which involves them in active, dynamic, and multidimensional communication. Thus, writing styles have changed and shifted from the paper to the screen and many students and teachers will have to adopt that. These changes are not only significant, but also far reaching. These changes are certain to be challenging for a huge number of instructors of English composition since they have to be skillful and more experienced in ways that they qualify them to use technology and provide effective models for learners.

Takayoshi and Selfe (2007) declared that digital environments require multiple modalities, such as moving and still images, sounds, music, color, words, and animations, to convey meaning. Additionally, these modes are distributed essentially, but not exclusively, through digital media such as computers, computer networks, CDs, DVDs. Multimodal compositions theoretically include many dimensions like social interaction, computer interaction, physical coordination, visual design, multiple language, musical accompaniment, and animation (Martínez-Álvarez, Cuevas, & Torres-Guzmán, 2017; Martínez-Álvarez & Ghiso, 2014).

In the ESL context, learners often encounter a number of difficulties while learning the four language skills (Alrabai, 2018; Elyas & Picard, 2018; Kabouha, 2014). Amongst the most difficult tasks for ESL learners is mastering rhetorical writing (Rajab, Khan, & Elyas, 2016; Shukri, 2014). Thus, it is suggested that learning MMC techniques would be a powerful resource tool that may support second language writers to express their ideas and opinions. These types of compositions also help writers to more effortlessly share their culture and beliefs with the wider audiences.

Sullivan (2001) notes that writers have the opportunity with computer technology to have more power over the page than they have ever had before. Zheng and Warschauer (2017) states that: “The emergence of digital technologies has significantly transformed the forms, genres, and purposes of writing both inside and outside the classroom” (p. 61). Consequently, the use of multimodality is a useful approach in composition classes. It shifts the nature of literacies and writings from the perception of learning to a more interactive and engagement environment. Learning how to complete multimodal tasks plays a vital role in keeping up with the revolution in
technology. Thus, investigating the impact of applying MMCs in an ESL writing classrooms may provide practical solutions and recommendations to ESL instructors to improve their instruction of English composition.

2.0 Review of the Literature:
Teaching composition has gone through many progressions and stages. It started from focusing on the final product and imitating forms of correct language and moved to the perception of literacies as multiple and engaged in social context.

2.1 Historical Look at L2 Writing:

2.1.1 The Product Writing Approach
In the product writing approach, as Nunan (1989) states: “writing focuses on the end result of the act of composition, i.e. the letter, essay, story and so on. The writing teacher who subscribes to the product approach will be concerned to see that the end product is readable, grammatically correct and obeys discourse conventions relating to main points, supporting details and so on” (p.36). He notes that in the product approach, students are engaged in meaningful classroom activities that emphasize imitating, copying and transforming models of correct language. Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) underscored that in this traditional approach, which is the product approach, learners are required to read novels, short stories, plays, essays, and poetry and then, they are asked to analyze these works in written compositions or themes. Ferris and Hedgcock (2005) also reported that the teaching practices emphasized the understanding and interpretation of acknowledged literary texts.

2.1.2 Focus on Form Approach
Focus on form is an essential construct in task-based language teaching and this approach was first presented by Michael Long to refer to a method where learners increase their attention to linguistic forms as they become involved in the composing of texts (Ellis, 2017; Long, 2018). Silva (1990) highlighted that the focus on language structures was born from the marriage of structural linguistic and the behaviorist learning theory of second language teaching that dominated in the 1960s. Furthermore, Valeo and Spada (2016) noted that in the era of the Focus on form, the audiolingual method was the central mode of instruction and writing was looked upon as having a secondary role. The role of the writing was to reemphasize oral patterns of the language and writing took the form of sentences exercises like fill-ins, replacements, transforming tenses and personal pronouns, and completions (Steeves, 1969).

In second language writing research, it indicates that the focus on form should include textual features such as the number of passives or the number of pronouns (Raimes, 1991). Ebsworth (2014) adds that these textual structures should be counted and compared them for users of different languages or cultures. F. Hyland (2003) argued that some L2 writing instructors now see writing as an alternative skill, but it is unhelpful to see writing as not connected to other language skills. She suggested that students need an understanding of how words, sentences, and larger discourse forms can construct and build the meanings that they want to produce.
2.1.3 Focus on the Writer Approach

The third writing approach takes the writer, rather than the form, as the starting point. Many L2 writing teachers from liberal arts backgrounds see their classroom purposes as boosting L2 students’ expressive skills, inspiring them to find their own voices to form writing that is fresh and spontaneous (Elbow, 1998; Murray, 1984). K. Hyland (2003) mentioned that, in terms of focusing on the writer abilities, these writing classrooms revolve around students’ personal experiences and ideas, and writing is considered a creative act of self-discovery. This approach can assist to create self-awareness of the writer’s social position and literate possibilities as well as encourage clear thinking, effective relating, and satisfying self-expression (Friere, 1974; Moffett, 1982).

In addition, K. Hyland (2003) clarified that in the focus on the writer approach, the teachers’ role is to provide students with the space to make their own meanings within a positive and cooperative atmosphere.

2.1.4 Focus on the Writing Process Approach

Raimes (1983) reported that the focus on the composer as language learner and creator of writing led to a process approach. According to Williams (2003): “The process approach emphasizes revision, and also feedback from others, so students may produce many drafts with much crossing out of sentences and moving around of paragraphs. The correction of spelling and punctuation is not of central importance at the early stages” (p. 19). He further adds that: “An important element of the process approach is the meaningfulness it brings to learners, who make a personal connection to the topic and come to understand the processes they follow when writing about it. This starts with prewriting and brainstorming to generate ideas and activate the schemata, which is the background experience or world knowledge a person possesses that allows a writer to relate personal experiences to the topic and discover everything he or she has to say” (p.19).

Hyland (2003) indicated that the process approach to teaching writing highlights the writer as an independent producer of texts, but it goes farther to cover the concern of what instructors should do to support learners as they perform a writing task. The numerous characterizations of this approach are consistent in recognizing basic cognitive processes as essential to writing exercises and in stressing the need to develop students’ skills to plan, define a rhetorical issue, and propose and assess solutions (Alonso, López, Manrique, & Viñes, 2005).

2.1.5 Focus on Content Approach

Focus on Content (FoC) is another method of conceptualizing L2 writing instruction is in reference to content, that is, what students are demanded to write about. An emphasis is on the content method where it focuses on a collection of themes or topics of a course that establish a coherence and goal of the course that students will discuss (Spada, 2016). Wilkinson (2018) described that with the focus on the content approach came another academically oriented types, English for Academic Purposes (EAP) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP). This is to stress that the focus is mainly on the purpose of the course content (Ferris, 2018). Some researchers argue that that the studies that discuss the content-based approach involve analysis of the rhetorical organization of technical writing (Zare-ee, 2011). Also, the studies include researches of students writing in
content fields, and surveys of the content and tasks second language learners can expect to face in their academic life (Wright, 2010). Other research studies conclude that topics and themes are often evolved around social and environmental problems such as pollution, relationships, stress, juvenile crime, smoking, etc (Barrot, 2015). As such, L2 learners may be disadvantaged in such classrooms if they do not have a strong knowledge about either the themes or the types of texts they require to write about.

2.1.6 Focus on Readers and Discourse Communities, Social Constructionism and Socioliterate Approaches

Similar to the content-based approach, reader and discourse approaches for writing instruction have developed partly in preference to the focus on the writer approach and the process-oriented approach (Grabe & Zhang, 2018). Hedgcock and Ferris (2013) stated that content, reader, and discourse approaches overlap significantly in terms of techniques and purposes, but they may seem different subjectively and fundamentally. For example, reader- and discourse-based composition instruction is influenced by the social concept that novice writer’s essential to be apprenticed into multiple discourse communities like academic disciplines, profession, and social systems beyond the classroom (Ferris & Hedgcock, 2005; Grabe & Zhang, 2018). Gee (2012) emphasized that literacies involve not only text forms but also the composers who create literate practices such as writing. Literacies include the social practices of individuals and groups in the contexts as these contents express meaning and purpose, and where these texts enjoy situation.

This view of literacies as multiple and engaged in social activity is consistent with Johns’s perception which is a socioliterate perspective. In 1997, he stated that literacies are developed mostly through exposure to discourses form a variety of social frameworks. Halliday (1978) highlighted the complicated relationship between language (form) and text, and how language and text operate in social contexts. He proposed that there are three central factors shape the forms of language, beginning with words and sentences to conversations and texts. These three main features are field (the social practice setting), tenor (the relationships among contributors), and mode (the communication channel). Furthermore, the emphasis on the relationship between the social and ideological contexts for writing has also been influenced by the North American tradition, which is recognized as the research of the New Rhetoric (NR). The NR research highlights that the purpose of argumentative essays is to provide a clear understanding to whom is addressed and to influence the audience (Perelman & Olbrechts-Tyteca, 1969).

Motivated by NR and related methodological models, Hyland (2007) pointed out that the need toward situating genres, writing processes, writers, and readers with respect to their sociocultural backgrounds has positively influenced L1 and L2 writing pedagogy. He also stated that in the socioliterate method students in the writing class are regularly engaged in research into texts, roles, and contexts. Students also are involved into the strategies that they must utilize in finalizing literacy activities within particular situations. Ferris and Hedgcock highlighted that socioliterate approach applicably focuses on examining, exercising, and reproducing the implicit and explicit structures of texts organized to present to specific audiences.

The capability to use and form contents from different genres is important to develop literacies, which are constantly enclosed in sociocultural contexts and promote by involving in
dynamic verbal activities (Gee, 2012). Cope, Kalantzis, and Kress (2014) added that the verbal activities include reading and speaking beside multimodal features that we employ from two or more modes to create a message. Harste (2009) stressed that all language practices are multimodal in some sense.

2.2 Definition of Multimodal Compositions
Kress (2003) stated that MMCs are written texts that involve processes that apply more than just words and letters to help people to communicate their thoughts (Takayoshi & Selfe, 2007; Walker, 2017). They may utilize audios, visuals, videos, graphics, drawings or any visual elements to enhance the meaning of the message or the text. When viewing, analyzing, and creating multimodal assignments in the writing classroom, instructors and learners are immersing themselves in MMC (Gee, 2012). Selfe and Selfe (2008) added that creating podcasts, collages, video, blogs, audio essays, comic strips, and digital storytelling all fall under the types of MMC tasks. Smith (2017) suggested that MMCs often involve a huge number of visuals, sounds, movement, and written text to build synergistic messages. MMCs theoretically include many dimensions like social interaction, computer interaction, physical coordination, visual design, multiple language, musical accompaniment, and animation (Dallacqua, 2018). Lotherington, Fisher, Jenson, and Lindo (2016) also pointed out that these dimensions have reshaped how learners and instructors understand, instruct, and assess language and literacy in the classroom.

In second language teaching, Valdés (2004) highlighted that teachers have the tendency to formulate language in their teaching as an abstract linguistic system isolated from a broader socially assembled multimodal perspective. Indeed, instructors in foreign language education have been hesitant to recognize and employ these new dimensions in their classroom. This principle is echoed in Kress (2003) who states that: “we have moved from telling the world to showing the world” (p.140). Moreover, he emphasized that it is impossible to think about literacy in isolation from an infinite collection of social, technological, and economic factors (Kress, 2009).

2.3 Types of MMCs
MMCs can be classified by two major headings: technological projects and non-technological projects (Karchmer-Klein & Shinas, 2012). Technological MMCs include: digital storytelling, and videos. Digital storytelling is a stream of information that involves many different modes like video, music, visuals, written texts, narration, and varieties of sounds (Smeda, Dakich, & Sharda, 2014). On the other hand, videos have also had their impact on MMCs. For a long time, composing video has been seen as an impossible mission in schools specifically in the literacy classroom since it requires training, access to equipment, and cost (Stafford, 1995). Because of these drawbacks, Goodman (2003) pointed out that many researches discovering that students who have motivation to compose a video tend to construct the task out of school setting.

Non-technological MMCs projects include: diorama/poster projects. These projects are basically seeing something from a different angle and in modern times, it refers to three dimensional sights. A diorama provides learners with a good environment to be creative and employ objects from their surrounding like homes or classroom’s aids to construct different diorama models. Below is one example of a diorama that integrates colors, drawing, and written texts (Quinn & History, 2006).
2.4 Advantages and Disadvantages of MMCs
Several researchers believe that there are three main advantages to MMCs and there are: 1) engagement and forming identity (Alvermann, 2008; Kress, 2003), 2) students as designers and innovators (Shin & Cimasko, 2008) and 3) acquiring higher-order thinking skills and scaffolding (Bourne & Jewitt, 2003). On the other hand, some researchers argue that adopting MMCs approach can have two distinct disadvantages. These two disadvantages are: the various technical issues that could occur as well as being time consuming (Beard & Jeannie, 2012). The other disadvantage is related to the curriculum planning and faculty training where MMCs present a challenging situation for the presently followed strategies in teaching literacy in the major of education institutions around the world (Jewitt, 2008; Knobel & Lankshear, 2007).

Notwithstanding these advantages and disadvantages, it is evident that research studies, old and new, stress a lot of potential for the implementation of MMCs in the educational classrooms in general and the L2 classrooms in particular.

3.0 Methodology
The main purpose of this research study was to explore the advantages and possible disadvantages of applying MMCs in the writing classrooms from both, the students and the teachers’ perceptions and beliefs. As such, a mixed methods approach was utilized since the researcher strongly believes in the gaining of knowledge from both objective as well as subjective inquiries. Whitehead and Schneider (2007) state that: “Mixed-methods research offers a way of making research more meaningful, complete and purposeful than is the case when using either a singular qualitative or quantitative approach and provides the researcher with other valuable tools to add to their research resources” (p. 264).

3.1 Participants
Due to the nature of this research study, the participants were conveniently selected and were thirteen ESL learners studying in an intensive English program (IEP) with their native speaker of English instructor. All of the students participated in the questionnaire phase and only four of them with their teacher engaged in the semi-structured interview phase. The entire participants were at a major university in a small private university in northwestern Ohio, USA.

3.2 Survey Instruments
This research study utilized two instruments to collect the primary data. A twenty-three item students’ questionnaire was custom designed and given to the students for the first phase. Then, the researcher conducted an interview for four students and one instructor for the second phase. Each interview lasted between 15-25 minutes for the students. On the other hand, the interview with the teacher lasted for 30 minutes.

3.2.1 The Students’ Questionnaire
The students’ questionnaire consisted of 23 items and it was purposefully divided into three sections: 1) demographic questions; 2) close-ended questions; 3) open-ended questions. The close-ended and open-ended questions were related to the MMCs. However, the first section had five questions and those questions examined the participants’ background information such as gender,
The second part of the questionnaire contained 16 questions and they were close-ended questions. Questions (6–8) asked about the first time that students started to use a computer and their ability to use computers and technology. Questions (9-11) evaluated the students’ perspective regarding using MMCs. Questions (12-18) examined participants’ feeling towards MMCs and how employing MMCs in their works was helpful and convenient. Questions (19-21) were asked to address the creativity, the skills used, and the time required for creating a MMC project.

The last section of the survey contained two open-ended questions #22 and #23. They were intentionally included on the questionnaire to give the participants more freedom to share their ideas and opinions regarding using MMCs in their writing class. For example, question #23, asked participants about which form of the MMC they prefer and why.

3.2.2 Semi Structured Interviews
The students were asked six open-ended questions relating to the students’ perspective about MMCs and its usage and their teacher was asked five open ended questions relating to her theoretical perspective on using MMCs in writing class, her opinion if MMCs motivate students to write and why, her views of the advantages that students acquire from learning MMCs, her thoughts of the disadvantages of teaching MMCs, and finally which form of MMC projects does she prefer to teach and why. All interviews were audio recorded and transcribed verbatim. Once the interviews were transcribed verbatim, thematic analysis was conducted to identify emerging themes.

4.0 Data Analyses
4.1 Survey Data Analyses
This study was undertaken to test two hypotheses set by the researcher. The first hypothesis suggested that there would be a correlation between students’ evaluation of themselves as students (Question #4 and question #10), which stated that students enjoy using MMCs in their writing. The second hypothesis suggested that there would be a negative correlation between question #7, which asked the students to rate their abilities with computers and technology, and question #21, which asked the students to rate their time needed to finish a multimodal project. Furthermore, the two open-ended questions, Q#22: If you have done a multimodal composition did you enjoy it, and why? And if you have not done a multimodal composition do you think you would enjoy it and why?” and Q#23: Which form of a multimodal composition do you like or do you think you would like most, and why?”

4.1.1 Coefficient of Determination (Correlation) – First Hypothesis
The calculated value of the coefficient of determination (r-value) for the first hypothesis was 0.322 (p-value was 0.262). This value indicated a strong correlation between the two questions (Q#4 and Q#10) which indicated that students value the use of MMCs and believe it to be an advantage in their writing assignments.
4.1.2 Coefficient of Determination (Correlation) – Second Hypothesis

The calculated value of the coefficient of determination (r-value) for the second hypothesis was 0.128 (p-value was 0.492). This r-value was not high enough to confirm a good connection between the answers to these two questions. In addition, the p-value of .492 which is too high. As a result, this hypothesis was not justified because the r-value is below the standard .3 level and the p-value is too high. As a consequence, it can be seen that there is not a link between the student’s ability to use computers and technology and how much time they spend to start an MMC project. This might be good news for teachers of MMCs because, based on this finding, teachers do not have to be concerned with whether or not their students have high computer and technology skills as a pre-condition for promoting this type of writing.

4.1.3 Open-Ended Question #22

Students’ responses to this question were slightly similar. Even though the majority had similar responses, there were some comments that were different and interesting. One of the students stated, “I enjoyed a lot when I used PowerPoint because it helped me a lot to explain my idea.” Another student added, “I love and I enjoy it. It makes it easy for me to express my feelings.” Also, one of participants answered, “Yes, I will feel the sense of achievement.” Those three comments or quotations have similarity in the sense of touching the students’ feelings and how using MMCs assists them to practice that. However, one participant mentioned, “I have done the multimodal composition and it was easy to make presentation because I do not have to write a lot.” Another student answered, “Yes, I have. That is interesting because it requires us to be more creative, which is the most important for future career opportunities.”

Students believed that using MMCs in their writing assignments or projects would provide them with the opportunity to be more creative and gain useful skills in order to be more professional in the career’s environment.

4.1.4 Open-Ended Question #24

The majority of the students responded that PowerPoint was their favourite MMC form since they perceive it to helps them to comfortably demonstrate a presentation and it is easy to get used to it. One student commented, “I like PowerPoint best because PowerPoint is the most sophisticated and flexible.” A second student added, “PowerPoint, because you can easily add videos, sounds, and pictures. Easy to use.” Also, another student proposed, “the most common is a PowerPoint. Because that is easy to get used to it. Secondly, it is already installed and automatically, therefore, we do not have to pay extra for it.”

Those responses emphasized the notion that PowerPoint is the most common tool that is being used within MMC projects. They mentioned that PowerPoint is easy to use and more flexible. They also declared that PowerPoint is affordable and free with no cost and is already installed in their computer software. This stresses students’ concern about the availability of a resource and whether it requires a payment from users to install it or, is free.
4.2 Semi-Structured Interviews’ Data Analyses

4.2.1 Students’ Interviews

When the students were asked: “Which do you prefer most to use when you write a paper, writing by hand or using computer? And why?”, the responses were varied, but the majority preferred to use a computer rather than writing by hand because they believe that writing with a computer is easier, faster, and reduced their mechanical mistakes. When they were asked: “How often do you use multimodal composition for school assignments? And why?”, one student responded that he sometimes creates a PowerPoint presentation for class because he thinks that if he includes MMCs in his presentation, it will be easy to create and he does not have to write so many words. Another response underlined that he utilizes MMC a lot because he thinks it helps him to make his points clear to students and make it fun.

Moreover, students were asked “Which form of a multimodal composition do you like or do you think you would like most, and why?”, one student said, “I like a PowerPoint because not only visual aids, but also it makes the presentation more interesting and more convincing.” Another student added:

“I think I like making videos the most because videos are…like films…they are like widely effective because they have everything…so someone is writing a script…someone needs to write anyways, so you have the writing…you have literature in it…then needs someone needs to form it…you have science in it…and then someone needs to edit it, someone needs to act on it, you have arts…so these are like every form together combined and you are getting one thing, so it’s so powerful I think…it definitely something that I would definitely love to do it in my carrier also.”

4.2.2 The Instructor’s Interview

The instructor was given five questions. The first question was “What is your theoretical perspective on using multimodal composition in writing class?” She responded that the MMC is learner-friendly and does not require students to express their ideas in one mode, but it allows several different ways. The second question stated: “Do you think that multimodal composition motivates students to write, and why?” She commented on this question said that the students get motivated to write more by employing MMCs in their project. She stated: “The more they invest in it in a creative way, the more engage will be”. Furthermore, the third question was “From your experience in teaching rhetorical writing specifically multimodal composition what are the benefits that students acquire while they are composing multimodal texts?” She replied that a MMC is like brain storming and it encourage students to collect and apply different modes of presenting information. Also, she added that it allows students to come up with new ideas and promote creativity. The fifth question was “Do you think are there any disadvantages of teaching multimodal compositions?” She answered,

“I think sometimes students may perceive it as additional work…that has more work, but really if the teacher structures it well. It’s kind of taking a place of some of the written aspects of the process of writing, so it might be just exchanged…you know…so not everything is done in pencil and paper, but through different mode…so…, but also some
students…may be older students don’t know how to use technology and that might intimidate them.”

This quotation emphasized that the writing instructor has to be aware of the student’s perspective regarding the concept of the MMCs. Also, the teacher has to be familiar with technology and computers and provide students with a good resources and explanation about the usage of MMCs. The last question was “Which form of multimodal composition do you prefer to teach, and can you please explain why?” She responded that she likes to instruct the digital storytelling and the narrative because using a multimodal approach to create a narrative is more interesting and the audience also will be able to see pictures and images that relate to that story. Finally, the instructor suggested that the more comfortable a teacher is with technology, the better it is.

5.0 Discussion and Conclusions
Following the data analysis of the collected primary data from the questionnaire and the semi structured interviews, it can be seen that applying MMCs in ESL writing classroom would be an amazing tool to create more interactive and engagement environment. By employing MMCs, students will be able to draw on their knowledge, experiences, and their home background to share new stories and become more deeply engaged in the school setting. We now are live in a globalized interconnected society and immersing in technology becomes a necessity for both learners and educators. Therefore, utilizing MMCs in ESL writing classroom would be extremely valuable to L2 learners to share their values and promotes diversity. Students can make good relations with people of different thoughts and from different places. Thus, when students engage in these processes, their mind habits will develop over time. They will become creative, risk taker, persistent, and mindfully. These skills are not only very important in the academic setting, but they are beneficial in the carrier field. Even though there are many positive results of using MMCs in ESL writing courses, there are some disadvantages, or we can say barriers of applying MMCs. One of these barriers relates to technology problems. One of the participants stated that he did not know how to insert a picture or video and how to change the background of the presented piece. Therefore, instructor has to facilitate an interactive and supportive learning environment in order to encourage students to achieve their goals create a meaningful work.

Finally, one last comment which considers to be a disadvantage of employing MMCs in ESL composition class, was stressed by the instructor. She stated that students perceived MMC as an additional work rather than it is part of it. Thus, the instructor must bear in mind that not all students have a clear understanding of the reason of applying MMCs in their writing assignments. Therefore, the teacher has to provide students with helpful resources and explanation regarding the usage and the benefits of utilizing MMCs.

5.1 Limitations
The students who participated in this study have not had a lot of experience on exercising with implementing different types of MMCs in their writing assignments. The study would have worked much more positively if the students had had enough experience regarding the usage of MMCs. The potential limitation was that students’ responses of the questionnaire and the interview’s questions were based on their perception not based on their usage. Thus, this could affect their answers because they have not completed MMC projects during the current semester.
5.2 Recommendation for Further Research

There has not been much formal study constructed about the advantages and the possible disadvantages of employing MMCs in ESL writing classroom. Since researchers and educators are currently focusing on how to apply multimodal compositional skills in the writing classroom, there is a need of conducting studies on the students’ perspectives regarding the usages of MMCs in their writing assignments. Further research could focus on the potential difficulties that learners encounter while they are composing a MMC project. Also, investigation on what are some new ideas of MM applications that instructor can bring to the ESL composition classroom.

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References


Teaching Arabic as a Second Language (TASL): Simulation of the Canadian/ American exemplary TESL Models. A Feasibility Study in Promoting a Saudi-Owned TASL Programme

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Abstract
Given that teaching Arabic, as a second language has become increasingly significant in the present context, it follows that there is an urgent and pressing need to develop efficient learning tools as well as adequate measuring tools for testing the learner’s development. There are numerous problems associated with measuring a learner’s proficiency in Arabic in the context of Western cultures. These problems are related to the non-adaptability of measuring tools from one setting into another without taking cultural factors into account. The difficulties faced by scholars in adapting Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) tools to the Saudi context is an example. However, the problems associated with such an adaptation indicate the need for context-specific language acquisition measuring tools. Either currently existing tools such as TESOL need to be radically altered to fit Saudi contexts and requirements, or entirely new tools must be created in order to test the efficacy of language learning in Saudi Arabia. This study aims at a close examination of ways in which existing tests such as TESOL may be adapted or modified to suit the requirements of teachers and learners in the Saudi context. A survey and evaluation of existing tools was followed by developing new tools specifically for Arabic language. It concludes by giving recommendations for proposed modification of existing strategies for Arabic learners that associates the language more directly with functional workplace contexts.

Keywords: Arabic language learning, second language learning, standardised testing, teaching Arabic as a second language (TASL)

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.25
Background
Canada and the USA have been successful in creating a programme to teach English at their countries as well as testing the proficiency of the learners. These programmes became internationally recognized and accepted as a means of measuring the proficiency of English learners.

Multilingual assessments were justified by Gorter and Cenoz (2017) on the basis of a paradigm shift from single language in education to use of languages suitable for daily practices. In modern classrooms, students who speak different languages study in English as a common language. Nevertheless, they communicate with one another in their other languages. This calls for more holistic approaches to language education. However, such holistic approaches and their application in the assessment are rare. The authors provide some innovative examples of development and assessment of multilingual competencies and cross-lingual skills.

However, there are debates on the problems related to the cultural influence of Western countries in teaching English to non-western learners, whose native language is different from English. An interesting case study was presented by Barnawi and Le Ha (2015) on two Saudi teachers who underwent Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) programmes and returned to Saudi Arabia. They tried to adapt the knowledge gained from TESOL to Saudi contexts. They used the training to increase the effectiveness of their teaching in Saudi Arabia, particularly in terms of giving learners a strong sense of agency and autonomy. The authors question the enlightening role of TESOL training. In effect, this means, TESOL needs to be modified for application in non-English-speaking countries. It may also indicate that Teaching Arabic as a Second Language (TASL) strategies need to be revamped to fit the requirements of contemporary teachers and learners.

Objectives of the Study
The study has emerged from the need to develop proficient assessment tools to gauge the efficiency of learners of Arabic. In this task, the objectives may be categorized as short-term and long term:
1. Short-term objectives are to investigate the current scenario in Arabic Language Teaching and to assess the efficacy of current teaching-learning methods as well as means of assessment.
2. Long-term objectives are to adapt and implement efficacious methods of teaching Arabic as a second language as well as assessment tools, modifying existing methods to improve them and developing new ones as required.

Research Questions
The study covers two key areas of research, the first being a survey and analysis of existing tools and the second being the criteria for designing and implementation of an efficient assessment model to test the proficiency of a speaker of Arabic as a second language. The research questions may hence be defined accordingly:

1. What are the existing tools for testing the proficiency of a speaker of Arabic as a second language, what are the advantages of these tools that may be carried forward into designing
a newer, more efficient model, and what are the disadvantages that should be made obsolete while designing a new testing system?

2. What, if any, are the desirable characteristics of a new assessment system, and how can it be ensured that the design is successfully implemented?

Literature Review

1. Importance of Language Proficiency Tests

In the current context, it may be observed that there has been a significant increase in the need to develop programmes for Arabic teaching and learning. It can be assumed that Saudi Arabia, with its religious status, rich cultural heritage, and is the homeland of the Arabic language, requires new and progressive ways of teaching Arabic to learners at various levels. Considering the country's vision 2030, which encourages creating more economic opportunities, there may be a greater need for imported human resources, who may need to be trained in the Arabic language skills for their daily life requirements during their long stay in Saudi Arabia. In addition, many people in other countries are interested to learn Arabic for various purposes like job opportunities in Saudi Arabia and other Gulf countries, tourism and trade and business with Gulf countries, making it imperative for pertinent learning tools to be developed. There is also scope for creating a similar programme patterned after the successful TESOL programmes of Canada and the USA to teach Arabic to non-native speakers of Arabic. The case study on two TESOL trained teachers discussed above may be a good example of how the regulations of TESOL may be adapted to the Saudi context.

2. Why TESOL Model?

One of the primary concerns in such a study is that it is difficult to find reliable existing studies that address Arabic teaching and testing programmes. Hence, it is imperative that a newly developed or adapted tool of language testing should be both valid and reliable in order to gain the necessary reputation and marketing for the test. According to Academic Courses (2018), the best TESOL programmes in the USA are offered by AngloLang and Bridge, Liberty Online, Sappo School, Eton Institute and Lumos. AngloLang offers two courses. Teacher Training: Effective Use of Technology in Teaching is meant for teachers to increase their awareness and use of technology in their teaching contexts. It consists of morning sessions of language development and evening sessions on teaching methodologies using technology. There are practical sessions also. The duration of the course is two weeks with an option to choose only one week. The other course, Language and Methodology for Teachers of English is a two-week course aimed at stimulating practical teaching ideas to English teachers. The methodologies taught include vocabulary learning, recording & recycling, learner autonomy, motivating learners to speak, project work in the classroom, the use of drama and role-play and different ways of teaching grammar. Of these motivating learners to speak, project work and drama and role-play may be useful for Teaching Arabic to Speakers of Other Languages (TASOL) programmes in countries, where traditional style is prevalent. Teachers from EU countries can avail Erasmus+ funding. Similar funding mechanisms to poor teachers from other countries may be a good idea for TASOL.
Bridge Educational Group conducts TEFL classes. Bridge is the largest TESOL provider in the USA. The TEFL/TESOL courses, the International Diploma in English Language Teaching (IDELT) and the IDELT Online of the Bridge are recognized for college credit. There are Teaching English as Foreign Language (TEFL) online courses for international teachers to study from their homes at their own pace. The 12-week IDELT online course is meant for teachers looking for flexible options in the academic rigor of traditional TEFL courses. There are also many certification programmes. One of them covers TEFL courses with Bridge partners in fourteen countries.

Liberty University online course, Course Educational Specialist in Educational Leadership, prepares teachers to a higher level of educational specialists. These positions are above teaching careers. The course provides specialized preparation for individuals seeking senior-level positions at K-12 or university-level. It is approved by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) (CAEP, 2015). Other details are given to interested individuals directly on the application. Such programmes in TASOL may be useful for preparing senior level officers to administer the programme.

Sappo School has an International Student English programme. The programme is a holistic approach containing both educational philosophy and practical approaches. International view with the learner-centred approach is used. Cultural relevance and individual experience are important components of the programme. The programme is rooted in the belief that citizens in different parts of the world have more similarities than differences and both long-term and short-term mutual and individual interests are important. The programme enhances and accommodates each student in the acculturative process. Both professional and domestic interests of students are accommodated in the course design. Students are placed in holistic settings to achieve this. The programme meets the New York State Education Department Standards. The durations of part-time and full-time courses are different. The stress on cultural aspect is a factor to consider in TASOL model. One of the essential conditions of language learning is the simultaneous engagement with the cultural contexts in which the language is spoken, and such contexts must be taken into consideration when revamping or creating methodologies for language acquisition.

Eton Institute offers a certification course, TESOL Intensive course. It prepares teachers to deal with multi-cultural and multi-lingual classrooms with confidence. The course is suitable for both new and current teachers. The intensive course has a duration of 120 hours including theory, practical and home study. The online component has a TESOL instructor to help overseas students. Lesson planning and practical teaching skills are taught. The multi-cultural and multi-lingual contexts are applicable in the case of TASOL also. For example, when the instructor and learner have different mother tongues, more attention needs to be paid to pedagogical strategies to ensure that the learner develops proficiency in not only the linguistic aspects of the new language but also the cultural contexts and connotations of words.

Lumos has a programme, TESOL/TEFL – English. It has 80 contact hours with classroom components. There is 100% utilization of the classroom for teaching or learning. It includes 5 hours of classroom observation instead of 1-2 hours in the usual programmes. There is also 10 hours of teaching practice for each individual. Guided coaching in lesson planning is offered.
Lecture classes are in the morning and practicals are in the afternoons 2-3 days per week. Classes are held in a forum style, ensuring that personal teaching philosophy, sharing of ideas and learning from their instructors happen in a communicative and collaborative environment. Teaching and learning theories, methods of teaching grammar and other language skills, lesson planning, classroom management, making the classes learner-centered and effective methods of error correction an assessment are taught. Lumos TESL certificate, a TEFL certificate, and an EPT certificate issued by Brigham Young University are awarded to those who pass with at least the minimum requirements. The programme package contains four weeks TESOL course details, tuition, materials, access to laboratory and recording lab, certificates, TESOL online sources. Minimum admission requirements are based on age and scores of TOEFL, TOEIC or EPT. Course content and style of conducting classes can be adapted to TASOL, which lends itself especially well to learner-centric pedagogical strategies and collaborative learning environments.

Canada has very systematic national TESOL policies and strategies. Institutes offering TESOL programmes are recognized (TESOL Canada, 2014) at three levels of standards, from 1 to 3, in the increasing order of hours of theory and methodology from 100, 250 and master programme and minimum of 20 hours of practicals in all cases. These are at the university levels. For levels of K-12 schools, the respective province has the responsibility. The list of approved programmes of different standard levels is numerous in each province and are separate for certification, bachelor-master and doctoral level programmes. The institutions list the minimum qualification requirements for admission, programme requirements, pre-requisites and required courses to attend. Full time or part time programmes, sometimes with more than one option to join and complete the courses, are given by the institute. However, most descriptions are not as detailed as those of the US institutes discussed above. Some indicative topics, derived from websites of some institutes, are as follows: principles of language teaching and learning; linguistic, cognitive and affective factors; and factors which influence teaching/learning. The last set consists of principles of adult education, learning styles, diversity, curriculum and contexts and historical methodologies. It also pays emphasis to lesson planning consisting of needs analysis, outcomes of writing, selection and adaption of materials, and the need for scaffolding in learning and evaluation. It also looks into language frameworks (Canadian Language Benchmarks, Common European Framework of Reference for Languages), teaching methods, teaching the four skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary, the basics, testing and assessment, classroom management, technology-enhanced language learning, culture and learning and personal approaches to professional development. Such a detailed list of course content needs to be prepared for TASOL, too.

There are some, but not all, elements in each of the above TESOL programmes to include in the proposed TASOL programme. Some scholars have made observations about evaluation standards, some developing their own standards and others adopting well-known ones. Brigham Young University, New York State Education Department Standards, National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE), TESOL Canada standards are some of the commonly adopted standards. When considering TASOL, there are some already existing tests of the Arabic language such as Arabic Language Proficiency Test (ALPT) of Arab Academy and tests of many other agencies. The tests may be direct or online. The ALPT of Arab Academy is a global standard to evaluate the proficiency level in listening comprehension, reading, structure,
writing, and speaking of the Arabic language. The test is in a computer-adaptive format. There are five sections dealing with the five skills with varying durations as required to assess the skill properly, and some are multiple choice, one is open-ended, and one is a test supervised by an Arabic teacher. Online tests are also required to be done in the presence of an Arab Academy approved invigilator. Muslim member countries of Islamic Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ICCI) and Indonesia have recognized ALPT. Additionally, some elements of TESOL may not be applicable to the TASOL model. For example, the contexts in which languages such as English are typically spoken may not always align with those in which Arabic needs to be used.

Hence, it is critically important to create a test that examines the proficiency of a second language learner in any given language. This broader framework must then be examined to understand the ways in which TASOL may be shaped in order to account for the disparate needs of learners at different levels who seek to learn Arabic. Moreover, the economic, as well as pedagogical success of TESOL, makes it an excellent model for simulation in the case of Arabic learning as well as testing.


While there are several noteworthy proficiency tests that already exist, one of the drawbacks is that they are not usually as widely recognized as IELTS or TESOL. The Arabic Language Proficiency Test (ALPT) follows the international model of standardized testing and is designed by the Cairo-based Arabic Academy and endorsed by the Islamic Chamber of Commerce and Industry (ICCI). It covers Listening Comprehension, Reading, Structure, Writing, and Speaking. Standards-Based Measurement of Proficiency (STAMP) and the Arabic Proficiency Test (APT) are also noteworthy. Additionally, institutions such as the University of Central Florida and Eton Institute offer their own proficiency tests focusing on reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills that generate a band-score result similar to the IELTS model. The E-TOAFL and Al-Arabiyyah tests are online proficiency tests that have also seen some success. Given the lack of standardisation in these models, which follow different criteria, TASOL will simulate the case of TESOL because there is almost no other test that has the variability to economically and pedagogically target these objectives. Therefore, although ALPT and other tests have existed for some while and have received some recognition from a number of associations and countries, TASOL will act as a rival to ALPT, just as IELTS is a rival to TESOL.

All these tests including ALPT are more tentative than sufficiently rigorous. In the case of ALPT, structure replaces grammar in tests dealing with English and many other languages. Grammatically correct sentences should have correct structure also. It is not clear whether both terms mean the same. How will it be ensured that an Arab invigilator is present in online tests, as there are possibilities of manipulations? Evaluation of open-ended questions is bound to be subjective. If there are more questions which require descriptive answers, there could be significant subjectivity in assessment. Compared to many other languages, the Arabic language has certain peculiarities, which are culturally significant, as writing from right to left. Therefore, proficiency in the Arabic language is intimately related to the cultural dimension. However, this will not be assessed in the ALPT. If it is also assessed, perhaps, non-Muslims may shy away from learning the language. Theoretically, it may be possible for the newly proposed TASOL to have two dimensions: one for Muslims, in which the cultural dimension is strongly present in the lessons.
and tests and the other for non-Muslims, in which the stress is only on Arabic as a language just as any other language; the proficiency tests will also be different for the two dimensions. However, in practice, it may be virtually impossible to separate the religious connotations from the language. Indeed, it must be considered whether attempting to do so is even viable, given that many learners want to acquire the language for religious reasons.

Referring to the ‘prestigious’ status of Arabic all over the world given its association with religion, Gebril and Taha-Thomure (2014) provide a strong reason for the improvement of existing testing methodologies by observing that the number of Arabic speakers in the USA has increased over seven times between 1998 and 2009. Additionally, they recognize the need to differentiate between the teaching and learning of Arabic as a second language as opposed to a first language. Analysing the assessment of Arabic as a foreign language in countries such as the USA, they point out that in many cases, proficiency in the given language becomes a matter of practical urgency and importance, given that in professions such as the military, proficiency may be the basis on which promotions and pay hikes are based. Further, they also suggest that due to the diglossic nature of the language, there may be a significant difference between linguistic and cultural competencies in knowing the language.

Clark (2010), describing the development of the Arabic Computerised Assessment of Proficiency (CAP), points out that it is a proficiency-oriented test that focuses on the successful performance of tasks that require the use of language. The ‘real world’ contexts of language learning are therefore highlighted, suggesting that online assessments may not be the best way to assess language proficiency: indeed, that they may not be adequate at all in assessing whether the learner is ready to successfully perform ‘real world’ tasks requiring the use of language. Clark’s report primarily indicates the need for technological assessment tools mainly at the preliminary assessment level and suggests that experienced teachers be assigned to assess proficiency levels at more advanced stages.

Ramzi and Al-Hasan (2016) present a case study of how the problem of the lack of standardized assessment tools was addressed at Al-Arqam Islamic School. First, their study suggests that assessing a learner throughout a significant amount of time would be most beneficial: a concern that, of course, cannot be addressed at all through the avenue of standardized online assessments, especially ones with multiple choice questions. A second interesting issue raised by the study is that on occasion, teachers feel threatened by standardized tests since they are often considered a measure of the teacher’s efficiency, even to the extent that they sometimes help students cheat to get better scores on the tests and thereby present a performance that reflects the teacher in a better light than if they were to fail. Again, this practice suggests the inefficacy of objective-type questions, where it is easier to fool the system to obtain better grades.

In sum, the existing research in the area does bring out the lack of efficacious assessment tools to test the proficiency of second language learners of Arabic. However, it also indicates the availability of existing resources that may be adapted or modified to suit the requirements. Additionally, it strongly suggests that both technological tools and the experience and knowledge of educators be taken into account while proposing new models of teaching-learning and
assessment. Finally, some critical issues to be considered while designing testing tools are noted in the next section.

**Methodology**

The primary methodology used to conduct the study has been to examine existing projects as case studies. The examination of different testing methods and assessment tools in disparate contexts has led to an informed understanding of various scenarios in which tools may be developed and implemented.

In addition, this research has also attempted to include an awareness of the different steps to be considered while creating a model of assessment. For instance, the Centre for Teaching and Learning at the University of Washington (Centreforteachingandlearning, 2019) has presented a list of guidelines for constructing assessment tools (2018), which includes the following points to note:

1. It must be noted that the reasons for testing may not always be the same; therefore, it is important to consider what the test results will be used for. E.g., assessing the learner’s proficiency in the language, their suitability for employment, etc.
2. Ensuring that consistency is maintained between the different kinds of learning a student has been provided with and the types of questions asked on the test.
3. Selecting the appropriate testing method (multiple choice, essays etc) for the learning objectives and assessment criteria.
4. Ensuring that students have adequate preparation methods so that the terms and conditions of the test are not biased.
5. Students must be clear about the expected outcomes of the test.
6. Questions must be designed in such a way that the test allows learners from different ranges of knowledge and expertise to demonstrate their proficiency in the language.

**Justification for this paper**

The objective of this paper is to propose a programme that deals with Teaching Arabic as a Second Language (TASOL) that is adapted from Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL). TESOL combines both teaching contexts of EFL (TEFL) and ESL (TESL). The TOEFL test is designed to measure basic linguistic and pedagogical knowledge within the context of teaching English for Speakers of Other Languages (ESOL) in elementary or secondary schools and is done in collaboration with the Council for the Accreditation of Educator Preparation, Inc. (CAEP) in the case of USA. The TASOL model, similarly developed, will be recommended to the Saudi Ministry of Education for serious consideration and implementation.

**Advantages**

There are three advantages of developing a TASOL, as listed below.

A. TASL/TASOL will be useful within the country to train expatriates to use Arabic in their work and daily life in the country.
B. As discussed in the Literature Review above, TASL/TASOL, with its internationally valid and reliable teaching/testing of Arabic to non-Arabic speakers, will help Saudi Arabia in the enhancement of educational and scientific reputation and undoubtedly put the country in higher positions.

C. The economic gains that will profit the country's financial diversity, since the country will own the rights of this programme and could sell the testing/teaching rights to other countries or International institutions. TASL/TASOL implemented in Arabic-speaking countries will be useful to train potential expatriates to have sufficient skills in Arabic. Once it becomes popular, certificate on TASOL learned Arabic competency can be made mandatory for expatriates.

Factors to be considered for TASOL programmes

To develop an effective TASOL programme, it is necessary to learn some lessons from the negative aspects of TESOL reported by some researchers. In this process, one of the key concerns must be the recognition that the classical form of Arabic, which is typically used in religious contexts and in formal media such as news and oration, differs significantly from the colloquial/local version of the language. Hence, an effective TASOL model will focus on a balanced approach to learning both versions of the language in accordance with the needs of various disparate learners.

The two works by Saudi educators may first be considered in order to understand the contexts in which an effective TASOL programme may be developed. In an analysis of TESOL in the Arabian Gulf region (EFL), Sayed (2003) identified lack of student motivation, low levels of literacy and achievements, traditional methods of learning and teaching and dependence on testing which would involve high stakes as the problems of EFL teaching. However, the most important issue had the structural constraints. One of them was the too rapid development in education sector transposing students suddenly from traditional classrooms to modern ones equipped with modern tools like laptops, mobile devices, and the internet. This change has happened even in a single generation. Other than English and Arabic, many languages are used by expatriates in the Gulf region. They find no relevance for English in daily life. Therefore, the students’ use of English does not stretch beyond the classrooms. At school levels, English is generally taught by non-native teachers. At the higher education levels, expatriates constitute the majority of teachers. Linguistic and cultural distances between the teachers and students are wide and formulate an important factor. There is not much concrete evidence to indicate that countries other than Saudi Arabia have made specific efforts to train and equip local teachers. Here, the role of TESOL is evident. Differences between remuneration packages and working conditions across the different groups of expatriate teachers result in lack of motivation for innovative and effective teaching that takes into account the cultural frameworks within which the language is spoken. The need for their professional development is also obvious. The absence of systems and standards of quality and assessment is another problem. It is the duty of policy makers, administrators, professionals, and organizations like TESOL Arabia to work in a coordinated manner and rectify these problems at the earliest stages. The same problems are hypothesized to affect TASOL as well.

According to Al-Hazmi (2003), neither the programmes of Colleges of Education nor those of Colleges of Arts in Saudi Arabia can prepare the students for EFL teaching. They are either just
educators or English or English-Arabic translation specialists. The need for a more systematic effort to specifically prepare EFL teachers was stressed. Care needs to be taken that TASOL does not lead to this problem by ensuring coordination by all departments related to the Arabic language. Additionally, Eaton (2017) has discussed how TASOL can be developed as a source of revenue through separate procedures, fee structures and budgets. Eaton makes two critical points that must be considered while developing the TASOL model. First, training modules need to be established for the directors of such programmes to ensure the smooth facilitation of the project. Second, the fact that such a model must be economically viable cannot be ignored, but care must be taken to ensure that profit-making does not supersede the needs of learners and the requirement for a learning programme that adequately meets those needs.

There could be adaptation problems of different types. The inadequacies of Western-based TESOL programmes to train non-native English-speaking teacher trainees highlighted by Carrier (2003) is one issue. The transition from Saudi Arabic to global Arabic is desirable, but barriers are possible. Based on a review, Llurda (2004) reported that gradual acceptance of English as a global language had reduced the role of native English teachers in setting the norms and standards with some concomitant increase in the role of non-native teachers in adapting the lessons learned to their context. The report of Brown (1993) identified certain structural barriers on curriculum design and teaching strategies have led to a slow change to global English. Problems associated with the adoption of Western TESOL training in culturally dissimilar countries like Bangladesh for EFL and the need for adaptation were stressed by Chowdhury (2003). Neither Western style can be fitted into the traditional teacher-led teaching nor can the teaching system be abruptly changed to receive the Western TESOL system.

Local differences in TASOL within Saudi Arabia could occur. A TASOL programme that is offered by an institute in Jeddah, for instance, might be different from one that is offered in a village or a small town. Issues arising from such differences may be preempted by adopting a standardized method of teaching and learning, particularly in terms of the curriculums that are used by different institutes. The effect of local environments determined what was taught in two different MA-TESOL programmes at two different places (designated as West Coast University-WCU and South-Eastern University-SEU) in the USA and they varied. The implications of this divergence between two TESOL programmes in the same country was discussed by Ramanathan, Davies, and Schleppegrell (2001) using explanatory diagrams.

Greater theoretical bias in the programme can be harmful. In TASOL, an optimum balance between theory and practice needs to be maintained. A greater focus on theory than practice in US MATESOL programmes was reported by Govardhan, Nayar, and Sheorey (1999). Other defects like inadequacies in dealing with teaching methodologies also should not occur.

Ethnocentrism and racial and cultural problems of both teachers and students and inadequate stress on inter-cultural differences in applicability TESOL have been reported and discussed in US TESOL programmes by many researchers like Liu (1998), Kumaravadivelu (2003), Atkinson (1997), Nelson (1998) and Motha (2006).
Eventually, when other countries adapt TASOL, it is likely that wide variations between Saudi and non-Saudi TASOL will be found. The results of a survey in 2014 on Master of Arts programmes in TESOL (MATESOL) in 16 countries by Stapleton and Shao (2018) revealed that courses on teaching methods are the most common. Among the large variations, the US and non-US differences, especially on practicum components, were the widest. Social and cultural and inadequate focus on English in EFL contexts were also noted.

Despite the idealized images of US classrooms in literature, mainstream research on US classrooms revealed negative images similar to their Asian counterparts by Kubota (2001). Spero (2015) has also commented on the need to improve classroom spaces in the American context. As discussed above, the religious connotations of Arabic may be downplayed by developing learning programmes that focus specifically on the academic and/or professional contexts in which the language is commonly used.

**Factors**

Two important factors that need serious consideration are-

**A. Identification of the stakeholders: Who is going to enroll in these teaching/testing programmes?**

**The stakeholders are**-

**B. Learners-** Learners are those who want to learn and teach Arabic at any level, either due to their personal or professional requirement or due to their interest in the language.

TASOL by definition is meant for those who do not speak Arabic as their native language but speak other foreign languages as their first language. Therefore, it excludes all individuals whose native language is Arabic, mostly those in the Gulf, Arab countries and certain other Muslim majority countries. That gives three types of learners, for whom TASOL could be useful. For simplicity of expression, those countries, where Arabic is the national and/or dominant language, are called Arab countries. Almost the entire/or a majority of the native population uses Arabic as their language in these countries.

A. Learners from other non-Arabic countries who stay in Saudi Arabia (or any other Arabic country, for that matter) for professional purposes. Some of them may return after a short period of stay, and they may not be interested in TASOL.

B. Learners from other countries, who visit Saudi Arabia or any other Arab country, frequently for business or other reasons. They may think that it is useful to study Arabic as they visit the Arab countries frequently and it would help in achieving the objective of their trips if they know the local language. They may use TASOL.

C. Muslims in other Muslim countries who speak other native languages and lack proficiency in Arabic, and that they consider Arabic as their cultural medium. Hence, they may use TASOL.

D. Non-Muslims in other countries (Muslim/non-Muslim) may use TASOL out of interest.
➢ TASOL Instructors- They train the learners who register for the TASOL programme.

➢ TASOL administrators- The TASOL programme and its sites need to be administered and managed well. Both management experts and technical experts will be part of the administration system.

➢ TASOL evaluators-In the absence of a better and more recognised assessment of learners to award certificates, diplomas and higher qualifications, ALPT of Arabic Academy will be used for assessment of the proficiency attained by the learners.

➢ Standards organizations- An independent organization, for example, TASOL Saudi Arabia, will be established and empowered to give recognition to TASOL offering institutions similar to the Canadian system (TESOLCanada, 2014).

➢ Saudi Ministry of Education, or a similar Saudi Educational body such as a University, will be responsible for the overall coordination of the TASOL activities.

➢ Saudi Ministry of Finance, through budgetary support, will provide the funds required for TASOL development. The ultimate aim is to make TASOL a self-financing organization.

B. If religion is not a motive, the TASOL programme can reach a wider audience including non-Muslims. Thereby, revenue can also be increased. Already, provision of two dimensions- one for Muslims and another for non-Muslims, are proposed so that TASOL benefits both Muslims and non-Muslims. As discussed above, the functional contexts of the language in business usage and professional workplace usage may be stressed for non-Muslim users.

**The structure of the proposed TASOL**

Based on the above discussions, TASOL will have the following structure-

A. Direct/Online option

B. Professional/Academic tracks

C. Full time/Part time option

D. Total duration of each course-

- Working knowledge- 1 month- 60 Hours including 4 hours practical
- Certificate- 3 months- 150 Hours including 20 hours practicals
- Diploma- 1 year- 500 Hours including 150 hours practicals
- Degree- 3 years- 1500 Hours including 500 hours practical and project work
- Master- 2 Years- 900 hours including 300 hours practical and project work and dissertation.
- Doctorate- 3-5 Years- 600 hours or more, thesis as partial fulfillment.

For online courses, practicals can be done from a nearby Arabic school and a certificate of satisfactory completion of practicals shall be submitted.
Admission eligibility- Any adult with interest in Arabic who have cleared basic-level proficiency tests in Arabic can register for Working Knowledge and Certificate courses. Any adult with the previous qualifications in domains such as teaching and education from any institution recognized by TASOL can register for higher level courses. No discrimination of any kind including gender.

The course content
Based on the content of courses in websites of TESOL institutions in USA and Canada, the following broad outline of course content is suggested for TASOL.

1. Arabic language history, culture, and development
2. Principles of Arabic language teaching and learning- linguistic, cognitive and affective aspects in traditional and modern classrooms
3. Factors which influence Arabic teaching/learning- principles of adult education, traditional and modern learning and teaching styles, psychology of learning and memorization, learning and teaching contexts and historical methodologies
4. Lesson planning of Arabic language courses- analysis of student needs, writing, selection and adaption of teaching materials, scaffolding learning and evaluation, language frameworks (CLB, CEFR)
5. Traditional and modern classrooms and teaching environment, suitability of different classroom environments for Arabic teaching, modern web tools and computerized and mobile devices, teaching/learning using web2.0 tools, encouraging out of class learning
6. Teaching the four skills of Arabic (speaking, listening, reading, and writing), grammar & structure, pronunciation, vocabulary
7. Testing and assessment of learner performance during the course
8. Classroom management
9. Importance of culture and socio-economic characteristics in learning and teaching style preferences
10. Personal approaches to professional development

The course content will be almost similar for all levels of courses. The relative importance and depth of dealing with different topics may differ with the level of the course; for example, a basic-level course may not go into the intricacies of language use.
Method of implementation of TASOL

It may not be sensible to expect numerous registrations for TASOL courses from all parts of the world as soon as it is introduced. Also, introducing all components of the course at great expense may not yield immediate returns. Hence, it will be prudent to introduce each level of this programme after a study of demands slowly and gradually. Wide publicity needs to be given for TASOL across the world. Only the promotion and marketing of TASOL as a product will lead to success.

At the same time, research works for evaluation of TASOL need to be done and the progress needs to be periodically assessed to make corrections if required at any stage. Independent research by scientists from other parts of the world will also happen. Criticisms against TASOL need to be addressed through suitable corrective steps or defense of current practices as each case may require different measures.

The case of TESOL as a brand sold and marketed TASOL can become a good source of income by helping other countries to adopt or adapt it by providing consultancies, selling rights or opening branches, depending upon the policies of the host country and economics involved.

Conclusions

Similar to TESOL being practiced in the USA and Canada, a TASOL for the Arabic language has been proposed. Attempts have been made to avoid the defects of TESOL and make it more universal rather than culturally restricting it to Muslims of the world. The courses of TASOL will be highly useful for any individual, agency or country, interested in the Arabic language.

About the Author:

Dr. Abdulaziz Alshahrani is a PhD holder in Applied Linguistics. He graduated from the University of Newcastle, Australia. He was admitted to the degree of MA with distinction in Applied Linguistics from the same institution. His works and publications are related to the field of language acquisition and the roles of the social variables. At the moment, he works as an assistant professor at the Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Alba University, in Saudi Arabia. https://orcid.org/0000-0003-4539-0156

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Attitudes towards Diglossia in an Algerian Educational Context:  
An Investigation of the Primary Level in Tlemcen

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Abstract
Since diglossia has an immense impact on formal instruction, the present paper aims to detect teachers’ as well as pupils’ attitudes towards the forms of Arabic at play, Modern Standard Arabic on the one hand and Algerian Arabic on the other. To achieve the aims of this study, and try to find an answer as to the way teachers and learners react to Modern Standard Arabic and Algerian Arabic in attitudinal terms inside the school context, two instruments were utilized to collect data. First, a questionnaire was administered to a sample consisting of 12 teachers and then, the matched-guise technique was designed to 72 pupils from two different primary schools. Based on both a quantitative and qualitative approaches, the findings of this empirical study reveal that both teachers and pupils display positive attitudes towards Modern Standard Arabic since it is granted an outstanding predominance and prestige in the community, especially because of its tight association with the Qur’an. However, the findings also reveal that pre-school grade pupils hold a less positive attitude towards Modern Standard Arabic and favour Algerian Arabic instead.

Keywords: Algerian arabic, attitudes, diglossia, modern standard arabic, pupils, teachers

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.26
Introduction

Ferguson, (1959) stated that Arabic is often considered a ‘diglossic’ language designating the existence of a High variety (H) and a low variety (L). These varieties are kept separate and used in distinct settings and for distinct purposes. This sociolinguistic situation stands as an obstacle as far as formal instruction is concerned since Modern Standard Arabic (MSA) is the form that is standardized and taught in schools whereas the vernaculars used primarily for daily concerns and spoken communication, are not taught formally in schools.

This study was inspired by the following quotations brought by the daughter’s author and her classmate whose age is eight. The conversation took place at home using a mobile phone via viber application.

[ʔana nkraɦ ɜarbija ɜlaχatər menfhemɦeʃ bsaħ nħebɦa ɜlaχatər hija taʔaɾalafi wkajna felqurʔan] meaning, I hate Arabic (with special reference to MSA) because I do not understand it, but I like it belongs to Allah and it is found in the Qur’an. Thereafter, my daughter replied [ʔ ana nħebɦa ɜlaχater ħna ɜarəb we msəlmin] meaning, I like it because we are Arabs and Muslims.

This small conversation triggered off a serious discussion among the author’s family members as to the current attitudes towards MSA. As a result, she wondered the kind of attitudes displayed by both pupils and teachers towards the Arabic language with its discrepant forms - MSA and Algerian Arabic (AA) at primary level.

To explore the attitudes displayed by teachers and pupils towards MSA and AA, this study was conducted in two different primary schools in Tlemcen, a town located in the northwest of Algeria.

1. Diglossia as a sociolinguistic phenomenon

Ferguson (1959) explains that diglossia is “a relatively stable situation” involving the existence of a superposed, highly codified variety “largely acquired by formal education and is used for most written and formal spoken purposes” (Ferguson, 1959, p.336), but alternating in the community with a ‘low’ variety, the real mother tongue used for daily activities.

However, Ferguson’s original version of diglossia has been subject to criticism and discussed extensively even by Ferguson himself who has admitted some flaws in a much more new article called ‘Diglossia revisited’ (1991). Indeed, the emergence of Educated Spoken Arabic (ESA), a new intermediate variety of Arabic, is usually cited as evidence that diglossia is undergoing a considerable change, and as Mahmoud (1986) correctly mentions,

Diglossia is not an unchanging, stable phenomenon as it may have appeared to Ferguson, and ESA is a definite harbinger of change in the Arabic speech community since it seems to be bridging successfully the gap between the two
forms of Arabic and increasingly satisfying the communicative needs of its elite. (p. 247)

The present paper is concerned with Arabic diglossia, which strongly affects the learning and teaching processes, and consequently, pupils and teachers may display different attitudes towards MSA and colloquial Arabic.

2. Arabic Diglossia

It is presumed that Arab people have been acquainted with ‘diglossia’ since the pre-Islamic period during which every tribe owned its proper dialect, and a common standard dialect (Cordoba, 2007, p. 143). Yet, it was only later that the colloquial forms became established and their phonology and syntax matured.

If the structural and functional criteria are applied to the language situation in Arabic, we evidently notice that Arabic entails “two or more varieties which exist side by side with each other and have specific kinds of structural and functional relationships” (Nuri, 2013, p. 341). In fact, one of the most significant peculiarities of diglossia -which is directly implicated for the acquisition of literacy skills-, is the establishment of rigid and complementary functional separation of two linguistic codes: the written and the spoken (Ferguson, 1959). Before they attain school age, some Arab children may learn a small amount of H, but many have relatively little or no contact with it. Therefore, the two forms are conceived as possessing a different degree of prestige, as is the case, for example, in Algeria where both MSA and AA are used.

Maamouri (1998) believes that the standardization of Arabic which began in the 8th and 9th centuries AD, has produced a set of norms that the early grammarians called fusha. Arab people perceive fusha as ‘pure’ and ‘real’ Arabic and the vernaculars as ‘corrupt’ forms. Moreover, Arabs’ attitudes towards the state of their language adhere to a generally unconcerned pattern: “the only language whose existence is socially acknowledged is the prestigious MSA, whereas dialectal Arabic has historically never been given much importance or recognition, since it has always been considered a bastardization of the original, ‘pure’ language” (Horn, 2015, p. 2). For most Algerians, MSA is perceived as the ‘real’ and ‘correct’ form used in formal contexts, while AA is the mother tongue of most people, for it only conveys social and cultural feelings.

3. Language attitudes

Attitude is a central state of mind that develops certain reactions towards the object/person which may lead to anticipate either a negative or positive behaviour.

The study of language attitudes entails various methods such as the analysis of societal treatment of language varieties, direct assessment with interviews or questionnaires, in addition to indirect assessment with the speaker evaluation paradigm (Hamzaoui, 2017, p.67).
The ‘matched-guise’ technique has been promoted by Lambert (1967) and his colleagues; it sets an example of the indirect assessment method based on mentalist conceptions which was introduced to measure language attitudes in a French-Canadian bilingual context.

The principal purpose of this technique is to extract information from the informants by making them listen to a piece of speech performed by the same interlocutor in different guises while the informants in question do not realize that the interlocutor is the same for all guises. The subjects will assuredly demonstrate feelings and different attitudes towards ‘each interlocutor’.

The prestige of H in the Arab communities remains homogeneous and incontestable even when sometimes people do not possess the capacity to comprehend it efficiently, by contrast to the western world where language attitudes are broadly affected by language policies commonly advocating the variety of the capital city as the national and official language of the country. Indeed, the attitudes of Arabs towards MSA “seem to be unanimously positive not only among Arabic speakers but also among large numbers of non-Arab Muslims as a result of its association with the Qur’an and its religious significance as a whole.”, as Dendane (2007, p.266) writes, in addition to the huge bulk of Arabic literature.

In Algeria, just like in the rest of the Arab countries, MSA is highly appreciated because it is considered the ‘supra-language’ exceptionally for its irrefutable status as the language of the Holy Qur’an and the Hadeeth (traditions) of Prophet Mohammed (Peace be upon him). Dendane (2007) says in this respect

the fact that a number of Qur’anic verses insist on bringing up this inextricable link between Arabic and the Holy Book makes people believe that the language of the Qur’an cannot be surpassed, and thereby hold it in the highest regard, though in practice it is a lower-status variety that people use in everyday speech interaction (pp,263-264).

Evidently, Arab children may display either positive or negative attitudes towards this prestigious variety once entering school, as they do not acquire it natively, but for Arabs in general, MSA enjoys prestige and power unlike the various colloquial forms, which are assumed to be socially disapproved and stigmatized. “In Arabic, people talk about the high variety as being ‘pure’ Arabic and the dialects as being ‘corrupt’ forms” (Hamzaoui, 2013, p. 28).

As already stated, this study aims to detect pupils’ and teachers’ attitudes towards Algerian Arabic and MSA at primary school level. The assessment of the pupils’ personalities and the form of Arabic is based on traits such as pleasantness and cleverness.

4. Sample, method and results
The sample population of this study has been chosen randomly from two different primary schools situated in Tlemcen (a town located in the north west of Algeria).
includes 72 pupils (six pupils from each grade and from two distinct primary schools) and 12 teachers (six teachers from each selected primary school). The rate of the pupils’ group as compared to the rate of the teachers’ group is adroitly higher since the present study focuses on the learners’ rather than on the teachers’ attitudes towards diglossia and the number of pupils neatly exceeds that of teachers at schools. One particular concern that relates to the fieldwork is that the learners under investigation necessitate cautious attention and consideration from the part of the investigator since they are too young and their age does not go beyond ten. It is also worth mentioning that the native language of these pupils is AA.

4.1 Diglossia and pupils’ attitudes

The matched-guise technique was outlined to evoke the informants’ attitudes towards the Arabic forms at play by making them listen to a text passage performed in two forms (MSA/AA) by the same person, which might make them feel they are listening to two persons. Thereafter, the informants were asked to reply to a set of questions that disclose their attitudes towards the language forms tested. A text composed of two passages from ‘Cinderella’ story was read at a natural speed rate by the same person. It was first narrated in MSA, and then in AA (see Appendix A). In order to obtain different attitudes, we have divided the 72 informants into six different groups studying in different primary schools from pre-school grade until the fifth grade. The tables and graphs below will demonstrate the evaluations of the whole group of judges on two dimensions, namely, the assessment of the speakers’ personalities and the form of Arabic in terms of pleasantness and cleverness traits.

-Pleasantness and attitude

Question n° 1: Who is more pleasant?

When this question was posed, the respondents provided the data mentioned in table 1 where the results in a ‘pleasantness degree’ are shown in contrasting views of those who declared pupil1 as opposed to pupil2/ ‘I do not know’. Indeed, the majority of the pupils from different grades to the exception of pre-school grade clearly favoured pupil1, and considered him ‘more pleasant’ than pupil 2, as clearly shown in table 1.

Table 1 Pupils’ assertion of guises’ pleasantness.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pleasantness</th>
<th>Pupil1</th>
<th>Pupil 2</th>
<th>I do not know</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school grade N=12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.66%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st grade N=12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>66.66%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd grade N=12</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>66.66%</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd grade N=12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>83.34%</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th grade N=12</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade N=12</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Most pupil respondents revealed that the performer in the first guise (G1 - MSA) is the most pleasant except for pre-school pupils. This means that the pupils from first up to the fifth grade hold MSA speech in high esteem and consider the performer using AA as quite unpleasant, mainly because the speech in this guise (G2 - AA) is characterized by the glottal stop (specific to Tlemcenian speech), and the majority of the informants consider this as erroneous for the learning process.

Question n°2: How would you judge these pupils if they were your classmates?

Here, the informants were asked to express their attitudes towards G1 and G2 by putting a cross in the square blanks they think convenient for the trait suggested.

-Cleverness and attitude

Clever………………………………Less clever

Guise 1 (MSA)

Table 2. Pupils’ evaluation of cleverness (G1)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cleverness (G1, MSA)</th>
<th>Clever</th>
<th>Less clever</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school grade</td>
<td>1 8.33%</td>
<td>11 91.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st grade</td>
<td>7 58.33%</td>
<td>5 41.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd grade</td>
<td>9 75%</td>
<td>3 25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd grade</td>
<td>10 83.34%</td>
<td>2 16.66%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th grade</td>
<td>11 91.66%</td>
<td>1 8.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5th grade</td>
<td>11 91.66%</td>
<td>1 8.34%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly, the findings on the characteristic of ‘cleverness’ reveal a clearly upgrading scores ranging from 8.33% for the pre-school grade to 91.66% for the 5th grade. First, lower scores are ascribed to the pre-school pupils who claimed that G1 is clever, then, as far as we moved gradually to the other grades, we noticed that higher scores are attributed to those who considered G1 as the ‘cleverest’.

However, the scores obtained on which guise sounds cleverer for G2 seem to contradict with those above, i.e., to the exception of the pre-school grade pupils, most pupils from the other grades found G2 as ‘less clever’. Consider the table below and its equivalent graph.

Guise 2 (AA)

Table 3. Pupils’ evaluation of cleverness (G2)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cleverness (G2, AA)</th>
<th>Clever</th>
<th>Less clever</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-school grade</td>
<td>1 91.66%</td>
<td>1 8.34%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st grade</td>
<td>7 58.34%</td>
<td>5 41.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd grade</td>
<td>7 58.34%</td>
<td>5 41.66%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Positive attitudes are obvious and apparent in the data collected as regards ‘cleverness’ trait in G1, and negative attitudes about the speaker using AA who was considered as ‘less clever’ are also clear-cut. For the majority of the informants, the performer using AA in class does not adhere and is breaking the rule of conversation. Nevertheless, pupils from pre-school grade perceived performer 1 using MSA as ‘less clever’ and performer 2 using AA as clever. This might be explained that this particular category of pupil respondents has relatively no acquaintance with MSA outside the school context, and that they are still unfamiliar with this variety and unaware about its importance in the learning process.

### 4.2 Diglossia and teachers’ attitudes

On another front, and in order to evaluate the teachers’ reactions towards MSA and AA, a questionnaire based on a psychological factor was administered to 12 teachers from different primary schools who teach at different grades and having different skills and experiences. The respondents were asked to reveal their attitudes towards MSA/AA on the basis of three questions (see Appendix B).

**Question n°1:** In which form of Arabic do you prefer explaining your lessons?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Teachers’ variety preference in lesson explanation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSA</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSA/AA</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4 Teachers’ variety preference in class**

![Figure 3 Teachers’ variety preference in class](image3.png)
The discernible findings gathered from the variety by which the teachers prefer explaining their lessons was MSA. Ostensibly, most teacher respondents (83.33%) affirmed their preference and inclination towards MSA use in class, despite the reality, which reveals that most of them use a mixture of both MSA and AA in the teaching process, believing that this strategy may help pupils’ assimilation.

**Question n°2:** Which form do you think is more beautiful?

All the respondents confirmed the beauty of MSA as well as their high appreciation towards it, for they consider MSA as the real and correct variety used as a medium of instruction.

**Question n° 3:** Which form of Arabic do you think more appropriate for the teaching/learning process?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Teachers’ assumption of variety’s appropriateness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MSA</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AA</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MSA/AA</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When asked about the most appropriate variety for the teaching/learning process, similar results as those mentioned in question n°1 were obtained, that is, most teachers agreed on the appropriateness of MSA in the teaching/learning process. The high rate of the informants’ replies echoes their extensive recognition of MSA significance as a medium of instruction and their consciousness of its high status amongst the whole Arab and Muslim nations.

4.3 Discussion

In their highly acclaimed responses about their attitudes towards MSA/AA, the pupils from first up to the fifth grade revealed their abundant appreciation towards MSA and felt proud of it owing to its sacred status and relation to Classical Arabic, the language of the Holy Qur’an. This feeling emerges from the Arab society perspective to MSA and the conservative nature of the Algerian society in which they live. Maamouri (1998, p.37) says in this respect, “there is a prevailing feeling among Arabs that their language is imbued with a natural superiority”.

In spite of this high value, the pupils from pre-school grade held MSA in low esteem and favoured AA instead. However, taking into account their small age, we cannot deduce that this particular category of learners show negative attitudes towards MSA because they do not find it beautiful, correct or expressive. However, the reasons range from their perception that MSA is quite difficult to learn and understand, and that it is not their mother tongue. This lack of security comes from a general feeling of low understanding of MSA and of low identification of its norms (Maamouri, 1998, p. 37).
Similarly, the teachers’ responses reflected their homogeneous attitudes towards MSA/AA. Indeed, all the teachers feel proud and show positive attitudes towards MSA that might contribute to various reasons such as linguistic awareness, realization of MSA high significance in the teaching/learning process, and most importantly as the language of the Qur’an. Nevertheless, in spite of the acknowledged high esteem towards MSA, we firmly believe that the maintenance of AA in the teaching process will remain, unless there will be a general agreement amongst all teachers of the Arabic course concerning its avoidance.

5. Conclusion
The conclusions for this study can be summarised under the following points. First, the present paper reveals high appreciation in attitudinal terms towards MSA from the part of both teachers and learners, for they perceive it as the ‘pure’, ‘real’ ‘and ‘correct’ form used in formal education, and more importantly as the language of the Qur’an. Second, negative reactions displayed by pre-school grade pupils relate to their perception that learning Standard Arabic is a strenuous process. This can relate to the fact that this particular category of pupils have relatively little or no contact with the official language of instruction outside the school milieu. They also perceive the standard variety as an ‘unfamiliar’ language and they are still unaware about the importance of this variety of Arabic in their learning strategies. Arab children’s regular exposure to this variety before school age might facilitate its use and comprehension years later.

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References


**Appendices**

*Appendix A: The matched-guise technique (translated version)*

**Pupil 1**: The passages below were read in MSA.

*Passage1*: Once upon time a girl named Cinderella lived with her stepmother and two stepsisters. Poor Cinderella had to work hard all day long so the others could rest. It was she who had to wake up each morning when it was still dark and cold to start the fire. The poor girl could not stay clean, from all the ashes and cinders by the fire

*Passage2*: One day, big news came to town. The King and Queen were going to have a ball! It was time for the Prince to find a bride. All of the young ladies in the land were invited to come. They were wild with joy! They would wear their most beautiful gown and fix their hair extra nice. Maybe the prince would like them!

**Pupil 2**: The same passages were read in AA.

Answer the following questions by putting a tick in the right in front of the right answer or the right selected adjective.

1-Who is more pleasant?  
   Pupil 1  
   Pupil 2  
   I do not know

2-How would you judge these pupils in case they were your classmates?

   Variety 1 (pupil 1) G1: pleasant  
   stupid  
   clever  
   less clever

   Variety 2 (pupil 2) G2: pleasant  
   stupid  
   Clever  
   less clever

*Appendix B: Questionnaire to teachers*

Question n°1: In which form of Arabic do you prefer explaining your lessons?

   MSA  
   AA  
   MSA/AA

Question n°2: Which form do you think is more beautiful?

   MSA  
   AA  
   MSA/AA

Question n° 3: Which form of Arabic do you think more appropriate for the teaching/ learning process?

   MSA  
   AA  
   MSA/AA
The Effect of Blended Learning on EFL Students’ Grammar Performance and Attitudes: An Investigation of Moodle

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Abstract
Empowering new generations with technology through employing blended learning approach to teach English as a Foreign Language has been recently investigated by many researchers in various contexts. This mixed-methods study aimed at examining the effects of the blended learning approach on Jordanian EFL learners’ grammar performance. The study also aimed at investigating the attitudes of Jordanian EFL learners toward blended learning. To achieve the objectives of the study, it employed a quasi-experimental design (pre and posttests) followed by qualitative interviews. The participants were divided into two groups: experimental and control groups. Among the 28 students in the sample, those in the experimental blended learning group (n=13) were taught using Moodle while those in the control group (n=15) were taught using conventional methods. All the 13 participants in the experimental group were interviewed. The results of the posttest revealed that students in the experimental group outperformed students in the control group. Furthermore, the qualitative analysis results showed that blended learning had a positive impact on the learners’ English grammar performance and that they were strongly satisfied and motivated to learn English using similar methods. It is concluded that blended learning could be used as an effective method of teaching English grammar in EFL settings. It is hoped that these results will help the university, faculty, and students to develop the skills necessary for blended learning.

Keywords: attitude, blended learning, EFL students, grammar, Moodle, Performance

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.27
Introduction

Blended learning has become a reality in contemporary education, as more and more educational institutions race to adopt and implement it to provide an attractive and stimulating learning environment. While many universities in Jordan have at least partly implemented blended learning to leverage its benefits, online learning is still in the elementary stage at Irbid National University (INU), where it is utilized only as an aid to support learning and teaching in regular classrooms. Still, the university is encouraging faculty to take serious steps toward integrating online learning into their regular classes.

The department of English language and literature has begun to consider online learning and attempted to integrate it into basic skills and grammar classes. However, EFL learning is a complicated process that requires substantial efforts to successfully immerse EFL learners in the language. Further, learning grammar is considered the most tedious skill in learning English, even though failing to comprehend grammar rules often leads to communication failures (Schulz, 2001). It is assumed that blended learning can help both EFL teachers and learners reach higher grammar proficiency by improving their learning practices and utilizing technology to create innovative learning experiences. Thus, many learning management systems (LMS) have been designed to support learning and teaching experiences, such as Moodle, Easy LMS, OpenEdX, LearningCart, and many others. Moodle, the Modular Object-Oriented Dynamic Learning Environment, is utilized by the majority of Jordanian universities (Bataineh & Mayyass, 2017). Recently, INU has been promoting Moodle to complement conventional classroom instruction and online tools such as YouTube, Facebook, and email. Thus, this study aimed at achieving the following objectives: a) to examine the effects of blended learning on Jordanian EFL learners’ grammar performance and b) to investigate the learners’ attitudes toward utilizing blended learning.

This study attempted to answer the following research questions:
1. Does blended learning affect Jordanian EFL learners’ grammar performance?
2. Are Jordanian EFL learners motivated to learn English using blended learning?

Literature Review

Blended Learning

Several researchers (Friesen, 2012; Graham, 2006; Poon, 2013) have defined blended learning as an instructional curriculum which blends online materials with traditional classroom learning. Both teachers and learners must engage in blended learning, especially since the shift from teacher-centered education to learner-centered education means the learner actively takes a major part in the learning process by utilizing online learning. Nevertheless, there are different models representing the implementation of blended learning, such as an online driver, self-blended, labs, flex, rotation, and face-to-face driver (Horn & Staker, 2015). For the current study, a face-to-face driver model is adapted, using digital tools to drive EFL education.

The benefits of blended learning cannot be denied, especially at the university level (Wall & Ahmed, 2008; Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Poon, 2012). Specific advantages include:

1. Encouraging dynamic, simultaneous, free, joint and significant learning experiences
2. Helping learners to accomplish satisfaction and achievement effectively
3. Enhancing learning and outcomes, including content, objectives, materials, procedures, and assessment
4. Dealing more effectively with individual differences
5. Managing and controlling the class easily
6. Reducing the cost per credit hour.

On the other hand, blended learning can be a challenge if it is not implemented properly. For instance, university learners and their teachers should be confident and supported, as they are the most vital members of successful and permanent implementing blended learning (Darrow et al., 2013). According to previous scholars (Graham et al., 2005; Hofmann, 2011; Milheim, 2006), potential challenges to blended learning include:

1. The accessibility of technology and the internet.
2. The need for an LMS matching all the learners’ and teachers’ needs.
3. Aptitudes and attitudes to cope with new technology.
4. Live and easy interaction to address learners’ questions.
5. Cultural adaptation to balance modernity with maintaining one’s identity and values.
6. Management of the class to assess and observe the learners.

**Moodle**

Moodle is one of the most well-known LMS with which instructors, administrators, and learners form personalized learning settings. Moodle courses include resources and activities of approximately 20 distinct sorts, such as quizzes, assignments, forums, and polls. These activities can help both teachers and learners navigate and complete courses. Consequently, more than 90 million people from both academic and enterprise settings use it because of its a) ease of use, b) lack of licensing fees, c) multipurpose platform, d) flexibility, e) security and privacy, f) accessibility, g) free content and courses, and h) availability in multiple languages (Moodle, 2018). Using technology to design a language learning class helps EFL learners improve their English language skills along with giving them numerous chances to practice those skills (Butler-Pascoe, 2003). However, Moodle also can assist in learning many English subjects like grammar. EFL teachers can integrate Moodle content, for example, into their regular language teaching classrooms take advantage of the available activities and sources, such as by providing real interaction with people from different backgrounds who share the same interests and by fostering a truly collaborative learning environment.

**Past Studies**

Many researchers have considered blended learning in teaching English in EFL settings. Recently, Isti’anah (2017) explores the effect of blended learning on students’ grammar achievement. Twenty-six Indonesian university students were involved in this study. Analysis of pretest and posttest scores reveal that blended learning had a positive effect on learning English grammar and that it assists in enhancing the students’ awareness of and interest in learning grammar. In another study in Thailand, Pumjarean et al. (2017) investigates the impact of blended e-learning on the grammatical knowledge and writing skills of 54 English major freshmen, their perceived satisfaction with Moodle’s learning management system, and the effectiveness of blended learning for enhancing grammatical competency and paragraph writing skills. Their quasi-
The experimental design utilizes two instruments, namely a questionnaire and pre and post achievement tests. The findings show that the students’ grammar competence is improved, but the students are neutral regarding their satisfaction with Moodle’s LMS.

In their study, Aslani & Tabrizi (2015) investigates blended learning among 87 Persian EFL learners. The findings demonstrate that blended learning has an encouraging effect on Iranian students’ grammar performance. In another study by Ahmad (2016), at a private college in Saudi Arabia, he explores the impact of Facebook on sixty EFL university students’ writing and grammar skills, utilizing achievement tests. The findings of the study reveal that Facebook has a positive effect on the EFL students’ performance on both writing and grammar. In his study, Alshwiah (2009) explores the impacts of a proposed blended learning strategy for teaching medical vocabulary to 50 EFL university students. The findings reveal that the experimental group students (n=28) are more satisfied with online learning when compared to the control group (n=22) due to administrative issues.

In the Jordanian context, only a few studies were conducted to investigate the effect of blended learning on EFL students’ grammatical performance. Bataineh & Mayyas (2017) carry out a quasi-experimental study to explore the effect of blended learning on 32 Jordanian EFL learners’ grammar and reading comprehension in a state university, where Moodle is utilized in some classes. In their experimental group, Moodle is used to complement the conventional classroom. The findings reveal that the students in their experimental group outperform the students of the control group in grammar as well as reading comprehension. In general, Obiedat et al. (2014) find that blended learning has a positive and significant impact on university students’ academic achievement. They conduct a survey study on a sample of 427 university students to investigate the usefulness of blending learning on academic achievement.

Another study by Fakhir (2015) explores the impact of utilizing blended learning on the academic achievement of 50 female students and their attitudes towards blended learning. To obtain the desired data, an achievement test and a questionnaire are applied. The findings reveal that utilizing blended learning has a positive impact on the attitudes of the experimental group, which do better than the control group in learning English grammar and vocabulary. The study argues that blending learning is better than conventional learning due to this improvement in the students’ achievement. Finally, Al-Haq & Al-Sobh (2010) use a web-based EFL program, to identify a positive impact of blended learning on Jordanian students’ writing achievement. Their sample includes 122 male and female secondary school students. As online learning is still in the elementary stage at INU, the current study attempts to investigate the effects of blended learning on Jordanian EFL learners’ grammar performance and their attitudes toward utilizing blended learning. The findings of this study depict a realistic picture of how they personally perceived blended learning and its effect on their performance.

Methodology

Participants and sitting

The participants of this study were 28 Jordanian graduate learners enrolled in the English language department at INU during the first semester of the 2018–2019 academic year. All the participants were enrolled in one of two grammar classes that met for three hours a week. The
same instructor taught both classes and used the same textbook: *English Grammar in Use* by Raymond Murphy. Randomly, one class (13 learners) was assigned to the experimental group while the other (15 learners) was assigned to the control group. The control group learners were taught by face-to-face lectures alone while face-to-face lectures taught the experimental group learners with Moodle supplementation. The Moodle supplementation included Prezi presentations, videos, homework assignments, and quizzes. A brief introduction to Moodle was given through a one-day training to the entire experimental group. After preparing the online instructional material, the lecturer eagerly provided educational and technical assistance via email, forum posts, or online chat. The posted content included Prezi presentations about grammar (for instance, question tags), grammar activities, and quizzes.

**Instruments**

Two instruments were utilized in this study: pre and posttests and semi-structured interviews. In selecting the pre and posttests from the course test bank, the researchers sought to cover all the course content, which includes ten textbook chapters on different grammatical subjects. At the beginning of the semester, all the participants completed a pretest of forty multiple-choice questions. A posttest containing the same questions was given to the learners at the end of the course. After exploring the posttest data and the related literature, lists of key issues, ideas, and questions were then prepared for the interviews. As the population of the experimental group was not large, all 13 learners were interviewed to explore their attitudes toward utilizing blended learning. This is also vital in providing a clear picture of how they personally experienced blended learning.

To guarantee the validity of the tests and the interview questions, they were given to five professors of the English language, then revised according to the professors’ amendments and advice. A pilot test study was also conducted to test the strength and consistency of the internal reliability (Cronbach's alpha) of the test. The test was completely reliable, as the reliability coefficient for the pilot study was measured at 0.83. The pilot study also tested the clarity of the interview questions and gave the researchers a little practice for the interview. As much as possible, the pilot study was designed and planned to reflect the actual study to be carried out.

**Research Design and Data Analysis**

To investigate the effect of blended learning on Jordanian EFL learners’ grammar performance and their attitudes toward utilizing blended learning, this mixed method study employed a quasi-experimental design (pre and posttest) followed by qualitative interviews to clarify student outcomes. Mixed methods research is a helpful strategy for forming a full understanding of the research problem (Creswell, 2014).

Utilizing SPSS (Version 15.0), the pre and posttest results were analyzed. Descriptive analyses (means and standard deviation) were conducted to describe the pre and posttest results. Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was then employed to find out which group was significantly different. For the interview, the data were analyzed using interview analysis, which involves placing the raw data into categories based on the similarities that emerged in the characteristics of the data (Creswell, 1998).
The findings are presented and discussed in light of the research topics: how blended learning affected learners’ grammar performance and their motivation to continue learning English using blended learning. Table 1 addresses the first research question, which examines whether there is any effect of blended learning on Jordanian EFL learners’ grammar performance. The means and standard deviations of the pre and posttest scores were compared to describe the grammar performance of both the experimental and control groups.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of pre and posttest.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Pre Test M</th>
<th>Pre Test SD</th>
<th>Post Test M</th>
<th>Post Test SD</th>
<th>Adjusted Mean</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>7.33</td>
<td>3.519</td>
<td>11.47</td>
<td>3.720</td>
<td>11.46</td>
<td>0.685</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>2.626</td>
<td>15.54</td>
<td>3.178</td>
<td>15.55</td>
<td>0.736</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that the posttest mean of the experimental group (15.54) was higher than the pretest mean of the control group (11.47). However, the pretest means of both groups (experimental 7.31 and control 7.33) were almost alike. The data also shows a difference in the adjusted means (4.09) in favor of the experimental group. The inferential statistical technique ANCOVA was conducted to find the difference in the adjusted mean post-test scores between the control group and the experimental group, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. ANCOVA results of the differences in the adjusted means of the learners’ grammar posttest scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Model</td>
<td>254.226a</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>127.113</td>
<td>18.035</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intercept</td>
<td>268.563</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>268.563</td>
<td>38.104</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>138.761</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>138.761</td>
<td>19.688</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>116.535</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>116.535</td>
<td>16.534</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>176.203</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>7.048</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>5426.000</td>
<td>28</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>4304.429</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As illustrated in Table 2, the adjusted mean of the control group (11.46) was found to be lower than that of the experimental group (15.55). This reveals that there is a significant difference in the adjusted means of learners’ grammar posttest scores, in favor of the experimental group (F=16.534 and p=.000).

The second research question evaluates the motivation of EFL learners for learning English using blended learning. In face-to-face interviews with all 13 students of the experimental group, seven questions were discussed. The first interview question was designed to measure students’ willingness to learn grammar using blended learning method. The students were very enthusiastic about using blended learning, and almost all of them (n=12) stated that they like learning English grammar using blended learning. For instance, Participant 1 stated: “Yes, of course. I really
enjoyed during this grammar class.” Participant 7 replied, “I like the new class method.” Participant 9 said, “Yes, I would like to learn grammar and other courses with this method.” On the other hand, Participant 10 was not enthusiastic about blended learning, stating, “To me, the previous “traditional class” was more useful than the blended class. I don’t enjoy it.”

The second question examined the perceived importance of using blended learning. It was found that the majority of the students believed that using blended learning is very important. One of the students (Participant 2) stated that “using Moodle is very important as I can easily get in touch with my professor.” Also, Participant 13 stated that “using this method is really important. This method facilitates the whole class.” The third question investigated whether the students were satisfied with the blended learning experience. It was found that almost all of the students were satisfied with their experience and content with the online materials and quizzes. For instance, Participants 12 and 4 mentioned that:

“Yes, I am so satisfied with this experience. Although we had some issues in understanding the Moodle at the beginning, but everything went well and of course having all materials online allow me to repeat the presentations at home” (Participant 12).

“Yes, I am. The online quizzes were really superb especially the immediate feedback. I mean you can know the results immediately with the correct answers” (Participant 4).

The fourth question evaluated whether the use of blended learning has fostered or hindered the grammar learning. All the students emphasized that using blended learning has fostered their grammar performance. In their words:

Participant 4: “Yes, it fostered my learning. I can do my exercises in any place and at any time.”

Participant 5: “Sure, the online lessons were more attractive. I mean the lessons are well developed and organized.”

Participant 3: “Yup, it helped me a lot as I could learn in a very relaxing and comforting atmosphere. I am that person who is very timid and don’t like to participate in the class.”

The fifth question sought to identify the benefits of utilizing blended learning from the students’ points of view. According to the majority of the interviewees, blended learning is beneficial for many reasons, which are summarized below:

1. Creating a flexible and relaxing setting that accounts for all the individual differences.
2. Easy to freely access the learning resources through mobile phone and other devices.
3. Assisting students to better understand the grammar rules.
4. Attracting students’ attention and making them more involved in the given grammar tasks.
5. Online assessment and its immediate feedback.
6. Promoting the interaction between the students and the lecturer and maximizing the active participation among the students.
7. Enhancing students’ computer skills such as downloading and uploading documents, creating good presentations, and benefitting from websites related to learning the English language.

The sixth question sought to identify the detriments of utilizing blended learning. The obtained data revealed that the students encountered a lack of appropriate technological infrastructure. They reported that the English language lab was not modern and that they had technical difficulties with the computers, internet network, software, and technical support services. The students also reported that the internet speed was not good enough, so they relied on their mobile phones more. For instance, Participant 4 noted that “the main issue was the lab. The computers were old. I remember that one day the internet was awfully slow and no one could repair the problem.”

The final interview question assessed whether online learning could totally replace “face-to-face” education. The majority of the students (n=10) disagreed that online learning could replace the traditional method. They suggested using online learning along with traditional methods. They also placed a great value on personal communication with the lecturer. For instance, Participant 1 responded, “No, I don’t think so. I know that technology is growing very fast. But, having face to face discussion with my lecturer and colleagues is very valuable.”

On the other hand, three students agreed that online learning could totally replace the traditional method. They were very enthusiastic toward online learning as it may facilitate the learning process. One of them stated, “yes, online learning can completely take the place of face to face education. Technology will be integrated into almost everything. Our life will be easier” (Participant 6).

**Discussion**

The quantitative results showed that the students in the experimental group outperformed those in the control group. This reflected that blended leaning had a positive impact on students' grammar performance. Further, the results revealed that integrating technology as a main part of the learning and teaching process can succeed. Integrating technology allows students to learn in a motivating and inspiring way in accordance with their individual abilities. The result of this study is compatible with many previous studies, such as those by Aslani & Tabrizi (2015), Bataineh & Mayyas (2017), Isti’anah (2017), Fakhir (2015), & Pumjarean et al. (2017), all of which support the statement that blended learning has a positive impact on the performance of learners in English grammar.

Moreover, the qualitative results showed that the interviewed students enjoyed the new experience of blended learning. They were strongly satisfied with and motivated toward learning English using a blended learning method. The majority of the students believed that using blended learning is very important to foster their studies. Despite some technical issues, the students believed that blended learning could help them better understand the lesson and improve their computer skills in a flexible and relaxing setting that accounts for all their individual differences. Thus, they suggested that using online learning along with conventional methods. This helps
students to practice what they have learned in front of the class and get the lecturer’s support and feedback. These findings concur with those of Al-Haq & Al-Sobh (2010), Fakhir (2015), & Pumjarean et al. (2017), which affirmed that students are motivated toward learning English by using blended learning. Also, the findings of this study agree with findings by Wall & Ahmed (2008), Garrison and Kanuka (2004), & Poon (2012), who found that utilizing blended learning is very advantageous.

**Conclusion and Recommendations**

In conclusion, the results of this study showed that utilizing blended learning had a positive impact on the performance of learners in an English language grammar course. Learners in the experimental group engaged in a dynamic, simultaneous, free, joint, and significant learning experience. Based on the results, the researchers recommend that the university should implement the blended learning method in all its graduate courses, especially English language lectures. The university should take serious steps to update the computer and language labs with new technology and provide special training on the Moodle system for students, faculty, and employees. Faculty should be encouraged to utilize blended learning in their classes. Finally, more research should be conducted to examine the effectiveness of blended learning in Jordanian universities and its impact on students’ performance. It is hoped that the results of the present study help university, faculty, and students develop the skills necessary for blended learning.

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Code-switched Greeting by Bilingual Saudi-American Subject: A Case Study

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Abstract:
This paper investigates the myth of children’s monolingual brain by conducting a case study of a two-year-old Saudi-American girl, who is in the two-word stage of vocalization, by focusing on a certain speech act, viz., “greeting” and demonstrating how it is heavily code-switched into Arabic/English language(s) with regard to the context of the speech and the greeter/receiver of the greeting identity. The subject has been raised in an English-speaking country milieu (United States of America), while she has been used to speaking Arabic at home. In this regard, the paper highlights the aim of the encoded usage of code-switching utterances in term of addressing the monolingual brain hypothesis. This qualitative study is based on open observations of two continues months of a toddler as the participant of this study aiming at exploring whether children’s greeting differ from those of adults and whether this greeting differs between two languages with regard to monolingual brain hypotheses. So far, the study concluded that greeting has never been mixed upon context, though utterances are code-switched. Moreover, the greeting process is comprehended and acquired within the language context as a pragmatic speech act regarding greeter’s identity, context, and gender. Findings of this study significantly support the cognitive approach in term of greeting via using a high frequent greeting word among the American culture. As would cognitive linguists suggest, greeting speech act response varies regarding how greeters of each community greet the subject, but not how they greet each other’s in a community. Therefore, surprisingly the two-year-old subject perceptually recognizes the fact of receiving two different languages regardless to the monolingual hypothesis.

Keywords: Bilingual, case study, code-switched greeting, monolingual brain hypothesis

Cite as: Basabrin, A. (2019). Code-switched Greeting by Bilingual Saudi-American Subject: A Case Study. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 335 - 346
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.28
1. Introduction

Along with the investigation of mixed sentences/utterances, a theoretical claim of “limited capacity theory” appears in the field of linguistics to explain children’s bilingual code-switching, as an evidence of their inability to distinguish between their two languages (Genesee, 2015). Yet, believers in a monolingual brain rely on Genesee (1989) hypothesis of “unitary language system” that considers the input of both languages as a single language. Another concern relating to code switching that has numerous claims regarding the fluency of the coded language in order to be mixed within utterances (Bouchard, 2015). Through various identifications of the term code switching that address language fluency, this study aims at exploring whether complete mastery of language/s is needed in order to be code switched, as long as the subject has not mastered any of the languages, though Arabic is the matrix one. From observations conducted in public places over three extended months, findings show a significant role of greeter/receiver identity, gender, and speech context. Also, perceptually, the subject is able to distinguish between the two languages and initiate greetings with regard to that fact. Monolingual brain has been studied and investigated in the process of bilingual language acquisition- mostly under two main parts of the language, viz., lexicon and grammar- but has not been investigated yet under the frame of pragmatic speech acts. There are many recent books that support “the unitary system hypothesis” (Bhatia, 2018; Snape & Kupisch, 2016) and the ‘limited capacity theory’ (Hervais-Adelman, Pefkou, & Golestani, 2014) under the bilingual language acquisition section, though these streams have been refuted in other works such as (Genesee, 2015). This paper attempts to fill the gap by proposing a work that combines early childhood bilingual greeting in regard to the monolingual belief of Genesee (2006), and Paradis, Nicoladis, Crago, and Genesee (2011). Additionally, it investigates the bilingual language aspect, not under the frame of language acquisition, but under the pragmatic feature of speech act.

Furthermore, studying the nature of childhood greeting speech act will be beneficial in understanding childhood language acquisition and language developmental processes. Thus, this paper aims to investigate more on how children acquire the pragmatic speech act (such as greeting). And it also tries to establish a clear concept about childhood greeting.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Monolingual Brain that Results in Code-Switching

Numerous definitions have been offered for the term code-switching (CS) over the 90s until recently. Generally, the use of two languages or more within certain discourse (written, or spoken) through applying linguistics aspects of languages basically describes the concept of (CS) (Brice & Anderson, 1999). It has been believed that code switched utterances are the main evidence that supports the monolingual brain hypothesis, while the other evidence stands as the dilation of bilinguals’ language acquisition (Genesee, 2015). Basically, monolingual brain relies on the “limited capacity theory” which assumes that the bilingual child will be confused and cannot distinguish between languages if parents are using both languages at home (Paradis et al., 2011). Also, it depends on the “unitary language hypothesis” as has been dubbed by Genesee (2006). This hypothesis predicts that bilinguals’ brain puts both languages systems together and that results in code mixing. The believers of the monolingual brain aver that one grammatical aspect and lexicons of both languages will be associated together under one language in the bilingual brain. There are many works in support of these claims such as W. Francis and Gutiérrez (2012)
who argue that the child’s language acquisition is the use of both languages under one constraint in child’s mind. However, there are some studies that find this wrong. For instance, Maneva and Genesee (2002) studied an infant whose parents were speaking in different languages to the infant. The mother spoke French, while the father spoke English. By counting the amount, type, and duration of babbling, it was found that the infant was babbling differently regarding the language. That led the researchers to conclude that from that age, bilingual infants do not just perceptually distinguish between languages, but also differentiate grammar (Pearson, Fernandez, Lewedeg, & Oller, 1997).

2.2 The Cognitive Approach of Linguistics

Basically, the cognitive approach relies heavily on the cognitive processes and social exposure of a context (Rose, Feldman, & Jankowski, 2009; Sternberg & Sternberg, 2016). Early language acquisition begins with a genetic willingness for participating and engaging with complex patterns of a developed human speech (Lieberman, 1968). Furthermore, as the cognitive linguistical knowledge of a child develops in early childhood, Piaget’s cognitive development is achieved when a child shifts from a feeling to another (Lewis, 1977). In other words, the linguistic shifts imply adjustment and modulation in language usage. Francis (1972) indicates that in early language development these shifts contain shifts from syntagmatic responses to paradigmatic responses. Certainly, rearing practices and social development affects and shapes the child language (Lewis, 1977; Ringler, Kennell, Jarvella, Navojosky, & Klaus, 1975). In particular, Ringler et al. (1975) also concluded that the amount and type of the mother’s linguistic speech pattern influence child’s (of two years) language usage as they tested out the mother-child linguistic contact. The experiment depends on language exposure of two groups, in which one of the groups received more time and linguistical contact with the mother. The experimental group, the group who received more maternal contact, shows significant linguistic varieties. Another study that examined five-year-old twins showed that children develop “idioglossia” in which they have received little stimulation to adults’ contact. Remarkably, the twins resulted in unclear disclosing of certain usages. However, when they got separated and put within a different context, they were forced to engage, and they resulted in a notable language increase (Luria & Yudovich, 1971). It is important to specify that the role of stimulation is indicated multiply not just within linguistics cognitive studies but also in the generative approach as Chomsky evidently encourages its significance even in language acquisition, in which Universal Grammar is carried out within the context (Chomsky, 1981). Moreover, research that examines ‘physical deprivation’ of early language acquisition suffers from ambiguity when methodologies are difficult to be employed (Lewis, 1977).

2.3 Greeting Speech Act

Greeting is a cross-cultural pragmatic speech act, which initiates or closes an interaction in a certain discourse (Pinto, 2008). Greeting also serves a great deal in acknowledging another person’s presence through a linguistic/verbal form of exchange (Rasmussen, Kristiansen, & Andersen, 2019). Thus, greeting contains certain rules and boundaries of engagement in human interaction, which shape the notion of greeting, though it differs among different cultures (Knuf, 1989). Human greeting may include facial expressions, gestures, verbal movement, and certain utterances- with regard to cultural norms and traditions (Trovaro et al., 2015). Holmes and Wilson (2017) state: "Greeting formulas universally serve an affective function of establishing non-
threatening contact and rapport but their precise content is clearly culture specific" (p. 308) in which all these formulas extendedly lead to various complications.

There are few studies devoted toward greeting speech act among children, as Lokken (2006) noted in a study of greetings among Norwegian toddler peers. As well as supporting the linguistical cognitive approach, Lokken (2006) study found that greetings and welcomes among children of nine to thirty months were affected by other peers in the day-care. Also, the study shows that greeting act is affected by the cultural aspect as indicated in studies of adults’ greetings. Unsurprisingly, he found that the knowledge of greeting is expanded as noted that the one and two-year children were more active and attentive greeters than other subjects. On the other hand, Brenner and Mueller (1982), Lokken (2006) and Stambak and Verba (1986) confirm that the act of playing, somehow, avoid toddlers of being engaged in certain interactions. Thus, some research studies specify the difficulty of human greeting due to its engagement differences vis-a-vis cultures (Rababah & Malkawi, 2012; Trovato et al., 2015). Though a universal and unified form of greeting was proposed to ease this complication, it has not emerged yet (Trovato et al., 2015). Rababah and Malkawi (2012) believe that the greeting act is even harder for foreigners to maintain; their study finds that different greeting utterances are used by Jordanian people according to the setting, age, sex, and relationship. A study of Muslim and Hindu greetings reveals that Muslim kids sometimes misinterpret Hindus non-verbal greetings, though they are living together (Baseer, Alvi, & Zafran, 2012).

2.3. Research questions
This study is an attempt to investigate the subject’s ability to differentiate greeting speech act upon two different contexts and cutlers (Saudi and American cultures) as long as the greeting context shapes the act of greeting. Thus, the study considers greeting differentiations of both cultures. As it is indicated in the introduction, this study aims to establish a clear concept about childhood greeting through answers to the following three research questions:

1. Does children’s greeting differ from those of adults?
2. Does greeting differ between two languages with regard to monolingual brain hypotheses?
3. Do bilingual children perceptually differentiate between the two languages?

4. Methodology
This study followed a qualitative research approach by adopting a case study research method utilizing participant observation as the data collection tool. Guest, Namey, and Mitchell (2012) state that:

Participant observation is in some ways both the most natural and the most challenging of qualitative data collection methods. It connects the researcher to the most basic of human experiences, discovering through immersion and participation the hows and whys of human behavior in a particular context (p. 75).

4.1 Participant of the Study
The data of this study is derived from the conduct of a two-year-old girl (who is the researcher’s daughter). The girl was born and has lived in Terre Haute, Indiana, United States of America. The girl has been raised in two different communities; the Saudi community (Arabic speaking
community) to which she belongs, and American community (English-speaking community) in which she was born. In other words, she is acquiring a minority language (Arabic) at home but is being educated in a majority language (English) in the day-care. It is important to specify that though the girl used to go to the day-care, from the beginning of this study, the girl has not been attending day-care until the last half of the second month of this observation this is addressed as one of the limitations of this paper in the conclusion section. To this end, the subject’s matrix language is Arabic, as long as she used to be more exposed to her parents than to the outer world.

4.2 Data Collecting
Basicly, the data collection method utilized in this study is an open observation conducted for two months. This type of study was chosen as it allows the researcher to encounter and select data in greater depth, than observing one case for just a limited time. Besides the open observation, in order to study the greeting speech act more carefully, Barns and Nobel bookstore was chosen as a place for observation. The subject was seated right beside the front door in order to enhance the chance of receiving and initiating the speech act of greeting. This part of the data collection was done twice a week for two hours a day. However, other places too have been used for the open observation, such as hotel room, restaurants, and hospitals.

5. Data Analysis
The data of this open observation is analyzed on regard to greeter’s acquaintedness (relationship to the subject), gender, and community (wither the American or Saudi). On other words, the analysis of this paper is based on how the subject is familiar to the greater, e.g., the greater might be a friend of the mother or could be known by the subject from the subject’s day-care. The greeter’s gender is one of the study’s variables. By that, the greeter’s reaction toward greeting speech act is considered upon greeter’s gender. Therefore, three parameters were measured during greeting act analysis, which are:

a) the greeting act of unfamiliar females of both communities: Saudi and American
b) the greeting act of familiar females of both communities: Saudi and American
c) Initiating Greeting and Responding to Familiar and Unfamiliar Males of both cultures: Saudis and Americans.

It is important to specify that the subject’s gestures associated to greeting speech act, such as waving a hand, nodding head or smiling are counted down as initiating greeting or responding to it.

5.1 Initiating Greeting and Responding to Unfamiliar Females of both communities (Saudi and American)
5.1.1 Initiating Greeting and Responding to Unfamiliar American Females
During gathering the open observational data, when unacquainted American female encounters the subject, the subject welcomes receiving a greeting from her. Even though the subject has no prior knowledge to or relation with the greeter. The subject might respond to the greeting act by waving her hand or by replying “Hi” and smiling.

Out of thirty-two greetings, the two-year subject has initiated the greeting twelve times
and responded to them sixteen times. Sometimes, the subject initiates the greeting by just waving her hand; which is one of the surprising findings, indicating that she is able to imbibe the American greeting concept in her mind. Notably, the subject responds to the use of the English language but not the greeter’s appearance. In some cases, the subject refers to people speaking the English language as being “Hi” community. For instance, she says “Mama, mamma, ya hi” which means “mother, mother those are hi”. Significantly, she sometimes acknowledges the speakers without even seeing them- but throughout hearing them speaking English of course- and informs her mother that the speakers are “Hi”. Obviously, she refers to the speaking community via hearing them speaking English not necessarily upon their look or physical appearance each time.

5.1.2 Initiating Greeting and Responding to Unfamiliar Arabic Females
On the other hand, when an unfamiliar Arabic Saudi female steps by, the subject doesn’t show any interest in initiating the greeting or accepting the same. In all the cases, unknown Arabic Saudi females don’t initiate greeting with the subject, but with the subject’s mother instead. Thus, the subject receives zero greeting and because of that, initiates zero greeting as well. Unknown Saudi females greet the mother of the subject with “Alsalamo Alaikum” or raising the hand high-as a companion gesture of the greeting act.

5.2 Initiating Greeting and Responding to known/familiar Females of both communities (Saudi and American)

5.2.1 Initiating Greeting and Responding to familiar American Females
Moving to the part of the greeters acquainted to the subject, and especially the known American females, the same case is happening with the unfamiliar American greeters to the subject (previous section: 5.1.1). The subject is flexible to initiate and respond by waving her hand or by saying “Hi”. Throughout the time of the observation, the subject never greets with any other word rather than “hi”, though the known female (who works in her daycare) usually says “Hello”. As has been specified in the methodology section, the subject has joined the day-care lately. Thus, the occasions of receiving and initiating the greeting with known American females are limited, because the subject doesn’t engage with known adult females except during her time at day-care. Out of twenty greetings offered in the day-care, the subject initiates two and responds to seven. Day-care is representing a new environment for the subject (without the parents), it might be challenging for her to initiate or respond to greetings. Particularly, the subject dose initiates greetings with familiar and unfamiliar American females upon two things: a) the physical appearance and social dressing code as Americans, e.g., not wearing a headscarf. b) in term of hearing them speaking the English language before seeing them (in this case, she often informs the mother that there are some English greeters).

5.2.2 Initiating Greeting and Responding to Familiar Arabic Females
However, when an acquainted Saudi Arabian female visits the subject’s family, the subject gets excited and pronounces the visitor’s name repeatedly but does not resort to the Arabic way of greeting (which is kissing the cheeks and shaking hands). Moreover, the subject never extends the American way of greeting to the known and even unknown Saudis. For example, when Brooj, a friend of the subject’s mother, enters, the subject repeatedly says: “Booz. Booz. Booz”. This
does not happen with all of her mother’s friends, but only with those, the subject loves most. Otherwise, she ignores the known visitors by not greeting them at all. On the contrary, adult Saudi female greeters do not usually initiate greeting with the subject. Instead they greet the mother. However, they occasionally ask the subject “How you doing?” or “How are you?” right after they greet the mother with the Arabic greeting style. Remarkably, she never greets an Arabic-speaking woman with the American greeting, e.g., by saying “Hi”.

5.2 Initiating Greeting and Responding to Familiar and Unfamiliar Males of both cultures: Saudis and Americans

More surprisingly, the subject never initiates or responds to any greeter of the male gender—whether the male greeter is Saudi or American. It is important to specify that just one male initiated greeting, but the subject fails even to reply or to show some interest in initiating the greeting. For instance, when a woman entered Barnes and Noble, the subject initiated the greeting saying: “Hi”, to which the women responded “Oh, hi”; a man saw what happened and tried to greet the subject by saying: “Oh, hi here”. The subject turned her face away and refused to reply. Significantly, it was the only man who ever initiated greeting during the two months of the open-observation. The only case of her initiating the greeting to a male was when she was in the drive thru’ and heard a voice speaking in English; this was at the end of the second month of the observation and mentioned as a limitation of this study in regard to the expansion of the subject’s knowledge of greeting act. It is also possible that she did not recognize the gender’s sound via the speaker of the drive-through. Table 1 displays the findings relating to greetings initiated/responded to by the subject, classified as to community, gender, and identity of the greeter. On the other hand, acquainted Saudi males a few times ask the subject some pragmatic discourse questions to open a conversation instead of a greeting, as well as familiar female greeters, do.

Table 1. Frequency of subject’s initiations and responses of greeting/speech act.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject’s Reaction toward greeting Speech act</th>
<th>Unknown American Females</th>
<th>Known American Females</th>
<th>Unknown Arabic Females</th>
<th>Known Arabic females (who are friends of the mother)</th>
<th>Known and unknown/ American Males</th>
<th>Known and unknown/ American Males</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Initiates greeting (even by waving her hand)</td>
<td>12 times</td>
<td>2 times</td>
<td>0 time</td>
<td>Initiate by names 6 times</td>
<td>1 (in the drive thru)</td>
<td>0 time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Responds to greeting</td>
<td>16 times</td>
<td>7 times</td>
<td>0 time</td>
<td>3 times</td>
<td>0 time</td>
<td>0 time</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
6. Findings with observational examples
There are several examples that clarify the subject’s understanding of greeting upon the context. For instance, in the hospital, when she listens to the nurses speaking English, she says: “Mama, mamma, ya hi” which means “mother, mother those are hi”. By that, when she hears the English language, she indicates that those are the people who say hi. This gives clear evidence that the subject perceptually distinguishes between both communities and language; in that regard, she uses the certain ways of greeting to each greeter with regard to her/his community, according to the finding of Rababah and Malkawi (2012) as well as Baseer et al. (2012) who explain that greeting speech act is with regard to the greeter’s context, identity, and age. As previously mentioned in analysis section (5.2) earlier, the subject perceives greeter’s sex in which she unlikely tend not to respond to men as it shown during the open observation that they don’t prefer greeting a two-year-girl.

Initiating greeting act with unacquainted American Females can be analysed in regard to the realization of speaker’s race and physical characteristics as specifically indicated in early language acquisition that children from an early stage acknowledge physical diversification (Follari, 2014); however this is not always the case here, because, in the hotel room, the room service lady knocked on the door and said: “room service”, to which the subject responded by saying, “Mama, mama ya hi” which means “mother, mother, it’s a hi”. It is thus clear that the subject distinguishes between the two communities through the use of language and recognizes each language as having an entity different from the other. In that regard, she initiates and responds to greeters within the right pragmatic speech act (Riches, Tomasello, & Conti-Ramsden, 2005). For instance, she never mixes up by greeting an Arabic female with “Hi”. Clearly, this is not what monolingual believers would expect, as long as they believe that the person possesses one language system and inserts different lexicons into that system (Francis & Gutiérrez, 2012).

This finding supports (Genesee, 2015; Maneva & Genesee, 2002) in which infants are found to have different responses varying with the speaker’s language.

The most notable point is aligned to cognitivists’ beliefs toward the necessity of linguistics and social stimulation in regard to language acquisition (Lewis, 1977; Riches et al., 2005; Ringler et al., 1975) More specifically, the receptive aspect of what the children have received regarding the quantity and quality of exposure in the findings of Ringler and his colleagues’ study. Similarly, this study also investigated that the subject greets people depending on how she is used to being greeted by them, and not on how they [adults] greet themselves, or how they greet her mother. For instance, the subject never imitates how the unacquainted Arabic females greet her mother; instead, she never greets them because they basically ignore her. On the other hand, lots of unacquainted American females pay attention to her and greet her without having any reservation with her. That leads to what Riches et al. (2005) specify in his book as children’s acquisition of language, in which at this stage, child’s language is not an adult language, though language input is somehow taken from adults.

Further explanation, this study shows that the subject perceived and comprehended greeting parameters of both contexts from adults’ social communications, however she applies what engages her socially with others in greeting act. Also, this agrees with the contention of
Trovato et al. (2015) and Pinto (2008) in specifying the nature of the greeting act- as it is culturally comprehended and implemented within its act. Thus, the subject also ignores males, as long as she receives not much attention or greeting from them, and until now conceptually she might be believing that she doesn’t have to greet them.

Finally, the greeting process is comprehended and acquired in the language context as a pragmatic speech act: as the subject involves herself and sees, she imitates the way of producing the speech act. This is what cognitivists, such as Riches et al. (2005) and Bybee (2010), predict. Also, the high frequency of the word uses, as Bybee (2010) explained in her work, affects words usage. For instance, the subject uses “Hi” in greeting all the time over any other English greeting word due to its high-usage frequency in spoken English language, according to the Corpus of Contemporary American English (see Table: 2)

Table 2. A Summary of the Study’s Findings in regard to Previous Studies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Study Findings</th>
<th>Agrees with Previous Studies/Linguistical Approaches</th>
<th>Disagrees with Previous Studies/Linguistical Approaches</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Greeting process is comprehended and acquired within language context as a pragmatic speech act.</td>
<td>Cognitivists. Specifically, in (H. Francis, 1972; Lewis, 1977; Riches et al., 2005; Ringler et al., 1975). (Rababah &amp; Malkawi, 2012)</td>
<td>Monolinguals</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Though she code-mixes utterances, she never mixes greetings upon the context.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greeting speech act depends on the greeter’s identity, context, and gender</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notable point, she never greets as adults, but she greets as when adults greet her.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>As she involves and sees, she imitates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Conclusion
At the end of this work, this paper answers the first question of this study: that children’s greeting does not differ from that of adults when it is copied from an adult’s input; however, children’s greeting reflects what adults greet children with (not on how adults greet each other). Thereafter, the knowledge of greeting will be expanded as the child grows into an adult. Thus, for future studies, greater attention to this type of research will have more value, considering that this study took just two months and knowledge of greeting. The researcher realizes that overgeneralization
might happen in this case, in which the early childhood acquisition goes back and forth all the time until it gets adequate to the adult’s language level. However, future studies might also investigate more about child-to-child greeting speech act in the frame of bilingual and monolingual children in term of previous literature that adheres the fact of child’s knowledge of welcoming and greeting beyond peers’ communications (Lokken, 2006).

With regard to investigating monolingualism, the second question of this research, this study shows that though children code-mix utterances by using one systematic grammar and combining languages lexicon (as in this case, the subject uses the Arabic grammar because it is the matrix language and code-switched with some English words), the subject never mixes up greetings with regard to the speaker of a particular community, and by that one would expect that if the subject had acquired both languages simultaneously from birth, the subject wouldn’t rely more on the language aspect as in this study. Genesee (2015) specified in his study that learning two languages simultaneously from birth wouldn’t ravel the acquisition of both languages. In that regard, this can be considered the second limitation of this study, which requires to be considered in future work.

The answer to the last research question is that the subject perceptually demonstrates two different entities, allowing her to distinguish between the two languages and uses the correct form of greeting with each member of the two communities (Saudis and Americans). Hence, this finding disagrees with the monolingual hypothesis in a way that monolinguals assume one language pattern in the human brain for both entities, by that, the speaker mixes utterances in regard to grammatical and structural word usage of both systems.

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References


Acknowledgement Structure in Persian and English Theses and Dissertations: A Contrastive Genre Analysis

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Abstract
Acknowledgement appears at the forefront of the high-stakes academic genre of thesis/dissertation writing. Previous research shows the generic structure of acknowledgements written by native Persian postgraduate students contains a ‘thanking-God move’, absent in native English speakers’ acknowledgements. In an approximate replication of Hyland’s (2004) study of the generic structure of acknowledgments, we aimed to verify the occurrence, frequency, and variation of moves and steps in three small corpora of acknowledgments from six disciplines (applied linguistics, business management, computer science, electrical engineering, microbial biotechnology, & biochemistry). Each corpus contained 200 sample acknowledgements written in Persian or English. The authors were native Persian speakers and native English speakers. Fifty acknowledgements (100-400 words) were randomly selected from each corpus and analyzed using Hyland’s model. Two coders carefully, content-analyzed, and coded the acknowledgments. Then the data were analyzed using descriptive and inferential statistics. The results confirmed findings of previous research indicating that acknowledgements written by native Persian speakers (in Persian & in English) contain all the moves and steps defined by Hyland plus a new step called ‘thanking-God’ step. The use of this step was significantly different across Persian and English (84% in English & 100% in Persian; $X^2 = 1.63, p \leq 0.05$) and across writers (84% Persian & 34% English; $X^2 = 28.17, p \leq 0.05$). ‘Accepting responsibility’ and ‘dedicating the thesis’ were used least frequently by all writers, while ‘thanking move’ and ‘reflecting move’ were used most frequently. Pedagogical and conceptual implications are discussed. 

Keywords: acknowledgment, genre analysis, M.A. thesis, move analysis, Ph.D. dissertation

Cite as: Zare-ee, A., & Hejazi, S. Y (2019). Acknowledgement Structure in Persian and English Theses and Dissertations: A Contrastive Genre Analysis. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 347
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.29
Introduction and Background

One of the major responsibilities of postgraduate learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) is to master ‘academic discourse’. “English academic discourse is a clearly defined entity distinguished by a series of identifiable characteristics” (Bennet, 2009, p. 44). This type of discourse, as Bennet (2009) observes, is governed by certain principles including general principles (e.g., clarity, economy, objectivity, argumentative techniques, & caution about claims), text structure principles (e.g., planning, text structure, paragraph organization, coherence, & cohesion), grammatical issues (e.g., coordination & subordination, active/passive, tense usage, & modality), lexical features (e.g., diction & technical jargon), and other features (e.g., citation, plagiarism, & data presentation). To succeed as members of academic communities, postgraduate EFL learners need the strategically vital familiarity with English academic discourse including the different parts of theses and dissertations.

Recent instruction of and research on English academic discourse has been greatly informed and influenced by developments in Bakhtinian genre analysis. Scholars working in this tradition (e.g., Giannoni, 2002; Swales, 1990) define academic discourse as a particular genre system used by academic communities for distinct communicative purposes. This genre system includes a variety of text types used in academic communities. Based on Giannoni’s (2002) summary, there are three major categories in the academic genre system:

1) primary genres (research article, journal abstract, conference abstract, oral presentation, thesis, dissertation, book, monograph, chapter, case report, review, & review article),
2) secondary genres (lecture, textbook, introductory text, post-introductory text, tutorial, & course description), and
3) occluded genres (grant proposal, recommendation letter, request letter for material/advice, application letter, submission letter, cover letter, research proposal, evaluation letter for tenure/promotion, referees’ review of book/article, referees’ grant proposal review, memo to dissertation committee, & editorial correspondence) (p. 3)

The present study looks at the genre of theses and dissertations, both of which fall under the category of primary academic genres. The terms thesis and dissertation are not internationally used in the same way. Whereas the terms dissertation and thesis are used for the final research work of M.A. and Ph.D. students in the British convention, respectively, it is the reverse in the American convention. In this study, we consider acknowledgments written by both M.A. and Ph.D. students in their final research projects. Located on the highest point of the ‘academic genre ladder’ (Swales & Feak, 2000), the dissertation is a high-stakes genre and probably the most important piece of writing which students perform in their academic studies (Hyland, 2004). Written academic discourse including theses and dissertations are used not only to produce texts representing an external reality but also to establish and maintain social relations (Hyland, 2003). Apart from the function of transmitting information about the research carried out by authors, thesis and dissertation acknowledgments also help establish interpersonal relations between students, supervisors, scholars, and readers. In fact, the acknowledgment section in theses/dissertations is a section where various manifestations of academic relationships can be observed and studied. Dating back to “a time when the benevolence and generosity of those in authority were a prerequisite for publication” (Giannoni, 2002, p. 4), acknowledging contributions of others has now become an essential feature of academic communication and writing, in general, and theses and dissertations, in particular (Hyland & Tse, 2004).

The acknowledgment genre is a significant academic genre particularly appreciated “by its positional prominence, by survey data, and by its widespread use in a range of forums” (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 259). Acknowledgments provide students with “a unique rhetorical space to both convey their genuine gratitude for the assistance and promote a capable academic and social identity” (p. 259). They “allow students to
demonstrate their awareness of some central academic values such as modesty and gratitude, establish their credibility, recognize debts, and achieve a sense of closure at the end of what is often a long and demanding research process” (Hyland, 2004, p. 304). As Ben-Ari (1987) argues, acknowledgements are important from a professional point of view since they enable the writer to not only manage his/her relationship with various individuals involved in the research project such as supervisors, families, colleagues, etc. but also build authorial credibility. Acknowledgments “support the research publication process but are not themselves part of the research record” (Swales, 1996, p. 45). Thus, acknowledgments do not simply contain a list of individuals to be thanked (Chan, 2015) but are “sophisticated and complex textual constructs which bridge the personal and the public, the social and the professional, and the academic and the lay” (Hyland, 2003, p. 265).

Research evidence on the genre structure of acknowledgments in different cultures is not yet inclusive to clarify possible cross-cultural generic variations in this area. For example, some studies (e.g., Alemi & Rezanejad, 2016; Abdollahian & Hashemi, 2013) have shown that Persian EFL writers consistently thank God in their theses acknowledgments, a step claimed to be totally absent in academic acknowledgements in other cultures. Since evidence supporting this claim is scanty, the present study methodologically replicated Hyland’s (2004) analysis of the moves and steps of acknowledgments for further verification of this finding on the structure of thesis/dissertation acknowledgments. The study aimed to not only verify this previous finding but also add to the wealth of the available data.

To this end, in the current study, the frequency of moves and steps in English and Persian acknowledgment sections of theses/dissertations written by native Persian-speaking writers were analyzed and compared with those written by native speakers of English using Hyland’s (2004) model. Since acknowledgments are not completely personal but reflect the writers’ linguistic and cultural background leading them to write with different thought patterns, (Cheng, 2012), this cross-linguistic/cultural examination of genre structure can be illuminating.

Review of Literature
Whereas a growing body of literature exists on genre analysis of thesis/dissertation introductions (e.g., Samraj, 2008; Soler-Monreal, Carbonell-Olivares, & Gil-Salom, 2011), abstracts (e.g., Friginal & Mustafa, 2017; Lorés, 2004; Martin, 2003, Samraj, 2005; Tanco, 2017), research article introductions (Bhatia, 1993; Lim, 2012; Samraj, 2002), titles (Haggan, 2004; Jalilifar, 2010), method (Cotos et al., 2017; Lim, 2011, 2017), results (Atai & Falah, 2005; Lim, 2010; Williams, 1999), discussion (Basturkmen, 2012; Holmes, 1997; Lim, 2008), and conclusion (Bunton, 2002; Loi, Lim, & Wharton, 2016), there is not considerable in-depth research on thesis/dissertation acknowledgements. A few studies have focused on different academic features used to establish and maintain such scholarly identity and academic relationships (e.g., Hyland, 2000, 2001, 2004, 2005; Kuo, 1999; Thompson, 2001). However, there is scanty research on possible cross-cultural variations in the generic structure of acknowledgment sections of these/dissertations. More specifically, based on expert views, “little is known of the ways other language groups or English L1 writers express thanks, the boundaries of personal choice, or of the influence of situational and personal factors” (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 274). The latest retrieved studies, addressing a single language, are less than two decades old (e.g., Giannoni, 2002; Hyland, 2003, 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2004). Moreover, not much is known about possible cross-cultural variations in acknowledgement sections of theses/dissertations in various international academic contexts.

Acknowledgments, as our review of the related literature shows, are used to perform a variety of functions. According to Hyland (2003), acknowledgments serve “as a means of demonstrating academic credibility, recognizing debts, and achieving a sense of closure at the end of a long and demanding research process” (p. 343). The role played by acknowledgments is related to both EFL learners and teachers.
Learners can show truths about the path that they took to complete one of their most serious academic journeys, i.e., that of writing their thesis or dissertation. “For teachers, the fact that acknowledgments allow learners to both formally record gratitude and construct a credible and sympathetic identity located in networks of association suggests that this is a genre deserving of pedagogic attention” (Hyland & Tse, 2004, p. 261). Acknowledgments provide student writers with an opportunity to appreciate the intellectual guidance, support, inspiration, moral care, and research offered to them by different agents including institutions, supervisors, informants, research committees, family members, etc. They bring authors into legitimate discourse communities and guide them for future academic interactions (see Martin & Rose, 2003). In short, the literature shows that thesis/dissertation acknowledgments play very valuable roles, not probably proportionately reflected in the volume of research devoted to them.

Seminal works on acknowledgments have attempted to explore their formal properties and show their common linguistic and socio-communicative patterns including the analysis of their moves and steps in the genre tradition. Dating back to 1972, one of the earliest attempts to explore the structure of acknowledgments was the work of Mackintosh who investigated the structure of acknowledgments and found that they were written to appreciate the help of different persons, access to data, and facilities (Tiew & Sen, 2002). Much more recently, Hyland (2003) studied the way acknowledgments are textualized and observed that they show rhetorical selections shaped by socio-cultural attributes. He identified both the persons (professors, friends, family, etc.) and the activities (scholastic assistance, moral care, specialized help, etc.) that were acknowledged in theses/dissertations at both M.A. and Ph.D. levels. He showed that ‘professors’ and ‘scholastic assistance’ were the most acknowledged ones comprising about half of the acknowledgments. In 2004, Hyland developed a content-based framework for acknowledgments by proposing three distinctive moves: Reflective Move (comment on the author’s experiences), Thanking Move (appreciation of academic help, resources, family, and friends), and Announcing Move (acceptance of responsibilities for flaws and the dedication).

Following these valuable attempts, another group of researchers have attempted to study the acknowledging behavior of native speakers of different languages mostly based on the move and step analysis carried out by Hyland (2004). Focusing on texts written in a particular language, this group of researchers have not considered any cross-cultural comparisons. Examples include studies on thesis/dissertation acknowledgments in English (Ben-Ari, 1987; Gesuato, 2008) and in other languages like Arabic and Chinese (Al-Ali, 2009, 2010; Cheng, 2012; Cheng & Kuo, 2011; Lasaky, 2011; Zhang, 2012; Zhao & Jiang, 2010).

Studies comparing cross-cultural variations in acknowledgements written by native and nonnative speakers of English are very rare in the literature. Because of the academic identity roles associated with acknowledgments, it is expected that there should be notable differences across languages and cultures in the way people write the acknowledgements. To us, there can even be individual differences: in a very strange case (probably aimed at showing journal gate-keepers’ and reviewers’ lack of due attention to the acknowledgment sections of research articles submitted for publication), Beni, Koochi, and Abadyan (2010) decided to write a very funny, totally meaningless acknowledgment that went unnoticed and was published! Generally speaking, expression and arrangement of acknowledgments are related to several different factors such as “socio-cultural values, social norms, discourse communities, relationships between acknowledgers and thanked addressees, identity and authorial credibility construction, and strategic career choices” (Chan, 2015, p. 178).

Finally, some studies have shown that there are even inter-disciplinary variations in acknowledging contributions to research. For example, research has shown that acknowledgements in soft sciences are significantly more elaborate than those in hard sciences (Giannoni, 2002). Acknowledgements are
reportedly indicative of disciplinary practices in that scholars in hard sciences, compared with those in soft sciences, use more acknowledgements, which might be due to the greater financial and institutional support they receive (Cronin, McKenzie, & Rubio. 1993). Afful (2016) also found variations in acknowledgements written by students in the English and Entomology and Wild-Life departments of a Ghanaian university.

In addition to the above studies, the related literature includes some studies that particularly look at acknowledgments written by Persian EFL writers. Abdollahian and Hashemi (2013) used Hyland’s (2004) model to analyze the acknowledgement sections of Ph.D. dissertations written by native Persian speakers in English and Persian in several soft science majors. They found no statistically significant differences between the generic structures used by these two groups. However, their analysis revealed two additional steps, namely, thanking God and opening, used by native Persian Ph.D. students. Twenty-five percent of the acknowledgements written in Persian included, in what was called the opening step, a Quranic verse, a prophetic saying, prayers on the prophet, and an invocation followed by the expression and then, bringing the author to the main acknowledgement body. Also, they reported the use of another move, i.e. thanking God, through which the dissertation writers expressed their appreciation for God’s help. Their study, however, does not make use of acknowledgements written in English by native English writers.

Mohammadi (2013) also used Hyland’s (2004) model to compare the generic move structures of Ph.D. dissertation acknowledgements written by native Persian and English speakers in a wide variety of fields including literature, translation studies, applied linguistics, history, sociology, library sciences, theology, and philosophy. He discovered the thanking God step used by a large number of native Persian speakers. It is noteworthy that he did not consider acknowledgements written in English by native Persian writers, providing no basis for direct comparison of acknowledgements written in English and Persian by native Persian writers. In a similar study (seemingly a replication of Mohammadi’s work), Lasaky (2011) established a small corpus comprising acknowledgements written in English in applied linguistics and found the new thanking God step reported to be used in a statistically significant way by native English and native Persian writers.

In a later work with a remarkably similar methodology to Mohammadi (2013), Jalilifar and Mohammadi (2014) studied 140 doctoral dissertation acknowledgments written in Persian by native speakers of Persian and in English by native speakers of English in 7 soft science disciplines. They found four moves with some constituting steps and reported both qualitative and quantitative variations between the Persian and English texts. Their focus was on the role of beliefs in God in forming the structure of acknowledgements written by Muslims including Iranians. It should be noted that their study did not focus on English acknowledgements written by native Persian writers.

Alemi and Rezanejad (2016) analyzed the generic structure of dissertation acknowledgements written in Persian from various disciplines in both hard and soft sciences. The results of their work revealed that Iranian students use three main moves including ‘framing’, ‘thanking’, and ‘closing’ moves with six, eleven, and four steps, respectively. They found some minute differences between acknowledgments written in hard and soft sciences. Focusing on only Persian acknowledgments, their study does not provide a good platform for any cross-linguistic comparisons.

Finally, Kuhi and Rezaei (2014) carried out an analysis of the generic features of acknowledgments in applied linguistics written by native English writers and native Persian writers. They found that the use of thanking God step by native Persian writers was the main difference between these acknowledgements.

To contribute to this body of research, the current study attempted to analyze acknowledgement sections in dissertations and theses based on the descriptions of common moves and steps provided by
Hyland (2003) and explore cross-linguistic variations between Persian and English. More specifically, the present study was guided by the following research questions:

1. In terms of frequencies of moves and steps, do thesis/dissertation acknowledgements written by native Persian writers in English differ significantly from those written by native Persian writers in Persian?

2. Is there any statistically significant difference between the frequencies of moves/steps in thesis/dissertation acknowledgments written by native Persian writers in English and those in the acknowledgments written by native Persian writers in Persian?

**Methodology**

The present contrastive genre analytic study focused on the description of moves and steps in acknowledgment sections of theses and dissertations written by native and non-native speakers of English following Hyland’s (2004) model in an approximate replication attempt. Methodological choices in the current study described below were informed by available guidelines for the analysis of academic genres, in general, and acknowledgment analysis, in particular (e.g. Hyland, 2003, 2004; Hyland & Tse, 2004; Swales, 1990).

**Corpus**

Three small corpora of acknowledgements were constructed for the purposes of the study: 1) Thesis and dissertation acknowledgments written in ‘Persian’ by native Persian postgraduate students; 2) Thesis and dissertation acknowledgments written in ‘English’ by native Persian postgraduate students; and 3) Thesis and dissertation acknowledgments written in ‘English’ by native speakers of English. Each corpus contained 200 acknowledgements of varying lengths (100-400 words) from six disciplines, namely, applied linguistics, business management, computer science, electrical engineering, microbial biotechnology, and biochemistry. This original data were collected from two universities in Tabriz (for native Persian speakers) and ProQuest (for native English speakers from the US, England, & Australia) from 2012 to 2016. It should be noted that authors were considered native speakers of English or Persian based on names, affiliations, and biographical notes, and online data.

**Table 1. Distribution of acknowledgements selected for analysis**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Language</th>
<th>Author</th>
<th>Texts</th>
<th>Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4795</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-Native</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>5131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persian</td>
<td>Native</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>4989</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>150</td>
<td>14915</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Fifty acknowledgements were randomly selected from each category as the final sample of texts considered for analyses, making a total number of 150 thesis and dissertation acknowledgements. Table 1 summarizes the distribution of the texts from each corpus. Each category of text type contained approximately 5000 words (Table 1).

**Text Analysis**

To analyze the selected texts, Hyland’s (2004) model of ‘move structure of dissertation acknowledgements’ was adopted, according to which there are three major moves in acknowledgment sections of
thses/dissertations: reflecting move, thanking move, and announcing the move. Definitions for these moves and their constituent steps are provided in Table 2.

Table 2. Move structure of dissertation acknowledgements (Hyland, 2004, p. 308)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves/steps</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Reflecting Move</td>
<td>Introspective comment on the writer’s research experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thanking Move</td>
<td>Mapping credit to individuals and institutions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Presenting participants</td>
<td>Introducing those to be thanked</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Thanking for academic</td>
<td>Thanks for intellectual support, ideas, analyses, and feedback, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assistance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Thanking for resources</td>
<td>Thanks for data access, clerical, technical, and financial support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Thanking for moral support</td>
<td>Thanks for encouragement, friendship, sympathy, patience, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Announcing Move</td>
<td>Public statement of responsibility and inspiration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Accepting responsibility</td>
<td>An assertion of authorial responsibility for flaws and errors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Dedicating the thesis</td>
<td>A formal dedication of the thesis to one or more individuals</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Move/Step Identification Procedures

The main task in the analysis of the data was the identification of moves and sub-moves or steps. In genre analysis, the unit of analysis is a rhetorical move, which may carry more specific communicative functions as reflected in steps (Swales, 2004). Following Hyland (2003), we considered any text segment (varying in size and shape), which was constrained by a specific discourse goal, as a move. In other words, the moves in the texts were considered as a functional unit used for some identifiable discoursal objective (see Connor, 2000; Holmes, 1997). The researchers read the acknowledgments meticulously sentence by sentence, paying attention to the communicative purpose of each sentence. Suggestions for this type of analysis have also been made by Bhatia (1993) based on which sentences are chosen as the unit of analysis, and their communicative purpose becomes the identifying feature of each move. The process of identification of moves involved focusing on formal clues such as explicit lexemes and expressions, verb forms, markers, and sentence functions. Based on the descriptions provided by Hyland (2004), the communicative function of each fragment in acknowledgements was given priority in identifying the move. The move structure model was discussed and applied by both researchers to code the texts, and an inter-coder agreement of 93% was achieved. When there were disagreements in coding, the discrepancies were resolved by discussion. In sum, linguistic evidence, practices of previous scholars (e.g. Hyland 2003, 2004), and double-check comprehension of the acknowledgement texts were the main guidelines in the coding process.

Data Analysis and Results

To address the first research question concerning the moves/steps common in native Persian speakers’ thesis and dissertation acknowledgments written in English and Persian, move analysis of acknowledgment sections of theses/dissertations was carried out. The analysis revealed some interesting results: 1) the coding and analysis of acknowledgements written by native Persian speakers (in Persian & in English) indicated that they contained all the moves and steps defined by Hyland (2004), and 2) an additional step called ‘thanking-God’ was also discovered. In his move structure model, Hyland (2004) had suggested a four-step thanking move. However, we needed to add a fifth step since a considerable number of the acknowledgements written by native Persian speakers in English and Persian included strings that fulfilled this function (N = 42, 84%; English; N = 50, 100%; Persian). Below are examples from the two types of acknowledgements where the author’s communicative purpose was to thank God. These and other similar instances in our sample could not be taken as academic or moral support, nor could they be coded as
thanking sources or participants directly involved in the research. Hence, they were coded as a new step, i.e., ‘thanking-God’.

**Corpus 1: Examples of acknowledgements written in English by Iranian writers**

1. I thank God for helping me to complete my thesis.
2. First of all, I want to thank God for all the many blessings he has bestowed upon me, for giving me the opportunity to begin and finish ….
3. My heartfelt thanks go to God for his …
4. First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to God: I thank God for all the wisdom and perseverance.
5. Thanks God for supporting me all the time.

**Corpus 2: Examples of acknowledgements written in Persian by Iranian writers**

1. می‌پسندم به خداوند وکَلله‌ایان به پیام وکَلله‌ایان را از من نمایند بود. (I thank the holy God who did not withdraw His great favors from me.)
2. حمد و ستایش خداوند را که مرا در انجام این پروژه پژوهشی بهره‌وری و در امکاناتی را داده‌اند. (Praise and thanks go to God who helped me complete this research project.)
3. در ابتدا، نهایت سپاس خود را از خداوند باری تعالی دارم. (First of all, I would like to express my unending thanks to the great God.)
4. کلاین که به امکانات فردی وکَلله‌ایان، خوشبختی‌های ما و جهان‌نامه وکَلله‌ایان بوده است … (In spite of all limitations, this thesis has now come to an end because of the mercy of our great God…)

**Table 3. Frequencies of the moves/steps used by native Persian speakers in English and Persian**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves/steps</th>
<th>Frequency (Percentage)</th>
<th>Chi-Square Value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>English</td>
<td>Persian</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Reflecting Move</td>
<td>35 (70%)</td>
<td>28 (56%)</td>
<td>.78</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thanking Move</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Thanking God</td>
<td>42 (84%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>1.63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Presenting participants</td>
<td>22 (44%)</td>
<td>27 (54%)</td>
<td>.51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Thanking for academic assistance</td>
<td>43 (86%)</td>
<td>45 (90%)</td>
<td>.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Thanking for resources</td>
<td>34 (68%)</td>
<td>31 (62%)</td>
<td>1.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Thanking for moral support</td>
<td>30 (60%)</td>
<td>29 (58%)</td>
<td>.66</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Announcing Move</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>21 (42%)</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Accepting responsibility</td>
<td>14 (28%)</td>
<td>14 (28%)</td>
<td>.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Dedicating the thesis</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>7 (14%)</td>
<td>.88</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen from the results in Table 3, all native Persian speakers (100%) used the ‘thanking God’ step when writing in Persian, and 84% used this step when writing in English. In other words, native Persian authors thanked God as an obligatory step in their writing in both their mother tongue and English. The percentages of the use of this step (84% in English & 100% in Persian) were significantly different ($\chi^2 = 1.63$, p $\leq 0.05$).

The second research question probed possible differences between the moves/steps used in the acknowledgment sections written in English by native Persian speakers and those by native speakers of English. To this end, move and step frequencies were tabulated, and Chi-square tests were run in SPSS (version 22) to find any statistically significant differences. As Table 4 shows, ‘accepting responsibility’
and ‘dedicating the thesis’ were the least frequently steps used by both native and nonnative writers, while ‘thanking move’ and ‘reflecting move’ were the most frequently used moves.

Table 4. Differences in frequencies of the moves/steps used by native Persian and native English writers in English acknowledgements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Moves/Steps</th>
<th>Native English writers</th>
<th>Native Persian writers</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Reflecting Move</td>
<td>32 (64%)</td>
<td>35 (70%)</td>
<td>.407</td>
<td>.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Thanking Move</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>50 (100%)</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>--</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.1 Thanking God</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>42 (84%)</td>
<td>28.17</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.2 Presenting participants</td>
<td>25 (50%)</td>
<td>22 (44%)</td>
<td>.361</td>
<td>.548</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.3 Thanking for academic assistance</td>
<td>42 (84%)</td>
<td>43 (86%)</td>
<td>.078</td>
<td>.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.4 Thanking for resources</td>
<td>26 (52%)</td>
<td>34 (68%)</td>
<td>3.405</td>
<td>.065</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.5 Thanking for moral support</td>
<td>35 (70%)</td>
<td>30 (60%)</td>
<td>2.102</td>
<td>.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Announcing Move</td>
<td>17 (34%)</td>
<td>18 (36%)</td>
<td>.174</td>
<td>.677</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.1 Accepting responsibility</td>
<td>12 (24%)</td>
<td>14 (28%)</td>
<td>.457</td>
<td>.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.2 Dedicating the thesis</td>
<td>5 (10%)</td>
<td>4 (8%)</td>
<td>.122</td>
<td>.727</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Moreover, Chi-square analyses indicated a statistically significant difference between native and nonnative speakers of English in using the *thanking God* step ($X^2= 28.17, p≤.05$). More specifically, only 17 native English speakers (34%) thanked God while 42 native Persian speakers (84%) used this step.

Discussion

This study was an approximate replication of Hyland’s (2004) study of the generic structure of acknowledgment sections of theses and dissertations. It explored the occurrence, frequency, and variation of moves and steps in three groups of acknowledgments: those written in Persian by native Persian speakers, those in English by native Persian speakers, and those in English by native English-speaking authors. Hyland’s (2004) model, utilized for the contrastive genre analysis of acknowledgment texts, fitted the data (except for a minor step) and adequately explained the generic organization and communicative functions of strings in the selected acknowledgments. Strings which could not be assigned to any of the steps or moves specified in Hyland’s model were classified as an additional step called *thanking God* based on their content. These strings could not be considered as expressions of gratitude for the moral support received from family and friends because they had already been mentioned as realizations of another step. Findings confirms the results of similar research by Iranian scholars (e.g., Alemi & Rezanejad, 2016; Jalilifar & Mohammadi, 2014; Kuhi & Rezaei, 2014).

This finding can best be explained in the light of cultural/ideological dimensions of genre. As Cheng (2012) observes, authors of acknowledgment sections are highly influenced by their cultural backgrounds in employing rhetorical devices to fulfill communicative functions and express their identities. Iranian students can rarely be seen to start a viva session, an academic presentation, a term paper, or in this case, a thesis/dissertation acknowledgement without mentioning and thanking God. This additional step is, to us, a reflection of how authors’ ideology can alter an otherwise agreed-upon generic structure. Even though English acknowledgments written by Iranians included the *thanking God* step significantly less than Persian acknowledgments (84% versus 100%), the high frequency of the use of this step in both English and Persian texts clearly indicates how genre features may be transferred across cultures/languages.
Native Persian authors’ use of thanking God step reflects Fairclough’s (1995) view that the place of text production and its situational and socio-cultural contexts highly affect its generic structure. Castleton (2006) also confirms that social relations are regulated by religious percepts. To Castleton, such values are indistinguishable from religious values, and communicative practices tend to be derived from an inner need to satisfy religious beliefs. Individuals do not have to be either those who do favors or those who must fulfill obligations for the thesis/dissertations writers to be acknowledged. They could be thanked because of religious obligations, and in this context, the obligation to see God as present in man’s every act is very noticeable.

Similarities between the moves and steps used by native Persian and native English writers can be explained by a) possible similarities between the communicative purposes in the two contexts, and b) the effect of instruction by professors and imitation of acknowledgements written by native English writers.

The findings of the study revealed that the most frequent moves in acknowledgments written in English (by both native and nonnative speakers of English) were thanking and reflecting moves, while accepting responsibility and dedicating steps were the least frequently used steps. The thanking-God move discovered in the present analysis was not commonly used by native speakers of English. This finding also shows that genres can vary across cultures. More specifically, some generic variations can assumably result from writers’ authorial backgrounds as well as the requirements of the language in which the text is produced. In other words, authors with different first languages write differently, and Iranian authors also write differently when they compose texts in two different languages.

Conclusions and Suggestions
The findings of the current study not only confirm the generic structure of thesis/dissertation acknowledgments described by Hyland (2004) but also show minor cross-linguistic and cross-cultural variations in producing the same genre. Familiarity with these variations can be illuminating for both research and pedagogy. As Hyland (2002) suggests, the mastery of genre knowledge would help students in becoming members of their disciplinary community. Bhatia (1997) also confirms that genre analysis provides novice writers with useful information about the conventions of a particular genre to enable them to produce more complex texts. With the awareness of genre practices, novice writers can gain long-term benefits from the explicit knowledge of genre conventions to ultimately produce more complex genres based on genre exemplars (Loi & Evans, 2010).

Compared to the considerable amount of research on oral compliments across different cultural settings, the literature on written acknowledgments is scanty. Future research in this area can shed more light on the contrastive genre analysis of acknowledgements by collecting larger corpora from a wider range of disciplines and first language backgrounds. This can provide opportunities to explore the effects of nationality, linguistic and cultural background, and academic discipline on possible variations in composing the acknowledgements.

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www.awej.org
ISSN: 2229-9327


Functional Analyses of Metadiscourse Markers in L2 Students’ Academic Writing

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Abstract
Stance in general and metadiscourse markers, in particular, have attracted the interest of several studies. Therefore, this study explores the use of metadiscourse in the second language (L2) academic writing by English as a foreign language (EFL) postgraduates in one of the Malaysian public universities. We analyzed the frequency and wordings of modality within the citations of the literature review chapters of 20 Ph.D. theses employing the Systemic Functional Linguistics. Data were analyzed manually utilizing the technique of quantifying the findings to highlight the similarities and differences in using metadiscourse markers. The findings revealed the dominance of full declarative clauses in both Applied Linguistics and Information Technology. Besides the Finite Modal Operators, Mood Adjuncts and Comment Adjuncts were also used to demonstrate modality with a variety in their stance, degrees, and frequencies. Pedagogically, these findings could help supervisors in identifying the implications of their students’ writings. In addition, students can be directed towards reading EAP textbooks and materials that are dedicated to areas of academic writing, metadiscourse markers, and citations.

Keywords: EAP/ESP, metadiscourse markers, stance, EFL postgraduates, Systemic Functional Linguistics

Introduction
Writers have to meet the expectations of their readers by means of understanding the linguistic structures and norms of each discipline. Therefore, advanced academic literacy assumes that mastering the disciplinary practices could enhance students’ control of the varied cultural and linguistic structures that are essential for them to engage critically with texts (Hyland & Jiang, 2018a) by means of using the metadiscourse markers. The significance of adopting an authorial stance in academic writing has recently received a considerable amount of research (Hyland & Jiang, 2018a, 2018b; Jiang & Wang, 2018; Jomaa & Bidin, 2017). Therefore, successful writers should be familiarized with using a range of rhetorical features to highlight the novelty of their research, evaluate their findings, and establish harmony with their readers (Hyland & Jiang, 2018b). However, university students (Donahue, 2004; Morton & Storch, 2018) particularly EFL postgraduates (Jomaa & Bidin, 2017) seem to have difficulties in academic writing (Almatarneh, Rashid, & Yunus, 2018), in adopting a stance and projecting their voice due to having insufficient guidelines on using evaluative expressions and/or being unaware of using metadiscourse markers. Hence, this study explores the use of metadiscourse markers utilizing the Systemic Functional Linguistics approach.

Literature Review
The role of metadiscourse is to organize texts, reveal the attitude of the writer, and engage the readers. These metadiscourse markers were defined by Hyland (2005) as: ‘the self-reflective expressions used to negotiate interactional meanings in a text, assisting the writer (or speaker) in expressing a viewpoint and engaging with readers as members of a particular community.’ p. 370

Hyland and Tse (2004) distinguish between interactive and interactional metadiscourse; the former is concerned with organizing the text for guiding the reader through it, whereas the latter is concerned with engaging the reader in a relationship with the writer in order to direct the reader towards the perspectives of the writer on the propositional content.

An earlier study by Hyland (1998) on metadiscourse in 28 research articles in four academic disciplines explore how the appropriate use of the metadiscourse depends on the rhetorical context. Hyland adopted the metadiscourse taxonomy of Crismore, Markkanen, and Steffensen (1993), which classified the metadiscourses into textual and interpersonal types, and these are classified into more specific functions. Textual metadiscourse devices are used to form a coherent and convincing text, depending on the functions of five categories, among them is using evidential (Yang, 2013) to indicate the source of information, such as ‘according to’ and ‘Hyland (2000) argues’. Regarding the interpersonal metadiscourse, it is used to convey the stance of the author, including certainty, assertiveness, negativity, doubt, neutrality, and uncertainty (Thompson & Ye, 1991; Hyland, 1999). In other words, this type of metadiscourse is mainly interactional and evaluative to indicate the writer’s persona, intimacy, and commitment, and includes several subcategories. For instance, hedges are used to reveal the writer’s cautious attitude towards the statements through using perhaps, might, about, it is possible, and possibly. In Hyland’s (1994) examination of hedging in 22 EAP textbooks intended for L2 students around the world, it was found that modal verbs occupied the majority of the textbook coverage. However, only English for Science and Writing up Research addressed the epistemic usage of the modal verbs to reveal the writers’ attitude of uncertainty. The modal verbs included will as the most certain, through
would, should, may, and could as the most tentative modal verbs. Hence, these textbooks did not include sufficient information on the modal verbs. Emphatics as the second subcategory are used to reveal certainty (Szczyrbak, 2017) by using expressions like ‘it is clear, clearly, obviously, obvious, in fact’, and ‘definitely’. According to Hyland and Tse (2004), boosters are effective linguistic expressions in strengthening the illocutionary force of speech acts (Holmes, 1982). Obviously, the function of boosters is revealing confidence in an assertion (Holmes, 1988; Crismore et al., 1993) or ending the debate and the possible alternative argument (Hyland, 1998; Gillaerts & Van de Velde, 2010): ‘by closing down possible alternatives, boosters emphasize certainty and construct rapport by marking involvement with the topic and solidarity with an audience, taking a joint position against other voices’ (Hyland, 2005, p. 53).

The third subcategory of the interpersonal metadiscourse is the attitude markers which are used to reveal the writer’s affective attitude towards the textual information, but this is relatively different from hedges in the sense that they convey more varieties, including obligation, agreement, importance, and surprise. Attitude markers include examples, such as X claims, I agree, and surprisingly. Hence, metadiscourse devices are significant and highly effective when used appropriately. In this context, writers usually attempt to establish a recognizable social world by means of rhetorical options which enable them to create interpersonal negotiations and make balanced claims for the originality, significance, and plausibility of their studies (Hyland, 2005).

In adopting the Systemic Functional Linguistics, the focus is on the lexico-grammatical patterns through the words and structures used in the clauses of citations. The lexico-grammatical analysis involves the three language metafunctions: Ideational, Interpersonal, and Textual that are associated with the three register variables: Field, Tenor, and Mode, respectively (Halliday & Martin, 1993; Eggins, 2004, Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). In this regard, the clause can reveal three distinct types of meanings: clause as a message, clause as an exchange, and clause as a representation as in Table 1.
Table 1. *Three Lines of Meaning in the Clause*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Metafunction</th>
<th>Clause as</th>
<th>System</th>
<th>Structure</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Textual</td>
<td>Message</td>
<td>Theme</td>
<td>Theme  Rheme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal</td>
<td>Exchange</td>
<td>Mood</td>
<td>Mood[Subject+ Finite]+ Residue[ predicator+ (Complement) (+Adjunct)]</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experiential</td>
<td>representation</td>
<td>Transitivity</td>
<td>Process+ participant(s) (+circumstance), e.g. Process+ Actor+ Goal</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(adapted from Halliday and Matthiessen, 2014)

In the present study, modality was examined in the clauses of the citations used in the literature review chapters of Applied Linguistics and Information Technology. Hence, the present study addresses the following questions:

1. How are the clauses of citations structured to realize the interpersonal meanings?
2. What types of metadiscourse markers are used by EFL postgraduates to reveal their stance?

**Methodology**

**Procedure**

The present study is based on analyzing the use of metadiscourse markers by EFL postgraduates. Swales’ (1990) classification was followed in order to identify all citations in the literature review chapters of 20 Ph.D. theses. The metadiscourse constituents were analyzed based on the modality under the Systemic Functional Linguistics (Halliday, 1985). Figure 1 describes the conceptual framework that guides the present study.
Table 2. *Number of Citations in the Literature Review Chapters of AL and IT Theses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Integral citation</th>
<th>Non-integral citation</th>
<th>Mixed type of citation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Applied Linguistics</td>
<td>2,350</td>
<td>1,079</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information Technology</td>
<td>1,184</td>
<td>917</td>
<td>60</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 includes the total number of citations used in the literature review chapters of Ph.D. theses by EFL postgraduates in two disciplines: Applied Linguistics and Information Technology. Each sentence with either a clause simplex or a clause complex that involves either a single citation or multiple citations is considered one citation.

**Sampling**

The study employed a purposeful sampling in choosing the literature review chapters of 20 Ph.D. theses in Applied Linguistics and Information Technology by EFL Arab postgraduates. These Ph.D. theses were deposited in a library of one of the Malaysian public universities. Using these Ph.D. theses for academic purposes was approved by the Dean of the Graduate Schools at the university. Ten Ph.D. theses belong to Information Technology discipline (IT) in the hard domain, whereas ten Ph.D. theses are from Applied Linguistics in the soft domain. The total pages that were analyzed included 656 pages from IT Ph.D. theses and 736 pages from Applied Linguistics Ph.D. theses.

**Results**

The findings involve looking at the relationship between the semantic organization of the interaction and the grammatical differences in the mood structure of the clauses. In addition, the findings focus on exploring modality, including modalization and modulation.

**Mood Class of the Clause**

Table 3 represents the Mood classes of clauses in citations used in the literature review chapters of 20 PhD theses.

Table 3. *Mood Class of Clauses in IT and AL Literature Review Chapters*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mood class</th>
<th>Information Technology</th>
<th>Applied Linguistics</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Full declarative</td>
<td>5386</td>
<td>37.55</td>
<td>8956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total citations</td>
<td>2,163</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>3,520</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clause/s per citation</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td></td>
<td>2.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 3 shows, the literature review chapters of IT and AL theses include 14,342 full declarative clauses. 8956 (62.45%) clauses are used in the literature review chapters of AL, whereas 5386 (37.55%) clauses are used in the literature review chapters of IT. This implies that
the literature review chapters of AL include a higher number of full declarative clauses. On the other hand, only one clause is imperative. The dominance of the full declarative clauses illustrates the similarity of the two domains in terms of the speech functions. In other words, using the language to exchange information entails that the clauses used in the citations are employed in the form of a proposition in order to show familiarity with the research topic. Thus, there is an opportunity to argue, claim, support, negate, report, affirm or doubt. The dominance of only one Mood class that is the full (non-elliptical) declarative indicates that the texts are written genres. In these types of written genres, it is not possible to exchange feedback between the writer and the reader, as well as the common shared focus is giving information.

**Components of the Clause**

In clauses of the citations used to exchange information, two components are involved: MOOD and RESIDUE. MOOD involves the ‘Subject’ and the “Finite”, whereas the RESIDUE consists of a ‘Predicator’, a ‘Complement’, and an ‘Adjunct’. The followings are some extracted examples from the literature review chapters by EFL Arab postgraduates.

**Example 1:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Argamon et al. (2005)</th>
<th>analysed the texts of the applied science, arts, commerce, and leisure.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOOD</td>
<td>RESIDUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(P.4/YE/AL/S.2.5.2/Pr.4/L.571-572/Pg.65)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Example 2:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types, details, and flavors of TCP protocol</th>
<th>can be found in [36, 37, 38, 59, 60].</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>MOOD</td>
<td>RESIDUE</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(P.7/SY/IT/S.2.1.4/Pr.2/L.86-87/Pg.22)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In both examples 1 and 2, each citation consists of one clause simplex, and each clause has two components: MOOD and RESIDUE. What makes example (1) different from example (2) is using the Finite ‘can’ in example (2).

**MOOD Component of the Clause**

The MOOD component of the clause consists of two constituents which are the ‘Subject’ and the ‘Finite’, as in example 3.

**Example 3:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CMDA</th>
<th>May</th>
<th>be applied to four levels of language (Herring, 2004, p. 3):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Finite</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOOD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(P.10/JO/AL/S.2.5.2/Pr.3/L.1762/Pg.110)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second essential constituent of the MOOD in full declarative clauses is the ‘Finite’ which is the verbal type element. The functional role of the ‘Finite’ in the clause is to make the proposition definite and arguable. In other words, the ‘Finite’ is used to express modalisation (probability/certainty) and modulation (obligation/inclination). Example (4) demonstrates the ‘Finite’ as a constituent in the clause.

(4) These controls may not reduce the effect of vulnerability, but they can reduce natural risk in different ways [9]. (P.16/YE/IT/S.2.4.1/Pr.7/L.146-148/Pg.20)

In example (5), the citation is a clause complex because it consists of two clauses. In the first clause, the Finite ‘may’ is used, whereas in the second clause, the Finite ‘can’ is used.

(5) Clause one

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Finite</th>
<th>MOOD</th>
<th>RESIDUE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>These controls</td>
<td>may not reduce the effect of vulnerability…</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(5) Clause two

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>Finite</th>
<th>MOOD</th>
<th>RESIDUE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>…they</td>
<td>can reduce natural risk in different ways [9]</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows the number and frequencies of using the ‘Finite’ to express modality in the citations of EFL postgraduates’ academic writing. The citations of the literature review chapters of AL include a higher percentage of modalisation (58.43%) and modulation (66.66%) compared with IT.

Table 4. ‘Finite’ in the Citations of the Literature Review of AL and IT Theses

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Modality</th>
<th>Applied Linguistics</th>
<th>Information Technology</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modalisation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(probability/certainty)</td>
<td>419</td>
<td>58.43%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Modulation</td>
<td>136</td>
<td>66.66%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(obligation/inclination)</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>41.57%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Finite</td>
<td>366</td>
<td>33.33%</td>
<td>204</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>555</td>
<td>39.74%</td>
<td>921</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, the citations in the literature review chapters of IT have a lower percentage of ‘Finite’ to express modalisation (41.57%) and modulation (33.33%). These findings probably reflect the effect of tenor that is represented by EFL postgraduates. Those who belong to the academic community of the soft domain tended to use a higher frequency of modality since the soft domain is based on the strength of the arguments. On the other hand, those who belong to the academic community of the hard domain used modality with a lower frequency in citations.
since the hard domain is based on facts rather than arguments. Consequently, modality was used with a lower percentage.

Identifying the ‘Finite’ constituent is based on the sequence. In other words, when there is a group of verbal elements, the ‘Finite’ constituent is the first part of the verbal group, as in example (6).

(6) It can be used for different purposes (Ling, 2005; Thurlow, 2003). (P. 10/JO/AL/S.2.5.1/Pr.4/L.1723/1724/Pg.107)

In some examples, there is no explicit ‘Finite’ constituent in the clause. Rather, the ‘Finite’ is fused with the predicator, as in example (7).

(7) Sadiq (2010, p. 33) indicates that the language of the Holy Qurān is full of numerous examples of ellipsis. (P.11/LI/AL/S.2.4.2.3.3/Pr.2/L.1179-1180/Pg.64)

In example (7), the first clause (Sadiq (2010, p.33) indicate…), has no explicit ‘Finite’ constituent. Rather, the ‘Finite’ is fused with the Predator ‘indicate’. Hence, the ‘Finite’ constituent is of two kinds: **Temporal Finite Verbal Operators** anchor the proposition by reference to time. These give tense to the finite, including the present, past or future. The examples below demonstrate the usages of ‘Finite’ as a ‘**Temporal Finite Verbal Operator**’:

(8) IT infrastructure consists of IT architecture, processes, and skills (Papp, 1995). (P. 17/JO/IT/S.2.2/Pr.9/L.123/Pg.23)

(9) They then proposed fine-tuning strategies for these RTO component parameters. (P.7/SY/IT/S.2.3.1.1/Pr.17/L.552-553/Pg.45)

(10) As such, the system will affect older users who have a lot of experience (Venkatesh et al., 2003). (P.13/JO/IT/S.2.11.10/Pr.8/L.990-991/Pg.78)

In examples (8) and (9), the ‘finite verbal operator’ in ‘consists’ refers to the simple present and the ‘finite verbal operator’ in ‘proposed’ refers to the simple past. However, in example (10), the ‘finite verbal operator’ represented by ‘will’ refers to the future tense explicitly.

The other kind of Finite is called ‘**Finite Modal Operators**’. These kinds of ‘Finite’ make the proposition arguable by allowing the writer to adopt a stance and project his/her voice. In other words, the writer can express his/her attitude through either modalisation involving probability and/or usuality or modulation involving obligation and/or inclination. This stance can range from high, though median to low. The examples below illustrate such a usage of the ‘Finite Modal Operators’ to express modalisation (probability and certainty).

(11) Like Saussure, Chomsky argued that the structural characteristics of language must be the linguists’ primary object of concern. (P.1/IR/AL/S.2.3.1/P.3/L.85/87/P.34)
When it is correctly implemented, it will enable constant improvement in performance and decision making [74, 79, 80].

Filter and wrapper approaches may be further classified into five main methods: forward selection, backward elimination, forward/backward combination, random choice and, finally, instance-based method (Basiri, Aghae & Aghdam, 2008 and Kanan, Faez & Taheri, 2007).

In example (11), the Finite Modal Operator ‘must’ is used to express a high stance of probability. Similarly, the Finite Modal Operator ‘will’ in example (12) expresses a median stance of probability. The Finite ‘may’ also reveals a low stance of probability. Consequently, between positive and negative clauses, three degrees of probability were found, including high, median and low, as in Figure 2.

**Figure 2.** Finite modal operators to express degrees of probability

Finite Modal Operators are not limited only to Modalisation to express probability, but they are also employed to express Modulation with different rates of stance ranging from high through median and low. Modulation included expressing either obligation and/or inclination, as in examples (14) and (15).

Approximately 70,000 employees of the Ministry must participate in this program (ICDL foundation, 2007).

Such type of reflection-on-action should be encouraged and practiced collectively and in groups in universities or centers of higher education (Akbari, 2007).

In example (14), the Finite Modal Operator ‘must’ is used to express a high stance of obligation. Similarly, the Finite Modal Operator ‘should’ in example (15) expresses a median stance of obligation, as demonstrated in Figure 3.
Figure 3. Finite modal operators to express degrees of obligation

These Finite Modal Operators are also used to express inclination, as in example (16).

(16) Some researchers, such as Ahmed et al. (2009) would argue that many of the previous studies focused mainly on the USA when representing the Western world. (P.20/JO/IT/S.2.2.3/P.21/L.1350-1352/P.94)

Finite constituents can carry another semantic feature which is *polarity*. This polarity makes the proposition either positive or negative, as in example (17).

(17) This difficulty arises when EFL writers cannot distinguish between opinions from facts (Hyland & Milton, 1997). (P.4/YE/AL/S.2.7/P.5/L.728-729/P.73)

However, in non-finite clauses, there is no ‘Finite’ constituent. This includes perfective and imperfective clauses as in examples (18) and (19).

(18) They analyzed the data using *Structural equation modeling*. (P.20/IT/Jo/S.2.2.1/Pr.83/L.810-811/Pg.65)

(19) To examine *Hybrid genres*, Bhatia (2010a) examined a number of annual reports that were taken from companies in Hong Kong. (P.2/JO/AL/S.2.3.2/P.5/L.790-791/P.53)

In conclusion, ‘Finite’ constituents were either explicitly used or implicitly fused with the predicator. These ‘Finite’ constituents significantly indicate the tense, make the proposition arguable, and imply polarity. The high density of citations and the effect of the academic community to which the tenor belongs were the main reasons for using the Finite Modal Operators with a higher number of frequency in the citations of AL compared to IT.

**RESIDUE component of the clause**

The second component of the clause is RESIDUE, which is less essential to the arguability of the clause. Similar to MOOD, the RESIDUE includes more than one constituent, including a ‘Predicator’, a ‘Complement’, and an ‘Adjunct’.
The predicator, which is the lexical part of the verbal group, carries the lexical meaning and specifies the type of the processes that is involved in the clause, as demonstrated in examples (20) and (21).

(20) Milad et al. (2012) evaluated BA and Skipjack performance. (P.9/IR/IT/S.2.3.3.1.2/Pr.7/L.667/Pg.57)

(21) Clark (2005) provides a summary of the beliefs about the causes of writing apprehension among freshman students at Chandler-Glibert Community College. (P.3/JO/AL/S.2.5/Pr.9/L.1173-1174/Pg.74)

In both examples (20) and (21), when analyzing the clause based on the constituents used, the predicator ‘evaluated’ is divided into two parts; half a part is in the MOOD component of the clause, whereas the other part is in the RESIDUE component of the clause, as in example (22).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Argamon et al. (2005)</th>
<th>analysed</th>
<th>the texts of the applied science, arts, commerce, and leisure.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subject</td>
<td>Finite</td>
<td>Predicator</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MOOD</td>
<td>RESIDUE</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The ‘Complement’ constituent that follows the predicator is the second constituent of the RESIDUE, as in example (23).

(23) Shannon (1949) deduced the theoretical principles of confusion and diffusion. (P.9/IT/IR/S.2.1.1/Pr.1/L.98-99/Pg.16)

The main function of the ‘Complement’ is for enhancing the clarification of the communicated information.

‘Adjunct’ is another constituent of the RESIDUE that is either adverbial or prepositional rather than a nominal constituent and adds additional information that is not essential to the clause.

(24) Also, their simulation results showed dramatic improvement in the TCP-FeW performance. (P.7/SY/IT/S.2.3.2.1/Pr.13/L.888-889/Pg.61)

Adjuncts that add information to the interpersonal meanings encompass two types: Modal Adjuncts and Comment Adjuncts. Modal Adjuncts are also constituents that add interpersonal meanings to the clause. Only two types of Modal Adjuncts including Mood Adjuncts and Comment Adjuncts were found in the citations of EFL postgraduates’ Ph.D. theses. Mood Adjuncts are considered as a part of the MOOD component of the clause, thus revealing a meaning that is closely related to the Finite Modal Operators. In other words, the Mood Adjuncts were used to express modalisation (probability and usuality). For more clarification, in example (25), the Mood Adjunct ‘likely’ expresses a median stance of probability, whereas example (26) includes the Mood Adjunct ‘usually’ to reveal a median degree of the usuality of the action.

(25) Furthermore, women are more likely to use more standard forms in speech than men (Coates, 1993; Holmes, 2008; Trudgill, 1983). (P.10/JO/AL/S.2.3.1.3/P.9/L.566-567/Pg.52)
For example, Jones and van Rijsbergen (1976) showed that 250 queries are usually acceptable while Leung suggests that 20 queries are enough (Leung & Ip, 2000). (P.18/IR/IT/S.2.1.6/P.B 12/L.337-339/P.34-35)

Figure 4 demonstrates the number of Mood Adjuncts used in Modalisation to reveal either probability or usuality. (170) Mood Adjuncts are used in the citations of the literature review chapters of AL and IT theses. (75.29%) of Mood Adjuncts are used in the literature review chapters of AL theses, whereas only (24.71%) are used in the literature review chapters of IT theses.

The majority of these Mood Adjuncts express modalisation (usuality); (77.86%) are used in AL, whereas (22.14%) are used in IT theses. This is followed by Mood Adjuncts to reveal probability. The similarity in using a higher number of Mood Adjuncts to express usuality, followed by probability reveals the effect of tenor on using modality. In other words, in spite of the different fields to which AL and IT belong, EFL postgraduates were similar in using a high frequency of Mood Adjuncts to express usuality. However, the low use of Mood Adjuncts to reveal a stance of probability in both disciplines can be due to the low level of knowledge in using such expressions by EFL postgraduates. On the other hand, the high use of usuality can be due to the Mood Adjuncts which are emphasized in teaching English tenses in the Arab countries.

The stance of revealing probability by means of the Mood Adjuncts is also of different degrees ranging from high through median to low, as in examples (27), (28), and (29).

(27) The relevant descriptors to this thesis are certainly the MPEG-7 colour descriptors that include scalable colour......(Chang, Sikora & Purl, 2001; Manjunath, Ohm, Vasudevan & Yamada, 2001). (P.18/IR/IT/S.2.1.2/Pr.3/L.87-91/Pg.22)

(28) This substitution is probably made to achieve brevity by omitting insignificant details......(Al-Salem 2008, p. 181). (P.11/LI/AL/S.2.4.2.3.2/Pr.6/L.1161-1163/Pg.64)

(29) In [110], a dynamic placement algorithm was proposed that takes into account the dynamicity of sites in the data grid, since a site can at any time leave the grid and possibly join again later. (P.15/PA/IT/S.2.4.8/Pr.11/L.545-547/Pg.40)
The Mood Adjuncts ‘certainly’, ‘probably’ and ‘possibly’ are used to express certainty and probability, ranging from high certainty through using ‘certainly’ to a median probability through using the Mood Adjunct ‘probably’ and a low stance of probability by using the Mood Adjunct ‘possibly’. Similarly, Mood Adjuncts are also used to reveal the stance of frequency and usuality. This stance has different grades, ranging from high through median to low, as in examples (30), (31), and (32), respectively.

(30) Their senses and meanings always overlap, and scholars define them in various ways (Sun, 2012). (P.11/LI/AL/S.2.5/Pr.1/L.1201-1202/Pg.65)

(31) Akar and Louhiala-Salminen found that communicators usually fax back the same fax adding their comments on it. (P.2/JO/AL/S.2.3.1/Pr.4/L.738-740/Pg.51)

(32) Sometimes, they tend to mix writing apprehension with other terms (Hettich, 1994; Rose, 1980). (P.3/JO/AL/S.2.3.2/Pr.1/L.249-250/Pg.31-32)

Figure 5 illustrates the Mood Adjuncts of probability and frequency and their different degrees used in the literature review chapters of Applied Linguistics and Information Technology.

Figure 5. Mood adjuncts of probability and frequency

Mood Adjuncts are also used to express other aspects of stance. These included expressing PRESUMPTION through using the Mood Adjunct ‘clearly’, as in example (33).

(33) On the other hand, Hettich (1994) states that writing apprehension has not been clearly defined. (P.3/JO/AL/S.2.3.2/Pr.1/L.247-248/Pg.31)

Another type of Mood Adjunct is used to express TIME by means of using the adverbial ‘still’, as in example (34).

(34) Class was still a determining factor, but women from the working classes and the middle classes behaved more similarly to each other than to men from the same social class as themselves (see also Horvath, 1985). (P.1/IR/AL/S.2.7.1/Pr.5/L.502-504/Pg.53-54)

Mood Adjuncts can express DEGREE through using the adverbial ‘approximately’ as in example (35).
TCP DOOR can significantly enhance TCP throughput by an average of approximately 50%, as shown by their simulation results. (P.7/SY/IT/S.2.3.1.1/Pr.11/L.502-503/Pg.43)

Other Mood Adjuncts can also express INTENSITY through using the adverbials ‘simply’ in example (36) and ‘only’ in example (37).

The authors utilize a hold-out approach as a measure to judge which feature to delete at each iteration instead of a measure to build simply on one dataset, gradient-based measure or Fisher correlation score. (P.8/IR/IT/S.2.2.2/Pr.24/L.982-985/Pg.60)

Other researchers noted that TAM just focuses only on extrinsic motivation, not intrinsic motivation (Davis et al., 1989). (P.13/JO/IT/S.2.11.1/Pr.4/L.666-667/Pg.60)

Figure 6 presents the number of Mood Adjuncts used in the literature review chapters of AL and IT theses. (491) Mood Adjuncts are used in the citations of the literature review of AL and IT by EFL postgraduates. A total number of 310 (63%) of Mood Adjuncts is used in the literature review chapters of AL theses, whereas only 181 (37%) Mood Adjuncts are used in the literature review chapters of IT theses. Since Applied Linguistics is based on arguments, EFL Arab postgraduates used a higher percentage of Mood Adjuncts. On the other hand, EFL postgraduates in IT used a lower percentage of Mood Adjuncts since they belong to a discourse community that prefers facts rather than arguments.

Figure 6. Mood adjuncts in the literature review of AL and IT theses of the clause, they play highly significant functional roles in revealing different aspects of the writer’s stance. However, in spite of the importance of adopting a stance in the citations, Mood Adjuncts were less used in comparison with the ‘Finite’ constituents. This can be attributed to the low level of knowledge in using Mood Adjuncts by EFL postgraduates.

Adjuncts can also add to the interpersonal meanings through using Comment Adjuncts. These types of Adjunct express the writer’s stance about the whole clause, thus occurring in an initial position or directly after the ‘Subject’. These adjuncts express different types of meanings.
For example, some Comment Adjuncts express ** ASSERTION ** through using the adverbials ‘importantly’ in example (38) and ‘actually’ in example (39).

(38) **Importanty**, Qiume’s does not mention any information about the questionnaire in terms of its developer, or how it was developed and designed. (P.19/YE/AL/S.2.8.1/Pr.12/L.745-747/Pg.42)

(39) **Actually**, this problem cannot be using low-level features only (Boykov & Jolly, 2001; Cour & Shi, 2007; Ferrari, Tuytelaars & Gool, 2004). (P.18/IR/IT/S.2.2.2/Pr.1/L.528-530/Pg.43)

Some Comment Adjuncts express ** HOW DESIRABLE ** something is through using the adverbial ‘unfortunately’, as in example (40).

(40) **Nevertheless, UTAUT incorporates the constructs from TAM and has received widespread support but unfortunately was not published like TAM (Srite, 2006).** (P.14/JO/IT/S.2.5.6/Pr.1/L.847-848/Pg.74-75)

Some Comment Adjuncts reveal the ** VALIDITY ** of something through using the adverbials ‘generally’ in example (41) and ‘broadly speaking’ in example (42).

(41) **Generally**, Tarone’s interactional perspective views OCSs as cooperative in nature. (P.19/YE/AL/S.2.5.3.2/Pr.2/L.326/Pg.18)

(42) **Broadly speaking, while innovation is defined as exploring something new which has existed before, quality is seen as a dynamic threshold which firms have to meet to satisfy customers (Cho & Pucik, 2005)** (P.17/JO/IT/S.2.3/Pr.6/L.393-395/Pg.36)

Some Comment Adjuncts are employed to express ** HOW SOMETHING IS EXPECTED ** through using the adverbial ‘surprisingly’, as in example (43) below.

(43) **This is worrying because as demonstrated by Hubbard [65] and Allen [45], human experts surprisingly make consistent types of errors in their judgments.........** (P.16/YE/IT/S.2.5.5/Pr.3/L.594-597/Pg.46-47)

Figure 7 shows the number of using Comment Adjuncts in the literature review chapters of AL and IT theses by EFL postgraduates.

![Figure 7. Comment adjuncts in the literature review of AL and IT theses](image)

As shown in Figure 7, (251) Comment Adjuncts are used in the citations of the literature review chapters of AL and IT theses. A total number of (n=182) comment Adjuncts (73%) is employed in the citations of the literature review chapters of AL, whereas (n=69) (27%) Comment
Adjuncts are used in the citations of the literature review chapters of Information Technology. This shows that the literature review chapters of AL have comment Adjuncts more than IT. These findings imply two significant issues. First, the writers in each domain probably try to attract the readers’ attention by using the adjuncts that are expected by their readers. In other words, the readers of each academic community possibly have certain conventions and norms when reading and writing. Second, the unfamiliarity of EFL postgraduates in IT of using Comment Adjuncts might be the reason for the lower occurrence of these types in their academic writing.

Discussion

The findings focused on analyzing how the clause/s of the citations is/are structured to reveal the interpersonal meanings. This involved exploring the Mood Class of the clauses, whereby the full declarative mood dominated the clauses of the citations in the literature review chapters of the 20 Ph.D. theses. In revealing a stance towards the citations, Finite Modal Operators as ‘Finite’ constituents and adverbials as Mood adjunct were used to reveal either modalisation or modulation. Modalisation included probability and usuality, whereas modulation included obligation and inclination. The stance that was expressed ranged from a high stance through median to low. Comment Adjuncts were another type of Adjuncts employed in revealing varied stances.

The clause constituents at the interpersonal metafunction showed a sort of similarity to John’s (2012) study that presented a description of the linguistic structures used in citations. The similarity was mainly in using the verb and the adverb which correspond respectively to the ‘predicator’ and the ‘adjunct’ in the present study. However, the linguistic structures in John’s findings were limited only to the integral citations, as well as the constituents that express a writer’s stance such as Finite modal operators were not mentioned. On the other hand, in the present study, identifying the constituents of the clause involved mood adjuncts, comments adjuncts, and finite modal operators used to communicate modalisation and modulation in the integral and non-integral citations. Hyland (2005) and Hyland and Tse (2004) point out that metadiscourse markers that involve adverbs, such as hedges and boosters, are used to reveal the writer’s stance and establish his/her membership to a certain academic community. The high density of mood adjuncts, comments adjuncts, and finite modal operators in AL compared with the low number in IT shows the effect of field on the interpersonal meanings (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Martin, 1993; Eggins, 1994; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). In other words, each field has its own readers who expect certain expressions and vocabulary from the writers.

Dunleavy (2003) emphasized that a thesis writer should meet the expectations of their readers since English language is ‘writer-responsible’. That is, the writer or the speaker is responsible for clarifying and organizing the concepts to make readings/speech easily understood by the readers/listeners (Hinds, 1987). One significant key to acknowledge their roles as writer responsible is through using metadiscourse (Dahl, 2004) in order to organize the text and interact with the reader. Hence, metadiscourses play these highly significant roles by revealing the academic voice which is rather challenging for non-native speaker writers (Jomaa & Bidin, 2017). EFL postgraduates showed lack of knowledge in the evaluative expressions and the difficulty in adopting an authorial positioning. Consequently, students’ weakness in citations-related issues need further emphasis and enhancement (Hei & David, 2015) since showing a stance towards the
citations was limited only to revealing methodological limitations, employing contrastive conjunctions, and using some reporting verbs, such as ‘stated’, and ‘claimed’. Hence, lack of knowledge of the evaluative vocabulary resulted in limited use of Mood Adjuncts. It is clear that moderating a writer’s claim is fundamental which should be neither too strong nor too weak. These challenges in using citations occur since citation competence, as Ma and Qin (2017) argue, is an inter-textual skill that involves cognitive proficiency of source use, academic reading proficiency, academic writing proficiency, and citing motivation.

As pointed out by Halliday (1985), tenor is a register variable that can affect stance. Dontcheva-Navratilova (2016) advocated that the interpersonal aspect of the academic discourses is associated with the epistemology and literacy convention of the national disciplinary of academic communities, thus resulting in intercultural variations. This was obvious in the high use of modality in the citations of AL compared with IT. In other words, each academic community follows certain evaluative expressions. Consequently, English for Academic Purposes materials could present the possibility of increasing our understanding of the variety in language use taking into account the different academic communities in order to introduce highly strong foundations for pedagogical purposes (Hyland and Hamp-Lyons, 2002). ESP researchers can explore the applicability of learning theories from SFL and North Rhetoric to ESP (Cheng, 2006). For example, a typical ESP genre-based writing class directed towards non-native speakers and novice writers could lead students from different disciplines to explore the genre-specific features and the disciplinary practices used in research articles, dissertations or Ph.D. theses. EFLs can be also engaged in a discipline-specific writing task. Such focuses and practices could be considered an effective tool that the learners need in order to develop their L2 academic writing (Cheng, 2006).

One approach to academic language is influenced by a genre-based literacy program (e.g., Christie, 1992, 1999) that is grounded in SFL (Halliday, 1985; Halliday & Matthiessen, 2014). Genre-based pedagogy supports explicitly teaching academic registers that students need. Particularly, it consists of teaching linguistic features employed in specific academic genres that students are usually involved in (Aguirre-Muñoz, Park, Amabisca, & Boscardin, 2009). The increasing number of learners of English for Academic Purposes has led to a similar expansion in the number of EAP teachers. However, the majority of the teachers of EAP around the world are non-native speakers of English, and the non-native teachers’ needs are different from the native speakers’ ones.

Consequently, this recognition has resulted in new developments in EAP materials and teacher training courses (Hyland & Hamp-Lyons, 2002). This raises the need to train teachers/instructors and equip them with the grammatical elements that constitute an academic language in order to cope with the challenges faced by non-native speakers in writing academically (Aguirre-Muñoz, Park, Amabisca, & Boscardin, 2009). Hence, training teachers to teach citations explicitly can be achieved through several stages. Considering the three register variables (field, tenor, and mode) that can affect the use of language, teachers can be trained on the three language metafunctions (ideational, interpersonal, and textual) that are associated with these three register variables, respectively.
For example, at the interpersonal metafunction, students can be taught how to use clauses based on the register, focusing on the explicit instructions of using modals (Geist, 2017) and how to show their stance by means of the Finite modal operators, mood adjuncts, and comments adjuncts. Students can be also taught the constituents that make a clause. In this regard, students will learn which constituents are primary or basic and which ones are secondary or not essential.

Similarly, at the ideational metafunction, students can be taught the types of processes used in each clause. Students could learn how to create sentences with clause complexes employing expansion and projection with their various subcategories (Jomaa & Bidin, 2019). Thematic structure involving Theme and Rheme can be also an effective tool when used appropriately. This thematic structure is taught at the last stage since it involves both the ideational and the interpersonal metafunctions. Hence, utilizing the SFL approach to language learning/teaching entails deconstructing the linguistic features in order to make the linguistic expectations of the academic language explicit and discernible to the instructors and students.

Conclusions and Future Research
The general Academic Writing textbooks should be modified in accordance with the disciplinary specificity, thus focusing on the norms and conventions of each discipline, such as using citations, reporting verbs, metadiscourse markers, and other discipline-specific linguistic structures. Swales’ (1990, 2014) findings, Thompson and Tribble’s (2001) taxonomy, Hyland’s (1999) taxonomy, and Jomaa and Bidin’s (2019) findings related to reporting and quoting can be significantly beneficial for students when included in the academic writing courses. The findings of the present study are based on analyzing the text in context and the practices of the student writers. Thus, such outputs are quite applicable to be used in English for Academic Purposes (EAP) teaching (Gardner, 2012). Future studies are recommended to analyze the metadiscourse markers by non-native speakers in other genres or other disciplines in order to enrich the findings related to the field of stance and the authorial voice.

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References


Internalization the Concept of Local Wisdom for Students in the Listening Class

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to find out the principle of composing listening materials that contain local wisdom based on the dimensions of roles and parts. The problem formulation of this study is how the principle of composing listening materials that contain the value of local wisdom based on the dimensions of roles and parts. The findings of this study can be used as a reference in making learning models, especially listening materials which can be used as a means to foster students’ characters related to their culture and appreciation toward local wisdom. The research design used in this study is research and development (R & D) design. This research produces roles with local wisdom to be an emotionally better person for a harmonious life, especially when the students are engaged in group discussion activities. To teach local wisdom related to environment care can be done through learning activities. It can be seen how the students are actively participating in the listening activities. Then, cognitive domain can be carried out in the learning process in the form of memorizing or remembering. Meanwhile, the affective domain can be performed through performance, discussion, and group work. It is expected that the finding can be an alternative reference to develop listening activities by internalizing local wisdom as a national identity. Also, the listening activities prepare young generations to preserve local wisdom from a nation.

Keywords: local wisdom, listening activity, internalization of local wisdom in listening activity

Cite as: Naryatmojo, D. L. (2019). Internalization the Concept of Local Wisdom for Students in the Listening Class. Arab World English Journal, 10 (1) 382
DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol10no1.31
Introduction
Education is a conscious and systematic effort in developing the students’ potential. Education is also an effort of the people and the nation in preparing their young generation for a better life of the people and nation in the future. This success is marked by the cultural inheritance that has been owned by the people and the nation. Therefore, education is a process of cultural inheritance for the younger generation and also the process of cultural development to improve the life quality of the people and nation in the future (Irianto, 2010). In the process of cultural education, the students actively develop their potential, internationalize, appreciate values into their personalities in social interaction, develop a more prosperous society, and develop a dignified life of the nation.

The motivation to explore local wisdom as a central issue is generally to look for national identity which may be lost due to the dialectical crossing process or acculturation and transformation that has been continuing as an inevitable process. The efforts to find a new national identity on the basis of local wisdom are important for the unification of national culture on the basis of the identity of some ethnic groups that characterize this nation (Sayuti, 2012). By considering local wisdom through cultural education, the students are not expected to be trapped in an alienation situation. They will not also be "someone else" from the reality of himself in the sense of "being like someone else". Hence, local wisdom in cultural education must always be interpreted in the context of independence in order to know more about themselves and the environment, and not as a socio-cultural domestication.

Local wisdom is a set of knowledge and practices to solve problems or difficulties faced in a good and right manner. The knowledge and practices imply (1) elements, (2) inter-elemental relationships, (3) the relationship between elements which is neither mechanical nor functional, and (4) a unity form without empirical boundaries (Putra, 2011). Here, the practice refers to behaviors and actions carried out based on knowledge. This practice is needed because the knowledge will have a certain impacts or effects in the real life and problems faced. By this practice the problems faced can be completely eliminated or resolved.

Human life cannot be separated from other humans. They are interconnected. Dananjaja (1983) gives a limitation about a good person is a person who can overcome difficulties constantly without being hectic, and emotional in solving complex problems for a long harmony. In the interaction with others, the human beings often create good and bad relationship. In a bad event, they can solve the problems or difficulties in a good and right manner and become a person who can quickly overcome the difficulties without being hectic, and emotional in solving complex problems in harmony. To be such a person, it requires honesty, tolerance, a friendly attitude, and caring for the surrounding environment (Badan Penelitian dan Pengembangan, 2010).

The implementation of education seeks to teach culture education for the students. The culture education is, of course, not presented in the form of separate subjects under the name of culture education but through materials that contains culture education in a wish that the students can know, apply, and respect their culture. The students’ low skill in listening and the difficulty of teaching listening skills were also stated by Naryatmojo (2010) and Prasetya (2007). Based on a research conducted by Naryatmojo (2010), it was reported that listening has become the basic course in the Education Study Program (BSI) of Indonesian Language and Literature Department.
Universitas Negeri Semarang, so the students' understanding of each sub-competence of listening is expected to be learned by the students to get maximum learning outcomes. However, based on academic data in 2010/2011 it is shown that students with A score is 10% with grade AB, B 20%, and BC to C 70%.

The score value of the course shows that only a quarter of the students who took the course achieved good competence. Then, the students from the survey consider listening skills is as a less expected course subject since this learns how to understand information. The low score of the students is also influenced by the lack of interest in the learning process because some students still consider that listening class is not fun and can be done alone.

Even though every normal human being is equipped with listening skill, not everyone has become a good listener. It can also be seen from the students of Indonesian and Literature Department (Prasetya, 2007). The students are demanded to be good listeners because it can affect the success of their learning as prospective teachers. Listening will always be high value, valuable, and useful.

Referring to the test results, it is necessary to improve students’ interest and motivation in listening classes due to the low level of student learning interest, a great number of theoretical learning materials, and the difficulty to teach listening. One method to increase students’ interest and motivation in learning is by developing a constructive environment model. This learning model is considered to develop the students' competence in constructing thoughts or ideas independently so that it will encourage a good learning process. Another advantage of this model is developing the students' competence in giving questions, cases or problems, correlation between a case and question, learning source, knowledge design, conversation and collaboration, and social or contextual support so that the model can be implemented in listening activities.

Based on some observations conducted in several universities in Central Java, Indonesia including the University of Panca Sakti Tegal, Pekalongan University, IKIP PGRI Semarang, Sebelas Maret University, and the University of Jendral Sudirman show that in listening classes, the learning process only focused on cognitive aspect about memorizing and understanding, but the affective as well as the psychomotor are ignored. In the listening class three learning aspects that include cognitive, affective and psychomotor must be implemented in the learning process so that the learning objectives can be achieved.

To achieve affective and psychomotor domains, local wisdom is needed. It is to measure the level of students’ success in listening class that is not limited to the cognitive domain. The affective domain cannot be measured like in cognitive domains because in the affective domain the abilities measured cover skills of receiving, responding, appreciating, and organizing. Then, the psychomotor learning outcomes can be measured through (1) direct observation and assessment of students' behavior during the practical learning process, (2) post-learning activities by giving tests to the students to measure knowledge, skills, and attitudes, and (3) completed learning and relationship with the environment.
Literature Review

The essence of local wisdom

Local wisdom is something that is specifically related to a particular culture, and it reflects the way of life of a particular society. Therefore, the dissemination of certain local wisdom practices has become a challenge. The application of local wisdom is a process and it requires involvement of broader stakeholders and policy support.

Local wisdom can also be interpreted as attitudes, views, and abilities of a community in managing its spiritual and physical environment. Local wisdom gives people the resilience and power to grow within the community's territory (Saini, 2005). In other words, local wisdom is a creative answer toward geographical, political and historical situation as well as local situation.

In line with Saini, (Departemen Sosial Republik Indonesia, 2006) local wisdom is defined as a view of life and knowledge as well as various life strategies in the forms of activities carried out by local communities in answering various problems related to their daily needs. The system for fulfilling their needs includes all elements of life such as religion, science, economics, technology, social organizations, language, communication, and the arts. They have understanding, programs, activities, implementation related to maintaining, improving, and developing need elements and ways of how to fulfill them taking into account human resources and the surrounding natural resources.

Every community has its local wisdom. Local wisdom of traditional communities has a process to be smart and knowledgeable. This is related to the desire to maintain and sustain their life, so that citizens of the community will spontaneously think of ways of how to do and create something. Local wisdom is seen as very valuable and it has its own benefits in the people's lives (Hadi, 2006). The system is developed due to the need to live up, to maintain, and to live according to the situation, conditions, capabilities, and values used by the community.

Local wisdom can be in the form of ideology and tradition. It means that many Indonesian cultures are taken from ideology and values that become the model in the diverse communities. These ideologies and traditions are in the form of a local belief as the basis for the legitimacy of social action, (2) cultural teachings that become a reference system in the manifested behavior, (3) social ethics as the principles governing relationship between human and others as well as humans and their environment, (4) work ethic as the driving force for achieving the development goals, (5) tradition values that determine something ideal in the society, (6) norms as the instruments that govern behavior, and (7) symbols to “regulate individual and group behavior” (Abdullah, 2009, p. 12)

Local wisdom has six dimensions, namely “local knowledge, values, skills, resources, decision-making mechanism, and group solidarity” (Permana, 2010, p. 4-6). The description of each dimension is as follows.

1) Local Knowledge Dimension.

Every person will always have local knowledge related to his environment. This local knowledge is related to changes and cycles of dry and rainy seasons; types of flora and fauna; and geographic, demographic and sociographic conditions. This happens because people inhabit an
area for long period and have experienced varied social changes causing them to adapt with their environment. This adaptive ability becomes a part of their local knowledge related to nature.

2) Local Value Dimensions.
To regulate how the people live together, each community has local rules or values that are adhered to and agreed upon by all its members. These values usually regulate the relationship between humans and their God, humans and humans, and between humans and nature. These values have time dimensions in the form of past, present, and future values. These values will change according to the progress of the community.

3) Local Skill Dimensions.
Local skills for each community member are used as survival skills. The local skills are from the simplest ones such as hunting, gathering, farming and making home industries. These local skills are only sufficient for the family needs.

4) Local Resource Dimensions.
Local resources in general are natural resources from non-renewable and renewable natural resources. The community will use local resources in accordance with their needs and will not exploit in a great number of quantity or commercialize them. These local resources have been divided into some forms such as forests, gardens, water sources, agricultural land, and settlements. The local natural resources are used collectively.

5) Dimensions of Local Decision Making
Every society basically has its own local government, or is called a tribal government. Tribe is a legal entity that orders its citizens to act as citizens. Each community has a different decision-making mechanism. There are societies that do democratically. There are also people who do hierarchically, multilevel, or tiered.

6) Dimensions of Local Group Solidarity
A community is generally united by communal ties to form local solidarity. Every community has media to bind its citizens that can be done by religious rituals or ceremonies. Each member of the community gives and accepts each other according to their fields and functions, such as in a solidarity of cultivating rice plants and mutual cooperation work.

Furthermore, according to Permana (2010, p.10) “local wisdom is often associated with local communities”. Local wisdom in foreign languages is often interpreted as local wisdom, local knowledge, or local intelligence. These three terms underlie the understanding of culture used continuously from generation to generation for hundreds or even thousands of years by local or local people. Local wisdom that has strong roots is not easily influenced and contaminated by other cultures.

In line with the previous information, Putra (2011) expresses his opinion regarding to the understanding of local wisdom. According to him, local wisdom is a set of knowledge and practices to solve problems or difficulties faced in a good and right way. The device implies (a) the existence of elements, (b) the existence of relations between elements, (c) the relationship
between non-mechanical or non-functional elements, (d) forms of a unity without clear empirical limitations. The word practice refers to behavior and actions carried out based on their knowledge. This practice is needed because without practice their knowledge will not have a certain impact or effect in the real life, and the problems they are facing. By this practice the problems can be completely resolved.

This is different from traditional wisdom. Tradition is a number of beliefs, views of values and practices given from generation to generation without writing forms (usually in verbal or actions), which are accepted by people or community so that they become established and have the power of law (Putra, 2011). This means that it has been inherited from generation to generation.

Thus, it can be concluded that local wisdom, local knowledge, and local intelligence basically have the same nature. These three terms underlie the understanding that culture has been inherited continuously from generation to generation for hundreds or thousands of years by local or local people.

The benefits of local wisdom

Basically, every community including traditional communities, there is a process for 'being smart and knowledgeable'. This is related to the desire how to maintain and sustain life so that the community members will spontaneously think ways how to do or create something such as how to make food, how to produce the equipment needed to process natural resources for its availability, etc. (Hadi, 2006). This process may produce a very valuable discovery accidentally.

As cultural property, ethnicity should always be understood as a cultural concept that is centered on the distribution of norms, values, beliefs, symbols, and cultural practices. Thus, ethnicity will always assume the existence of relations - the relationship with self-identification and social awareness (Sayuti, 2012). In this context, developing local culture and potential will find its significance and relevance.

Local wisdom becomes important and useful when local people who inherit the knowledge system are willing to accept and claim it as part of their lives. In this way, local wisdom can be called as the soul of local culture. It can be seen from the expression of local wisdom in daily life because it has been well internalized. Every part of the local community is wisely directed based on their knowledge system, not only useful in daily activities and interactions with others, but also in unexpected situations such as unexpected disasters.

Local wisdom can give a better impact. Students can apply their knowledge and practice to solve problems or difficulties faced in a good and right way. The word practice refers to behavior and actions carried out based on their knowledge. This practice is needed because without practice their knowledge and actions will have certain impacts or consequences toward the real life and the problems faced. By this practice, the problems faced can be completely resolved (Putra, 2011). In addition, local wisdom in each region has its own character. In essence, local wisdom has purposes that the stories inherited by ancestors inherit a wise character that contains the noble values from each region. By understanding the purpose of local wisdom, the people will be virtuous human, have tolerance, and open for different thoughts. Also, they will solve the problems in a harmonious situation.
The attitude of human life in society

A human’s life cannot be separated from other humans. They are interconnected and they need one another. Dananjaja (1983) gives a boundary about a good person is a person who overcomes the problems in a good way with harmonious situation.

In the interaction with others, they often have good and bad events. When a bad event occurs, they can solve problems or difficulties in a good and right way. To be such person, it needs honesty, tolerance, friendliness and caring for the environment (Badan Penelitian dan Pengembangan, 2010).

1. Honesty

Honesty is something said by someone in accordance with conscience (Sujarwa, 2010). It can also be interpreted as someone who has warm heart from actions prohibited by religion and law. People who keep good promises can also be said to be honest. For those who cannot keep their intentions are meant to deceive themselves.

Everyone should learn how to be honest because honesty brings peace, eliminates fear, makes people firm, and most importantly brings justice. This is important because justice brings eternal glory. People who can be honest and act in accordance with reality will become individuals who can do right and just. Thus, honesty and honesty must be based on moral awareness to recognize equality of rights and obligations, and have a fear of making mistakes and sins.

Honesty is a behavior that is based on efforts to make himself trusted in words, actions, and work (Badan Penelitian dan Pengembangan, 2010). In the learning process, students can (a) carry out tasks in accordance with the academic rules applied in college or university, (b) clearly state the advantages and disadvantages of a subject matter, (c) tell about their problems in how to accept the opinions of their friends, and (d) express opinions about something in accordance with what is believed.

2. Tolerance

Tolerance etymologically comes from Latin "Tolerare" which means patiently allow something. Hence, it in broader understanding is an attitude or human behavior that does not deviate from the rules and respect from others. Tolerance is the attitude that appreciate a thought, opinions, views, beliefs and others that are different from his owns (Karim, 2000). It is an attitude and action that respects differences in religion, ethnicity, ethnicity, opinions, attitudes, and actions of others that are different from theirs. In the learning process, the students can (a) give opportunities to friends for different opinions, (b) be friends with others regardless of religion, community, and ethnicity, and (c) listen to opinions expressed by friends about their culture.

3. Friendship

Friendship is a situation that shows the pleasure of talking, associating, and cooperating with others (Badan Penelitian dan Pengembangan, 2010). In the learning process, the students can (a) give opinions in group work, (b) give and listen to opinions in the discussions, and (c) be active in social and cultural activities in the class.

4. Environment care
The environment is not a natural object. It is a set of understandings for a cultural product (Kaplan & Manners, 2002). The relationship between a society and its environment can only be understood when it is organized into verbal categories constructed by those who use it.

The environment must be treated and utilized wisely and responsibly according to its capacity and capabilities so that it will not cause disaster for human life. This is because the relationship between humans and their environment is not an exploitative relationship, but rather an interaction that supports and nurtures dynamic harmony, balance and order (Nurjana, 2008).

When the students adapt to their environment, they get new information and or experience that will add or shape something new through the process of assimilation and accommodation. Assimilation is a cognitive process that occurs when information obtained from the environment is integrated into existing schemes. Through assimilation, the students get new information. Accommodation is a cognitive process that occurs when the existing scheme is modified, or the new system is restructured to adapt with a particular environment. Through accommodation, they change their picture of the world on the basis of the new information they obtain (Sayuti, 2012).

Environmental care is an attitude that always strives to prevent damage to the surrounding environment and develop efforts to repair the damage that has already occurred. In the learning process, the students can (1) plan and implement various environmental damage prevention activities, and (2) solve a problem in a good way.

**The essence of listening skill**

In this section, the understanding of listening, the purpose of listening, the benefits of listening, the types of listening, and the selection of material in listening learning are discussed.

The definition of listening

Listening is a process that includes listening to language sounds, identifying, interpreting, evaluating, and reacting to the meaning. Listening involves hearing, seeing, appreciating, memorizing, understanding, even situations that accompany the sound. Vella (2002) explains that listening is the learning needs which have the development in the assessment. Both are principles in the listening practice. Listening activities are activities that are not just listening, so they have development and levels. Segmentation in listening activities also different depending on the materials and the subjects who will do listening activities.

Then, Rost (2002) argues that listening is a process that involves the brain of active processes, which are under listener's control, and passive processes that are not under the control of the listener. The difference between listening and hearing is the level of intensity. Hearing is a form of perception. This perception refers to the current contact between the smallest objects and the receptor, while listening is the process that starts after the electrical signal from the sound obtained by the auditory cortex to the brain. This is because the listening process cannot be used to measure objects or describe them, but we need many subjects that can define and metaphor to describe them. Thus, listening is to interpret signs with a higher level of language than just hearing because it is necessary to interpret the signs of the language being listened.
Broughton, *et al* (2003) more specifically defines that listening is a receptive skill involved in understanding the message. It is important for every speaker to believe that his words are being understood. This is usually signaled in the conversations by nodding, glancing, body movements, and often by non-verbal voices. Thus, listening is understanding each word and attitude coming from the speaker.

From some of the definitions above, it can be concluded that listening is a process of listening symbols to get information conducted in intentional situation accompanied by understanding, appreciation, and interpretation in capturing content and responding to the meaning.

**The advantages of listening**

Listening is an activity that is very beneficial for humans. If someone can listen well, he will be able to train his thinking process better. It means that good listeners have a lot of knowledge and insight when they speak so that they have good performance in speaking.

Setiawan (2007), says that there are some benefits of listening. First, listening give more knowledge and valuable life experiences for the students since it has an informative value providing certain inputs to be more experienced. Second, it increases intellectuality and deepens the appreciation of science and the treasures of our knowledge. Third, listening enriches our vocabulary and improves appropriate, qualified and poetic vocabularies. People who listen more will have better communication skill and more varied vocabularies.

Then, listening broadens perception, increase life appreciation, and foster open and objective mind. People who listen a lot are not insular, narrow-minded, fanatic, but tend to be warm-hearted and they can respect opinions and the existence of others. Fifth, it increases social sensitivity and concern. By listening we can see life in all its dimensions. Better materials often bring reflections on the value of life so that it inspires enthusiasm to solve existing problems based on their ability.

Sixth, it inspires creativity and produces self-evident utterances and writings. Listening a lot will get brilliant and fresh ideas and valuable life experiences that will encourage us to actively work and be creative. Furthermore, there are four factors as the basis of the benefits from listening activities. According to Purwaningtyas (2007), the four bases for listening are 1) language learning foundation, 2) supports for speaking, writing and reading skills, (3) oral communication facilitator, and (4) information enhancer.

As mentioned above, listening has some benefits that are very important for the listeners themselves. It can be concluded that the benefits of listening include increasing knowledge and experience for listeners and facilitating verbal communication by listeners with others. The more knowledge and experience possessed by listeners, the more fluent they are in communicating with others.

**Research Methodology**

The research design used in this study is Research and Development (R & D). There are ten steps of the research according to Borg and Gall (2007). They are (1) research and data collection or information about the need of product development, (2) planning for product development, (3)
draft or product prototype development, (4) pre-trial of the product development prototype, (5) pre-revision of product development prototypes, (6) pre-field trials of product development prototypes, (7) revision of the product from the pre-field test, (8) operational trials or implementation test, (9) final product revision, and (10) dissemination and implementation.

There are four research variables namely local wisdom values and listening activities. The data of the students’ needs containing local wisdom values in listening activities are in two types. The first data is in the form of a trend score of each answer choice for each question from the students. The second data is a description of the answers chosen by the students. The data form the students’ choices are grouped into two, namely the data of the students’ reason choosing the answers. The source of the data is in accordance with the data needed in this study; they are the data of the learning needs, expert assessment, pre-field test data, and data on the results of test implementation.

**Findings and Discussion**

The principle of preparing learning listening skills with the value of local wisdom is explained based on the dimensions of the roles and the loaded parts.

1. **Role**

The characteristics of local wisdom content requirements in accordance with the needs of students from the role dimension consists of the embedded value of local wisdom which can be seen if the students can solve problems independently, properly and correctly. The listening conditions will be ideal if the students listen carefully and correctly. The implementation of the local wisdom to quickly overcome the difficulties can be done by questions and answers between the students and the lecturers.

The lecturer can implement the local wisdom of tolerance by asking the students to be quiet and focus in the listening class. This implementation can be done in a discussion activity to reduce and increase learning objectives. For example, a friendship can be achieved when they are doing a discussion with the classmates. This attitude can be seen when the students consult their difficulties to the lecturers. This discussion also teaches unemotional attitude. Teaching the local wisdom occurs in a group discussion. To teach friendship, the lecturers can use listening materials. Then, the environmental care can be implemented through activities before listening activities such as throwing the garbage into the trash.

The topic of teaching honesty can be seen from queuing up for BLT (a government program for the poors). Empowering the value of friendship can be done through main activities. Then, the wisdom ‘how to be unemotional person’ occurs in a group discussion. The need to cultivate harmonious local wisdom is needed in the learning activities. Meanwhile, how to solve the problem well can be seen how the students gives their opinion related to the fuel price. Also, the students are taught how to be wise by group work discussion. Finally, to improve students’ awareness related to nature care is introduced in the learning process.
## 2. Learning Content

The characteristics of the local wisdom related to the students’ need are the local wisdom in the orientation program given by the lecturers. The contents in the listening activities include religion, discipline, social caring, responsibility, hard work, democracy, independence, nationalism, patriotism, curiosity and peace.

The way to insert those values is by explicitly stating learning objectives. It can be done by stating explicitly in the standard competence. In the listening class the lecturer can state the listening assessment criteria. For example, the best student will get reward. Also, another method to introduce local wisdom can be seen in the learning materials.

The other method to teach local wisdom can be seen in the teaching practice in the classroom. Then, local wisdom may be explicitly found in the indicators. Next, in the assessment process the local wisdom is stated in how the students do essay. Meanwhile, the local wisdom will be found in the syllabus through achievement indicators. In addition, the students can also learn local wisdom in the learning process which can be conducted by observation and interview. The value of local wisdom in listening class is obtained in how the students solve the problems properly and correctly. Then local wisdom in the learning model can be actualized in the main teaching activity. The local wisdom can also be implemented in the listening process and the learning benefits are introduced based on the learning discussion.

It is hoped that the students’ local wisdom will succeed that can be seen from their concentration in the listening class. In the cognitive domain the local wisdom can be introduced with knowledge or memorization. Furthermore, discussions and group work may be given to the students based on the affective domain.

### Conclusion and Suggestion

Based on the study, the conclusion and suggestion are as follow:

#### Conclusion

The study related to the internalization of local wisdom for the students through listening class can be concluded as follow:

a. The internalization of the students’ local wisdom in the listening class can be seen if the students can not only solve the problems or difficulties in a good and right way and but also become a person who can overcome the difficulties constantly without fuss, no emotion in solving complex problems, and longing for harmony. To be such a person requires honesty, tolerance, friendliness, and caring for the surrounding environment.

b. Some topics that can be used as the media for internalizing local wisdom related to listening activities are standing in line for BLT (a program from the government for the poor) and increase of gasoline price

c. It is expected that the internalization of local wisdom for the students in the listening class will make the students concentrate of the learning activities and produce students’ attitude that is related to local wisdom of the learning process.


**Suggestion**

Based on the research, it is hoped that the study can be used as a reference for lecturers to assist them in both developing students’ listening skills and internalizing the noble values of national culture as the national identity. Thus, the listening class will run based on the students’ need and make the learning process to be more optimal. In addition, listening learning process can also prepare teenagers to always participate in preserving the value of the nation's local wisdom.

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**References**


Book Review

Language, Society and Power: An Introduction

Authors: Annabelle Mooney and Betsy Evans
Title of the Book: Language, Society and Power: An Introduction
Year of Publications: 2015 (4th ed.)
Publisher: Routledge
Number of Pages: 288 pages
Reviewer: Ghada AlGhamdi

Language, Society, and Power: An Introduction is a fundamental introductory text written by Annabelle Mooney and Betsy Evans. It discusses language functions and their impacts on thought as well as language variation in terms of age, gender, class, and ethnicity. This book discusses the representations of people through their language and whether these representations matter or not. It also discusses the way identity is formed and performed, and it considers the resourceful potential of language in politics, media, and everyday speech. The authors state that this book is intended for students of English language and linguistics, media, communication, cultural studies, sociology, and psychology. This review gives a summary of the topics discussed in the book and a review of some of its essential sections.

Chapters 1 and 2 give a comprehensive and inclusive introduction to the book. The authors describe language as a system with variation that is able to make new meaning. The authors successfully provide a synthesis of theories related to the study of language such as Jakobson’s schema of functions, Saussurian conceptualizations of language, as well as the Sapir-Whorf Hypothesis. They facilitate the introduction of these theories through the use of figures and
examples. Thus, they establish a baseline that fosters comprehension of the themes further elaborated in the remainder of the textbook.

Chapter 3 is centered on language in political contexts. The authors discuss the linguistic features employed to persuade audiences. They argue that we should take notice of the language of politics if we are to reveal and clarify how persuasive arguments that can influence us to support a particular stance that clashes with our beliefs. The authors also examine the politics of education and show how the language of commercial transactions is increasingly used in higher education. Chapter 4 discusses language and the media; the ability to read and understand the texts found in the mass media. The authors investigate how the language of mass media can sustain ideologies. They argue that mass media literacy practices are described as a form of power; knowing how to read a text has symbolic capital.

Chapter 5 discusses Linguistic Landscapes which refers to language use in the everyday semiotic landscape. The authors propose that official and unofficial signage can express various messages in linguistic landscapes. They persuasively consider the power employed by unofficial signs with examples from specific speech communities in Belgium and France. They also use The National Courtesy Campaign that encouraged Singaporeans to be more courteous as evidence that signs can have a greater communicative strategy. In their discussion of gender in Chapter 6, the authors examine the representation of gender inequality at the lexical level and explore the performance of gender as reflected in language use. They discuss differences in men’s and women’s talk in terms of verbosity, turn taking and hedges. They offer possible explanations for these differences, and ways in which sexism is encoded in the English language system.

Chapter 7 demonstrates how ethnicity can be communicated through the use of specific linguistic features. The author appraised the cultural capital associated with the use of a particular linguistic variety while reminding readers that some ethnolects are subject to linguistic subordination. They include a notable section on how some ethnic groups are reclaiming historically disparaging terms such as ‘wog,’ a derogatory Australian term used in reference to some immigrant populations. Chapter 8 explains patterns of language change and variation associated with aging. It demonstrates how the terms used to describe a person of a specific age group can contribute to social stratification, which influences how much power a person has in the social hierarchy.

In chapter 9, the authors examine the correlation between language and social class by first discussing attitudes about class. They then efficiently approach research on social networks and communities of practice to display that language use, and symbolic capital might be more local than has been suggested by traditional definitions of social class considering that specific linguistic features can be accepted in one group and rejected in another. Chapter 10 discusses Global Englishes where the authors note that most linguists do not believe any variety of English should be the “Global English.” However, they remind readers that extreme opinions exist about which variety of English should be used globally. They investigate different models that capture the variety that exists in English and highlight how language learners are often compared to native speakers through a deficit approach that stigmatizes learners and sets unrealistic goals. Reasons for learning and using English vary and, as such, the authors reference perspectives that call for
validation of all varieties of English. They call attention to the language variety that exists within “inner circle” nations (e.g., the United Kingdom, the United States). They then examine the diverse communicative uses of English in Singapore, India, and Hawaii. Next, they consider the pressures of the linguistic marketplace and the hegemony of English.

The final chapter proposes research projects for emerging scholars with an interest in sociolinguistics such as an analysis of the language used in television programming directed at children or an investigation of how one’s own language style is context-dependent. The authors concluded their book with a reminder to readers of the importance of reflecting on how we use language.

The book is a great read for anyone interested in sociolinguistics and not only the ones majored in the field. It can be efficiently used as a textbook and for self-study purposes. The authors adopt a thorough contextual pedagogical approach in presenting the topics. They support their presentation with multidimensional contexts, examples, and a class-like presentation of some chapters, visuals, and sections. To emphasize the discussed sociolinguistic theories comprehensively, they prompt readers to do critical thinking activities and read further research in the fields. Therefore, the book is appropriate for linguists who are interested in sociolinguistics variables such as ethnicity, gender, class, age, identity, in addition to the Standard English debate, politics, and the media.

In terms of presentation, the book is well organized and easy to follow. The authors write in a very clear and organized way, and all relevant details are mentioned with smart simplicity. Important key terms in sociolinguistics are bolded within the text and explained in the footnotes to make sure that reader grasps the terms presented in the book. Each chapter’s subsections are outlined on the first page of the chapter with page numbers. This detail prepares readers for the material to be covered and contributes to the presentation of a unified text. At the end of every chapter, the authors provide a brief yet helpful list of updated and expanded research projects and further reading sections for each chapter. Chapters 1-10 contain “www” symbols to indicate that readers can find web-based resources on the companion website. However, the authors do not specify how to access the companion website in the text, but it is available at no additional cost via the publisher’s website. The book accomplishes its goals as an introductory text for the study of language in social contexts. I suggest that the text is read in order as many chapters are contextualized within the greater scope of the book as a unified text—a positive feature. Should readers read chapters in isolation, I recommend providing supplementary reading materials.

In terms of illustration, concepts are explained through illustrative figures, tables, charts, pictures, and cartoons. In this way, the authors add vividness to their presentation and make material appealing to the reader. It has a variety of novel and engaging international examples drawn from everyday life – including material from social media and newspapers, television cartoons, and YouTube. For example, the chapter on Linguistic Landscapes, includes signs, graffiti and the internet and the chapter on Global Englishes, explores variation in … and attitudes to English around the world through illustrative models.
Each chapter ends with activities that encourage critical thinking and reflection. These tasks could be ideal for in-class discussions or homework assignments. The author prompts readers to think of controversial areas discussed in the book that do not require one answer, but an extended discussion and further reading. Such activities encourage readers to present their views, reflect on their experience, use references listed at the end of each chapter and resort to more on the topics discussed. To encourage avid readers to find valuable information in rich references, each chapter also ends with recent developments in theory and research about topics that are not typically found in other sociolinguistics books such as the relationship between language and politics, and language and the media. Therefore, researchers, as well as students, may appreciate the breadth of topics covered in the book.

As a textbook, it is an interesting and thought-provoking book, one which, by virtue of its interactive activities, its concise glossary and the stimulating variety of the questions covered, is likely to bring to life for readers the language we live by. However, some readers are likely to find the book an imperfect account of the relationship between power and language. It is introductory and lots of further readings required, especially if you are already well versed in the field and looking for a more advanced understanding. One criticism is that gender is defined in narrow, dualist terms; given cross-cultural and cross-linguistic variation, which appears somewhat misplaced in a book concerned with society and power. Moreover, little attention is given to some of the staples of sociolinguistics such as bilingualism and code-switching, politeness, and language planning and maintenance, while significantly more is made both of language and politics and of language and media. However, in an imperfect world, it makes a bold attempt to enfold a massive area of territory in one relatively short book. Finally, although all examples come from English, the subjects discussed should also be relevant to readers and scholars of other languages. Also, even though the content of the book is excellent, my main quibble is the surprising number of typographical errors in some chapters.

Overall, I have no hesitation in recommending Language, Society and Power: An Introduction as a practical, engaging and accessible introduction to sociolinguistics and the political dimensions of language use. In light of today’s educational challenges in regard to understanding and incorporating diverse language and linguistic debates, this book offers an excellent opportunity to incorporate several themes related to language—power, politics, media, gender, ethnicity, age, social class, identity, and standardization of English, moving from theory to practice. The book contributes to our understanding of language as a critical element of learning human language and its critical functions in the diverse linguistic communities in this world.

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Reference
Book Review

Author: Rastislav Metruk, Ph.D.
The title of the book: Researching Speaking: Teaching and Assessment
Year of publication: 2018
Place of publication: Olomouc, Czech Republic
Publisher: Palacký University Olomouc
Number of pages: 100
Reviewer: Yevgeniya Karpenko

Speaking is probably the most difficult skill to teach in foreign language education. Teachers are aware that the amount of time and resources needed to develop learners’ ability to communicate fluently is larger than in any other language skill. Of course the difficulties vary according to learners’ origin, the first language, age, out of class input, and other aspects (Keith S. Folse, 2006). There are many books which can help to cope with the difficulties in teaching speaking. As an English language teacher and lecturer, I would often choose some chapters from books such as Keith S. Folse (2006) “The art of teaching speaking”, Christine C.M. Goh and Anne Burns (2012) “Teaching speaking: A holistic approach” as both are intended for teachers and prospective teachers of English who require full understanding of teaching speaking and for students of linguistics, who would like to continue education in magistracy and become teachers of English and thus need to acquire an understanding of teaching speaking. However, as in the process of teaching speaking, assessment is the final step where the learners get feedback of what
they have been taught and how much they have learned, the evaluation and guiding learners to excellence in speaking should also take into account the origin of pupils and the specific difficulties they face on their way to mastering speaking skills. The books mentioned have been written with an audience of mainly native speakers of English in mind and don’t touch on many issues that learners who have learned English as a second language want and need to know about - questions and problems that may not occur to native-speaker teachers and students.

The book by Metruk R. “Researching Speaking: Teaching and Assessment” has been written with special consideration of the needs and interests of Slovak speakers of English. The approach of this book is a little different to previous similarly practical books on teaching speaking skills for teachers in that the underlying theory and activities suit Slovak learners and it does make the whole topic very accessible for both Slovak teachers and university students. Designed for Slovak university students working alone as well as for classroom use it provides analysis of the current approach of assessing learners’ English-speaking skill and how far this approach helps learners develop their English language speaking skills.

The monograph examines speaking skills from two standpoints: teaching and testing, its primary objective is to develop new holistic and analytic scoring scales for the purposes of evaluation of English spoken proficiency of EFL learners at B2 and C1 levels. The preface with notes facing the theory explains how the book is organized. All 4 units can be used independently of each other. The examples and tasks in each unit lead students from theory to practice in teaching speaking. The first two parts of the book give an overview of what fluent speaking means for an English language learner, the structure of speaking skills and some practical tips. The next two parts then show how to turn these ideas into a functional framework for assessments.

Parts one and two are an overview of research into speaking. There is information on the Communicative Language Teaching – its components, principles, characteristics, content, and teachers’ roles, and information on how to teach speaking skills; speaking subskills, the importance of pair work and group work, feedback, etc. There are also detailed summaries of the features of pronunciation and intonation. This is then followed up with what facts conversation analysis can tell us about how competent, fluent speakers communicate.

These two chapters can serve as a good entry level introduction to and as a good review of the many aspects in teaching speaking. These parts could be used by a university as part of an English teacher training programme, or by individuals interested in introspective thinking about their own teaching methods. It is certainly a good reference for anyone interested in speech production and effective activities in teaching speaking. In this respect the author emphasizes that while choosing teaching activities for the classroom the teacher should keep in mind that natural setting and lifelike activities seem to be more suitable in comparison to classroom where learners are intentionally and consciously exposed to speech situations. (Metruk R. (2018) Researching Speaking: Teaching and Assessment, P.15).

Parts three and four detail the process of assessment, the differences between formative and summative types of assessment, test formats, and ways of evaluating the spoken proficiency of EFL learners. Here several examples of holistic and analytic scales along with the assessment...
criteria are described and addressed and new holistic and analytic scales are introduced and justified. The author notes that “Teaching and assessment of speaking skills should not be regarded as two separate notions as they are inextricably connected and mutually dependent” (Metruk R. (2018) Researching Speaking: Teaching and Assessment, P.79). It starts by showing how to implement the existing types of assessment for classroom speaking. Each type of assessment along with its peculiarities is explained. This then expands into how to teach and assess speaking while taking into account the constraints of the classroom/teaching environment and student needs.

This book is an excellent introduction to, or review of, the basics of teaching speaking together with some useful activities to use with students for in-service training sessions. The book contains wealth of ideas and the terminology related to the area of teaching and assessing speaking, as well about learner-related issues regarding pronunciation and the practical aspects of teaching speaking in the classroom. The book is also non-dogmatic in its opinions. It certainly doesn’t profess to be the final word on how speaking should be taught and assessed. Rather it tries to make sense of the conflicting information that overwhelms many teachers.

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References