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Determining How Social Media Affects Learning English: An Investigation of Mobile Applications Instagram and Snap Chat in TESOL Classroom

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Abstract:
The purpose of this research paper was to explore the effects of social media in learning English speaking and reading skills. Although social media platforms like Facebook, Instagram, Twitter, and Snapchat, are mostly used socially and for marketing, they also have a significant impact on learning English. In determining how social media affects learning English, this paper will be focusing on mobile Apps; Snapchat and Instagram. The paper investigates how user attitude, experience, and perception influence the use of Instagram and Snapchat in learning the English language in a classroom. The research was done on different databases, including Academic Search Complete, Education Source, ERIC, Library, Information Science, and Technology Abstracts, and Professional Development Collection. Research shows that learners with social media accounts are less enthusiastic about learning English, even if it means recreational reading. This differs from the learners without user accounts whose attitude of learning English speaking skills is positive. This research paper concludes that, in comparison to Snapchat, Instagram is a more effective social media platform for engaging and learning of the English language. This contributes to a greater understanding of the English language and its culture while providing more practical knowledge and promoting interactions. However, more research is needed to determine the impact of Snapchat on learning English speaking skills.

Keywords: Instagram, Language Learning, Snap Chat, Social Media. Teaching English

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Introduction
Social media plays a prominent role in all over the world. Digital applications like Facebook, Twitter, Instagram, and Snapchat enable users to communicate and share information, photographs, and videos digitally. Among these, Instagram is one of the fastest rising social media platforms in terms of use and popularity. It is a photo and video-sharing application first introduced to the market in 2010. Its features allow users to upload and edit photos quickly as well as post accompanying text and respond to other users. Instagram has retained its popularity due to its ease of use and the ability to meet the need for social interaction and entertainment (Hwang, & Cho, 2018). Similarly, Snapchat is an application that enables users to share photographs, videos, and text with other users. However, unlike Instagram, the information shared on Snapchat disappears after a certain amount of time (Utz, Mucanell& Khalid, 2015). After YouTube and Facebook, Instagram is the most widely used social media platform by 37% of United States adults and 75% of young adults between the ages of 18-24. Snapchat is less used, having attracted only 24% of adults and 73% of young adults in the U.S. (Pew Research Center, 2019).

Instagram and Snapchat are deemed relevant to mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) (Alzahrani, 2015). This paper reports on the use of attitudes and perceptions towards Instagram and Snapchat in the English language learning classroom. It is estimated that 37% of adults and 75% of young adults aged 18 to 24 years use Instagram. Snapchat, on the other hand, enjoys a user population of 24% adults and 73% young adults. The paper argues that, although Instagram and Snapchat are popular social media platforms, they are mostly used for casual purposes and not learning complex content like English speaking skills because they draw negative attitudes and perceptions because of the slang terms involved.

Literature Review
General Use of Social Media
In general, social media may trigger mixed perceptions among English language learners. Al-Adwani and Al-Fadley (2017) investigated the attitude of 812 fifth and sixth-grade students in Kuwaiti public schools toward reading based upon social media use. The results indicated that students with social media accounts reported less favorable attitudes toward reading in general as well as recreational reading in English than students without social media accounts (p < 0.05). However, Alnujaidi (2017) reported more favorable attitudes in a study of 103 university-level English learners within Saudi Arabia's higher education system. These students said that social media was not only useful for communicating with others but also learning English.

Snap Chat
Although Snapchat may be beneficial for English language learners, few studies directly address this platform. Freyn (2017) examined the frequency of use by nine university students in a single class over 11 days. The instructor sent Snapchats to students daily regarding the lesson or asking for opinions regarding course content. The frequency of responses by students over this time ranged from 0-16, indicating that variability existed in its use. Aloraini and Cardoso (2018) reported that beginner English language learners preferred Snapchat to WhatsApp for learning both listening and speaking skills.
Instagram may be a motivating and engaging means of teaching English to students who speak another native language. Brebara (2018) reported that 88% of 152 graduate students in the Czech Republic viewed Instagram as useful in learning English. Yeh and Mitric (2019) integrated Instagram into a course, using it to help students engage in digital storytelling. Students reported that the activity increased motivation, enhanced oral and writing skills, and improved English proficiency. The students also increased their peer-peer and student-teacher interactions. Students demonstrate several preferences relating to the use of Instagram in learning English. For example, students prefer to use it to learn simple rather than complex concepts (AlGhamdi, 2018) and vocabulary over grammar (Aloraini, 2018). English language learners with more considerable personal experience using Instagram are more likely to communicate in English and follow English language content in the App than non-experienced users (Gonulal, 2019). However, not all students have prior experience with Instagram. Brebara (2017) reported that in a sample of university students, 35% did not have an Instagram account, while 15% had an account but did not use it.

Additional Applications
Several other social media applications exist which may be relevant to learning the English language. WhatsApp is a mobile phone application that allows users to send texts, voice messages, documents, images, and make voice and video calls. In a study involving university-level English language students, Hamad (2017) reported that students perceived this App as beneficial in developing English skills and improving English vocabulary. Tumblr, another social media application, allows users to share not only photos, video, and text but also provides blogging functions. According to Rahmanita and Cahyono (2018), this application is associated with improvements in argumentative essay writing skills among undergraduate English language learners in Indonesia. Twitter enables users to share text, photos, and video, as well as respond to other users about posted content. Research suggests that Twitter is viewed as useful by English language learners, particularly in reading, vocabulary, grammar, and writing (Aloraini & Cardoso, 2018).

Methods
To investigate the use of social media, particularly Instagram and Snapchat, in the teaching of English to students who speak other languages, several databases were searched. These included Academic Search Complete; Education Source; ERIC; Library, Information Science, and Technology Abstracts; and Professional Development Collection. The following search strategy was used: (Teaching English as a Second Language (TESOL) OR foreign language OR language learner OR English Language Learning (ELL) OR English as a second language (ESL) OR English teaching OR Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) and (Instagram or Snapchat). This strategy returned 37 results, of which the abstracts were read to determine relevance to the research question. The 13 most relevant articles were retrieved and are included in this discussion. An additional search was performed adding the keyword “social media” to the second set of terms, returning 1,595 articles. After scanning the abstracts of the first 25 most relevant articles, two additional materials were selected for inclusion in the research.
Results

There are many perceived advantages and disadvantages of using Instagram in English language learning.

Table 1. Perceived Advantages and Disadvantages of Using Instagram in Learning English

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<td>1 Readily available</td>
<td>Lack of privacy</td>
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<tr>
<td>2 Affordable</td>
<td>Academic use may inhibit personal use</td>
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<tr>
<td>3 Allows one to become immersed in an English language environment</td>
<td>The information posted on Instagram may contain spelling and grammatical errors</td>
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<td>4 Informal learning context</td>
<td>Learning experiences based on Instagram may be too informal or unstructured</td>
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<td>5 Opportunity to use language in an authentic manner</td>
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<tr>
<td>6 Increases interest in learning English</td>
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<tr>
<td>7 Increases motivation for reading English materials</td>
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(Yeh & Mitric, 2019; Aloraini, & Cardoso, 2018; Brebara, 2018; Gonulal, 2019)

Preferences in Using Instagram to Learning English

English language learners may prefer to use Instagram as a vehicle for lessons with a simple rather than complex structure. Alghamdi (2018) reported that Instagram lessons with a simple lesson structure received more views, likes, and comments than those with complex ones. Figure 1 illustrates these differences.

Figure 1. Percent of Overall Views, Likes, and Comments Associated with Simple and Complex English Lessons

English language learners may also prefer using Instagram for learning vocabulary over grammar. According to Aloraini (2018), English language learners wrote a higher number of words per Instagram post relating to vocabulary lessons than grammar lessons, at a mean of 7.53 and 6.04, respectively (p=0.17). A Cohen’s d of 0.438 indicated a small effect in size for Instagram on
the output of words relating to vocabulary and grammar. As such, there was no statistically significant difference between the error rates of vocabulary and grammar posts (Aloraini, 2018). These differences are shown in Figure 2.

Gonulal (2019) classified Instagram users as either novice or experienced-based upon the number of years of using this social media outlet and its use in learning English. For example, 24% of novice users, who reported less than five years of experience using Instagram, used the platform to learn English, compared with 77% of experienced users. These two groups differed significantly on the number of hours spent using Instagram to learn English, the percentage that communicated in English while using the platform, and the percentage of English content followed by the user.

Novice users spent less time (hours) using Instagram (M = 1.29, SD = 1.09) than the experienced users (M = 2.41, SD = 2.03), U=1.595, p = 0.002. A smaller percentage of novice users communicated in English on Instagram (M = 30.02, SD = 27.99) than experienced users (M = 57.35, SD = 24.19), U =1.856, p = 0.001. In addition, a smaller percentage of novice users followed English content on their accounts (M = 13.20, SD = 16.68) than experienced users (M = 36.19, SD = 29.10), U = 1.717, p = 0.001 (Gonulal, 2019). The latter of these two differences are shown in Figure 3.
Use of Snapchat by English Learners

English language learners vary in their use of Snapchat for language lessons. Freyn (2017) reported that seven out of nine university students responded to 11 daily instructor-initiated Snapchat posts regarding the daily lesson or opinions about topics discussed in class. The results from this study showed the number of posts by each student over 11 days (M = 5.6, SD = 5.3).

![Number of Student Responses to Instructor Snapchat Comments](chart)

### Discussion

Overall, the findings suggest that Instagram may be an effective platform for engaging and learning of the English language. The advantages of using this form of social media include the ability to immerse the learner in an English language environment, the use of English in an authentic manner, and increased interest and motivation in learning English (Yeh & Mitric, 2019; Aloraini, & Cardoso, 2018; Brebara, 2018; Gonulal, 2019). These findings can be interpreted in light of the social constructivist theory. This theory explains that learners construct knowledge in an active process by linking new content to the existing concepts.

Learners interpret ideas within the context of their interests and experiences, and as such, understanding is influenced by life experience and dialogue with others (Beck & Kosnik, 2006). It is perhaps the latter that is most relevant to Instagram. Whether it is responding to a teacher's or peer's question or comment or sharing a new post about a personal interest, the learner is actively engaged and immersed in using English to communicate. Besides, Gonulal (2019) reported that just over one-third of experienced Instagram users follow English content on their account. Connections exist between knowledge and popular culture (Beck & Kosnik, 2006), and the ability of English language learners to follow the content of posters from another culture may help to increase knowledge of that culture, including its language.

The findings also indicated that English language learners might prefer to use Instagram in specific ways over others. For example, students preferred to use the social media platform for learning vocabulary over grammar (Aloraini, 2018) and identified improved vocabulary knowledge as one of the advantages of using Instagram in the English classroom (Gonulal, 2019). Learners readily connect to vocabulary terms and meanings in English to those existing in their language than they do grammar conventions. Learners also expressed a desire for more
straightforward lessons over the more complex ones (AlGhamdi, 2018). This suggests that Instagram may be limited in the amount of information that can be effectively presented to the learner at a given moment. Revesz (2011) reported that as task complexity increased, English language learners demonstrate greater accuracy in their use of the language and more advanced constructions. However, more complex tasks were also associated with decreased syntactic complexity (Revesz, 2011).

Regardless of preferences, Instagram may be most beneficial to learners with prior experience in using the social platform. Gonulal (2019) reported that more experienced Instagram users communicated more frequently on the platform in English and followed English content on their accounts than novice users. Social constructivism explains that learners interpret ideas within the context of their own experiences and interactions (Beck & Kosnik, 2006). Learners with more exceptional Instagram experience may be more adept at and interested in using the platform in a novel way, to learn English.

Unlike with Instagram in the English language learning classroom, a shortage of research exists about the use of Snapchat. Freyn (2017) reported that learners varied in their use of Snapchat in responding to instructor questions. Aloraini and Cardoso (2018) argued that novice social media users perceive Snapchat, as well as Instagram, as more useful in learning English than WhatsApp. Also, both novice and advanced users preferred Snapchat for learning listening and speaking skills. However, significant limitations exist in the case of both studies. Aloraini and Cardoso (2018) only presented a summary of their findings without any numerical data to support their contentions. Freyn (2017) included only nine subjects in the study, which limits the generalization of the results. Further research is needed regarding the use of Snapchat in the English language classroom before any recommendations can be made.

These findings confer several important implications for English language teachers. Instagram provides an effective platform for immersing learners in the English language and may be particularly beneficial for teaching vocabulary. When using Instagram, learners prefer straightforward lessons over intricate ones. Although the latter may be more helpful in learning, students’ interest and motivation may increase with simpler lessons. If students are not interested in or motivated to engage with a lesson then learning is not likely to occur. In addition, prior experience in using Instagram seems to be beneficial in using it to learn English. Learners with little experience using this platform may benefit from instructions and time spent using it for social purposes in their language before using it as a tool to learn English.

In addition to implications for educators, recommendations for further research exist. The studies included in this discussion primarily addressed the attitudes and perceptions of learners. Future research should address the effectiveness of using Instagram in improving reading, writing, and speaking skills among English language learners. Thus, studies might compare standardized test scores of students that do or do not use Instagram in the classroom.

Conclusion
The purpose of this discussion was to report on the use of, attitudes, and perceptions towards Instagram and Snapchat in the English language learning classroom. Findings indicated that
learners perceive Instagram as advantageous in learning how to read and communicate in English, learning vocabulary, immersing the learning in an English language environment, and providing authentic learning experiences. Disadvantages of this platform include a lack of privacy, inhibition of personal use, lack of structure in learning opportunities, and the existence of grammar and spelling errors in public posts across the Internet. People prefer to use Instagram to learn vocabulary rather than grammar, and they prefer simple to complex lessons. This is because the learners are actively engaged and immersed in using English to communicate with others. Learners with prior Instagram experience may benefit more from using this platform to learn English than those with limited previous experience. Overall, the finding suggests that Instagram may be a viable educative platform for English learners to holding their interest and motivating them to learn. As with Snapchat, additional research data is needed before any conclusions can be drawn about its actual effectiveness in producing quantifiable learning outcomes.

About the Author:
Dr. Hind Al Fadda is an associate professor in the field of TESOL. She had many papers published related English teaching methods, with special emphasis on Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) and writing methods. She participated in lots of educational conferences.
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References
Determining How Social Media Affects Learning English

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Suggestions to Increase Oral Participation in an at-risk Chilean Public Primary EFL Classroom

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Abstract
The current study inquires about the students’ perception regarding their English classes at Escuela Dra Eloísa Díaz, an at-risk public school in Santiago de Chile. How do students value their English classes? What are the difficulties they have to face, and how can teachers increase students’ participation are the research question that lead this investigation. Accordingly, the main objectives are to determine the students’ perception regarding their English classes, to comprehend the main difficulties they have to face and to provide recommendations to enhance the weaker areas. To achieve the intended aims, the researchers use a mixed-method data collection procedure to gain meaningful information. A quantitative survey to obtain a broad vision regarding several aspects of the English classes at the targeted school, complemented by a focus group and a series of interviews aiming to get more in-depth knowledge qualitatively. After the analysis process, the authors conclude that oral participation is one of the main obstacles students have to overcome in their English language learning processes. Students are conscious of the importance of learning English and the difficulties they have to face. Among them, they recognize a low level in oral participation and the lack of personal effort. Reading is for them the easiest skill to develop, while speaking appears to be the most difficult one. Their perception of the English language learning process seems to be limited, and students clearly associate learning with having fun.

Keywords: Chilean Public Primary school, EFL classroom, learning, motivation, oral participation

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Introduction
Learning is a process that involves the interaction between teachers and students around a given activity. The idea is to promote participation and to encourage students to express their thoughts in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) classroom. Oral participation promotes autonomous learning that should reflect the students’ ability to develop communication skills that one may enhance through new teaching aids. In this interactive procedure, it is essential to consider the students’ learning styles and to lower their emotional filter to achieve the English lesson objectives. In doing so, teachers have to overcome a series of barriers that may harm oral participation. Among which, one may mention, poor teacher-student relationship, lack of personal security or self-esteem, teacher-centred classes, low expectancies and motivation, inadequate teaching environments, and so forth.

The challenge to increase oral participation at a school that, according to official figures provided by the Junta de Auxilio Escolar y Becas (JUNAEB, 2019) [School Assistance and Scholarships Board], has an 86.4% of students in a vulnerable condition is even bigger and more demanding. Accordingly, teachers have to face this difficulty when developing and implementing their lessons. They certainly need to design new strategies and develop effective pedagogical practices to boost the learning process and achieve the intended results.

The current study describes, in the most comprehensively possible way, how students perceive their English classes; mainly, how teachers develop the communicative skill and the difficulties students have to face.

How do students value their English classes? What are the main difficulties they have to face and overcome? What hinders their oral participation? How can teachers increase their students’ engagement? All valid questions that help guide this research.

In an attempt to contribute, this study also provides a series of suggestions aiming to improve oral production in the classroom. The authors not only refer to strategies meaning to enhance verbal participation, but also to other factors affecting it. Hence, they consider motivational and affective variables, as well.

The vulnerable context in which the authors conduct the current research should allow the involved agents to identify and comprehend some of the primary classroom problematic situations. This process should serve as a base to develop adequate strategies to increase oral participation in this specific context. To achieve this, it is crucial to accomplish a well-balanced integration of teaching strategies, learning styles, visual teaching aids, and motivational aspects. Students who become involved in their learning process will have better chances to increase their level of oral participation in the classroom.

Context: school profile
As the authors have already stated, they researched at an at-risk school. Escuela Dra Eloísa Díaz (EDED) is a public school located in Conchalí, Santiago. EDED is a K-8 co-educational school and one of the most prominent educational institutions in the district, with total enrolment of 725 students.
The vision of the school is to promote education, to develop cognitive skills, values, and affective factors areas throughout the school’s community. The mission is to provide a culture based on skills and abilities development, respecting the students’ individuality and fostering lifelong learning skills.

The programme taught at school follows the requirements and standards of the Ministry of Education (MINEDUC, 2019). In terms of curricular planning, the school follows the National Curriculum and applies all the Chilean standardized assessments.

EDED is part of the preferential school grant regime, a law that provides state resources to improve equity and educational quality at vulnerable public schools. The school uses them to acquire materials and to implement activities that help achieve ministerial goals.

The school’s staff consists of the Headmaster, two professionals in charge of the discipline, an officer teacher responsible for the pedagogical, technical unit, a psychosocial department, and 40 teachers.

The community recognises the school for its integration team. They promote inclusion with an open view of all the students’ needs. This approach has allowed strengthening efforts to improve the students’ learning achievements. Some of this team’s functions are conducting curricular adjustments, reinforcing learning, and accompanying students in the classroom.

The school has a vast cultural diversity due to the immigration of students who come from different countries such as Haiti, Venezuela, Peru, the Dominican Republic, and Colombia. In terms of socioeconomic status, students come from a low-class background with 86.4% percent of scholar vulnerability.

Despite this reality, EDED has been able to promote sports, culture, and technology. Several school teams compete and represent their school in communitarian activities. Besides, students participate in theatre shows and dance performances, making artistic interventions, enhancing experiential exchange with other educational communities.

Teachers report to be proud of their school’s achievement; mainly, when considering the students’ social background. Indeed, these excellent results strengthen their commitment to the institution.

Another area of interest is the development of skills that link students to the educational community, facilitating their interest in learning, increasing participation, responsibility, and creating a closer alliance among teachers, students, families, and the school.

Literature review
Before presenting the research design, the authors dim it necessary to provide some bibliographical background to facilitate the understanding of the study problem and its integration to a larger field of study.
Vulnerability
One may understand vulnerability as the situation of groups, homes, and individuals regarding their access to material and immaterial assets, who may suffer significant changes in their living standards when facing circumstances such as redundancy or cuts in their income levels.

Subbarao & Coury (2004) define vulnerable children as “those whose safety, well-being and development are threatened, with major dangers including lack of care and affection, adequate shelter, education, nutrition, and psychological support” (p.1), while Bialobrzeska et al. (2012) consider a vulnerable student as

someone who has no access or limited access to basic needs such as sufficient and nutritious food, shelter, adequate clothing, a safe home and community environment free from abuse and exploitation, family care and support, good health care, and the ability to take full advantage of available education opportunities (p. 4).

As one can realise, vulnerability does not only refer to an accumulation of material disadvantages but also a series or emotional and affective factors, crossed by social factors and personal and cultural characteristics.

In practical terms, one may regard vulnerability as a risky social condition that hinders the affected groups from achieving wellbeing in specific sociocultural contexts. Students in such a situation will require teachers who accompany them throughout their educational process, providing them with the necessary information and tools to complete their studies and access the labour world.

One of the main risks for vulnerable students is the desertion of the educational system. This situation implies the danger of weakening their psychosocial competencies development and meaningful learning processes, which would lead to compromising their insertion in the labour world.

The role of mentor teachers in vulnerable contexts should be of learning mediators, in the understanding that effective and long-lasting learning occurs when you expose your students to concepts and experiences in a highly interactive and participative way. Interaction within a given cultural environment is essential since students learn from social interaction with others (Vygotsky, 1993).

Mentor teachers should base their practice on closeness, trust, and reciprocity. Their action has to be flexible, executed in different spaces and a diversified manner, helping their students not only to identify their missing skills but also guiding them to overcome their weaknesses.

Oral skills development in an EFL classroom
When students are reluctant to participate in EFL oral classroom activities a considerable challenge for teachers emerges. As Wei (2008) suggests, it is not possible to improve spoken English without students’ oral participation. Abebe & Denek (2015), who state that in the context of an EFL environment “teaching and learning, students’ verbal participation or engagement is essentially
important in the classrooms” (p. 74), shared this idea. Additionally, they consider that students should develop their communicative competence at school and that students should contribute creating the classroom discourse. In their experience, there is always a certain degree of hesitation among students to participate in oral activities. One may find this unfavourable attitude regardless of the years they might have been studying English. As a means to overcome this difficulty, Abebe & Denke (2015) recommend a series of strategies such as creating a warm atmosphere, lowering students’ anxiety, using names in a friendly way, relating topics to the students’ life, introducing speaking opportunities outside the class, avoiding fears of making mistakes, building self-confidence, improving vocabulary knowledge and dealing with overcrowded classes. As one may realise, most of these suggestions are associated with psychological and motivational aspects rather than with technical matters.

Another exciting research worth reviewing is Bocanegra’s & Ramírez’ (2018). They also find that “students often become passive speakers since the teacher and not the students do almost all the talking” (p. 67). As the previous authors, they also aim to improve oral participation and performance, but this time using children’s cartoons. Following an action research approach that consists of four stages: planning, acting, observing, and reflecting the authors find that the use of cartoons activated the students’ motivation, improved participation, helped further participation in interactive classroom activities, and increased the level of amusement and satisfaction.

So far, the authors have stressed the importance of providing learners with opportunities to use oral English for communicative purposes. In their opinion, language teaching and learning happens within a social context, which teachers have to consider when designing and implementing the learning activities; primarily, those related to developing speaking skills.

Choo & Stella (2015) go a step further when valuing oral participation as an evaluation tool. Their research intends to contribute to class participation as a form of assessment. It aims “to explore the alignment between student and teacher expectations in terms of graded class participation” (p. 1).

Among their main findings, one may highlight the need for teachers to express the oral participation expectation and desired outcomes, before initiating the assessment process, the convenience that students expressed their opinion regarding the evaluation method, and linking grading to specific objectives and outcomes. One of the main difficulties Choo & Stella (2015) report is the absence of uniformity in interpreting the scoring rubric.

Crosthwaite, Bailey & Meeker (2015) present another study that addressed the topic of in-class participation assessment. They intend to study a cohort of students learning style orientation (LSO), the relationship between their LSO, their English ability and their level of classroom participation, and the effect of using rubrics on learners of a particular LSO.

The LSO is diverse, and students are far from having one particular learning style. As a result, the authors conclude, “assessing classroom participation as part of the overall grade for tertiary EFL courses does not have a universally positive effect” (p. 17). Students with individualistic learning styles tend to participate less than their mates having common forms.
Accordingly, one should be extremely careful when grading their participation level; especially, for reasons of inclusion.

English speaking and the tests to measure this skill in the Thai context is the topic of Khamkhien’s (2010) research. Despite the governmental efforts, such as curricular reforms, the author report that the level of the English performance does not meet the expected standards. The main reasons for these low results would be limited exposure to the English language, the lack of teachers’ qualification, and the use of traditional grammar-translation methods. In the author’s words ‘Interaction in the language classroom is mostly teacher-dominated, and learners are called upon primarily to provide factual responses, which is not genuine and authentic’ (p.186).

As far as the speaking tests are concerned, Khamkhien (2010) consider that formats affected testing and that most assessment tools present difficulties regarding pronunciation, authentic communication, and communication breakdowns. This situation conveys pedagogical implications that the implied agents should address: teaching approaches based mainly on the authentic English learning environment, the sound use of grammar, the role of the teachers, the alignment between teaching and assessing, and tests reflecting the learners’ real-life oral performance.

Warayet (2011), as all the previously reviewed authors attribute great importance to oral participation during the English language learning process. He states, “ … the most popular method for language teaching since the end of the 20th century, student oral contribution has been regarded as essential for classroom participation”(pp. 7-8). Warayet (2011) considers that participation involved much more than just speaking. Accordingly, he identifies and describes different ways in which students may participate. For example, embodied actions and desk talking. The former is constituted by an action like gazing towards the teacher, gazing towards the speaker, looking at textbooks, hand raising, head nodding, facial-expression, hand movement, and group-making. At the same time, the latter consists of student turns taking and oral discussion.

Tepfenhart (2011) presents another contribution to the subject study. She postulates that motivation affects verbal partnership, so she searches for factors learners found most influential in oral participation. Among the positive aspects, she identifies fun, recognition, and motivating classroom environment, being self-consciousness and low self-efficacy, the main constraints. Students tend to feel either embarrassed or not good enough to take part in oral activities. To overcome these limitations, the author suggests

- To encourage all students to participate.
- To create a safe and fun environment.
- To design and implement community-building activities.
- To tell students in advance the expected proficiency levels.
- To help lower-achieving students gain confidence.

The authors consider this last suggestion very important for the purpose of the current research. In Tepfenhart’s (2011) words “as students gain some successes in the language, their confidence will grow. As their confidence grows so should their enjoyment of the class and of the language, and their amount of oral participation should naturally increase as well” (p. 21).
Having presented sufficient and up-dated literary support, the authors will now refer to the research design.

**The present study**
Research methods have always been very challenging, and several approaches attempt to guide investigators. Some may range from the positivistic perspective, whose ideal is to establish a sound distance between the researcher and the study object, up to the narrative inquiry, in which the informants talk about themselves without avoiding their subjectivity.

Some authors criticise qualitative research in terms of validity, generalization, and reliability; others consider quantitative methods do not provide profound and significant explanations of the topics studied, especially, as far as human behaviour is concerned. Rather than favouring one of these two approaches, the authors tried to overcome this dispute by stating that these two perspectives are not only legitimate but also complementary.

**Objectives**
The following objectives guide the current research.
1. To determine the students’ perception regarding their EFL classroom.
2. To comprehend the main difficulties they have to face.
3. To provide suggestions to enhance oral participation.

**Methodology**
The current research uses a mixed-method strategy of quantitative and qualitative methodologies: a survey to obtain a broad vision of the study object, a focus group, and personal interviews to gain a limited yet more in-depth understanding.

**Data collection instruments**
The researchers applied a survey to all students who were present the appointed date, and it included aspects such as the interest for the English lessons, personal effort, motivation, instructions understanding, task completion, content learning perception, and degree of oral participation.

The focus group and interviews included participants of both genders, selected on a non-discriminative voluntary base. Sixteen students agreed to be part of these procedures, which represented 50% of the class. Both methods used a semi-structured technique.

**Data analysis**
The authors analysed the survey results using an Excel spreadsheet; the authors generated the necessary graphs and descriptively explained them.

The data collected via focus group was organised in figures to facilitate their study and representation. At the same time, the authors codified and analysed the interviews using some of the pertinent AQUAD 7 procedures.
The participants
All the students who took part in this research belong to Eight Grade A. The researchers chose this group because they were the older students in their school and hence, more mature and experienced.

According to official information, this group has a total amount of 32 students, 18 males, and 14 females. Students have been classmates since first grade, except for a few specific cases. In Chile, public schools start English lessons in fifth grade. Teachers base their English lessons mainly on grammatical structures and some other complementary activities. The Ministry of Education provides the programmes and guidelines and all the necessary materials, such as dictionaries and textbooks. In this class group, English classes consisted of four weekly pedagogical hours.

Results and discussion
In this section, the authors present and discuss the main results obtained through the different data collection methods.

The survey
The researchers asked the students to self-assess their performance during Unit 2: “Countries, culture, and costumes.” 26 out of 32 students were present that day, and they all agreed to collaborate. Figure 1 depicts the answers.

![Survey: self-assessment](image)

*Figure 1. Students’ self-assessment*

Eleven students report feeling highly interested in the unit, while 15 express a medium or moderate interest. No informants feel uninterested. Regarding effort, only three students consider to have made a high effort, 17 a moderate one, and six acknowledge having made no effort at all. An effort is clearly and attitudinal competency closely related to the affective domain.

Motivation one of the engines that trigger students’ learning, render the following results: eight highly motivated students, 18 reporting a medium motivation, and none felt utterly unmotivated. An understanding is associated with instructions comprehension, being the results: eight students reporting a high level of comprehension, 16 a medium degree and two inform not having understood much.
Five students report having completed all or most of the assigned tasks, 20 a medium level of task completion, while only one states a low degree of achievement. Interestingly, learning has the best results. Thirteen students consider to have achieved a high level of knowledge, eleven a moderate one, only two self-assess their learning degree as low. The concept learning obtains the highest number of participants who self-assess this concept at the highest level, which is undoubtedly positive.

Oral participation, one of the focus of the current study, reports the following findings. Eight students who consider having achieved a high level of verbal interaction, eleven learners who report a moderate degree of participation, and seven who self-assess their oral performance as low. Verbal participation is the studied area that gathers the highest amount of students in the lowest rank. As seen, oral participation is a complex issue due to all the intervening variables.

The focus group
Two gain more profound knowledge of the study subject; the researchers conducted a focus group whose data they will now present through a series of charts to summarise the students’ answers.

Why is English important?
As one can realise from Figure 2, the students provide a wide variety of reasons to account for the importance the English language had from their points of view.

Figure 2. English importance
The reasons include the need for communicative competencies, potential travels, linguistic autonomy, fulfilling functions such as buying and placing orders, being informed and up-dated, and gaming.
Which is the most accessible skill to develop?
Reading is the most natural skill for the students, mainly because they can read as many times as they like, and understanding American speakers is difficult for them.

Which is the most challenging skill to develop?
It is not possible to identify the most difficult skill for them since students report having difficulties when listening and when speaking. Figure 3 illustrates the reasons for their opinions.

![Figure 3. Most challenging English skill](image)

What suggestions for the EFL classroom could you provide as a student?
During the first focus group, the researchers asked the students for classroom activities suggestions. Figure 4 synthesizes their replies.

![Figure 4. Suggestions](image)

The students’ suggestions prove to be quite sensitive and well inspired. They consider collective and collaborative work, acquiring new vocabulary, supporting understanding through translation (debatable), full language immersion, the use of technological and visual means, and the counselling and motivational role of the teacher.

What would you like to learn in English?
When asked what they would like to learn, the students provide a broad and diversified scope of answers. The most enthusiastic ones report wanting to learn everything, though it is not accessible.
to precise what they mean by that. For others, the cultural aspects of the language are an exciting target. Trustfully, learning a language also means getting to know its historical and cultural background.

Students relate an essential set of answers to linguistic fluency, which participants aim to develop through increasing their vocabulary, their functional sentences, and their verbal production. Another group of learning expectations is associated with personal aspirations, such as traveling to English speaking countries, meeting people there, and buying.

**How would you like to learn English?**

Finally, the authors ask the participants about their preferred learning methods. Figure 5 provides a good view of their answers.

![Learning preferences](image)

*Figure 5. Learning preferences*

As one may realise, their wishes are in the line of learning while having fun, playing, and using technological devices.

**The interviews**

In the search for in-depth knowledge through diverse methods of data collection, the authors also conducted a series of interviews. Figure 6 depicts the code use frequency.

![Code frequency](image)

*Figure 6. Code frequency*
As one can observe, students refer to what they dislike about their English classes (DISL) eleven times. What they like about them (LIKE), what is difficult for them (DIFF), and how they would like their classes to be (HWLC) occupy the second position, as students mention them seven times each. The importance they attribute to the English language learning (EIMP) obtains six references; five times, they refer to contributions students can make (CONT), as well as changes students would introduce to the English classes (CHAN). Participants mention reasons for not participating (PART) in English classes four times, while what is easy for the students (EASY), only scores two references.

Having presented the frequency of the codes, the researchers will now conduct a code-by-code analysis.

**Code CHAN: What students would change in the EFL classes**
Most students agree in organising funnier and more dynamic classes. They would motivate through videos, and they would use games to foster learning. Besides, they would generate exercises to complement what they are learning.

Through these answers, one could realise how motivational aspects are essential for students and how they associate games and videos with learning while having fun.

**Code CONT: How students could contribute**
The interviews helped to collect answers to ponder the students’ awareness of their responsibility in the English language learning process. For example, students participating more often in classes, paying more attention, helping to maintain a positive learning environment, and being more motivated to learn.

**Code DIFF: What students find difficult**
Just as students are conscious of their responsibility in the learning process, they also show awareness about the difficulties they have to face. Through the interviews, the students inform about the following difficulties:
- not knowing how to speak in English
- getting confused
- a different word order (comparing English to their mother tongue)
- a noisy environment
- highly talkative and loud classmates
- reluctance to complete the assigned tasks
- laziness
- lack of verbal participation, and
- classmates who do not respect the other students’ opinions.

As one may realise, difficulties are mainly of two orders, personal and collective. The latter affects the former. A student may be willing to make an effort to overcome his or her difficulties, but if the context is not promising, that effort may prove useless. Consequently, group management, through activating motivation and engaging students, is essential.
Code DILLS: What students dislike
The collected data allows suggesting that there are personal and technical factors students do not like. Among them, one may mention some of the teachers’ discouraging attitude, activities that implied too much writing, explanations that are difficult to understand, and the repetitive use of the same teaching resources.

Doubtlessly, the students’ opinions convey an excellent challenge for the English teachers and denote a certain level of quality teaching expectations that can be very useful at the time of generating the students’ commitment and personal engagement with the English class and their learning processes.

Code EASY: What students find easy
The students’ view seem to be rather pessimistic in this regard, as they can identify only two aspects that they consider easy for them: reading what teachers write on the blackboard and pronouncing isolated words following the teacher’s model. One may relate this poor perception to their academic self-esteem and their previous learning experiences.

Code EIMP: Why is learning English important
In contemporary society, the importance of the English language is almost self-explanatory. The students provide a wide and varied scope of reasons. Among them, one may list:

- visiting English speaking countries
- being able to communicate and express yourself correctly
- meeting people from other countries
- accessing materials written in English, and
- feeling “cool” speaking another language.

Despite their vulnerable condition, the students seem to be aware of the needs and demands of the English language in the knowledge society.

Code HWLC: How students would like their classes
Additionally, it is possible to obtain a clear idea of what students expect in their English classes: interactivity, entertainment, and learning. They ask for video material in English with lots of examples to consider the students’ interests, music, and activities where they all can participate, and not only the same three students and useful sentences to speak with people of other countries.

Code LIKE: What students like
The participants are also able to identify some aspects of their English classes they like. Some of them are very ambitious. They want to learn everything about the English language, all that the teachers explain and learning more things. Other students evidence more specific expectations; for example, learning new sentences, creating posters, and preparing dialogues. Indistinctively, all of them evidence a certain degree of enthusiasm and a desire to learn that teachers should use to boost their classes.
Suggestions to Increase Oral Participation in an at-risk Chilean Barrios & Garay

Code PART: Why students do not participate in classes
Though students seem to be well aware of the importance of active participation in classes, several aspects prevent them from doing so. One may relate some of them to psychological facets, while their previous learning experiences and class context may account for others. Some reasons they mention:
- Feeling ashamed of talking
- Not knowing what to say
- The difficulty of giving opinions in English
- Not having had English at an early stage
- Misbehaviour
- Noise and lack of concentration
- The few students who participated were always the same
- Unattractive activities
- Not enough singing and computer use

Teachers should address all these issues if they genuinely want to increase the level of the students’ oral participation in their EFL classroom.

Conclusion and propositions
Students seem to be quite conscious of their limitations and the difficulties they have to face when learning English. A low level in oral participation and the lack of effort appear to be two main constraints. However, they also inform about their interest in this subject and their desire to learn. The degree of awareness about the importance of the English language may account for their interest and their willingness to learn it, despite they do not deploy all their means to do so.

Reading is the most natural skill to develop according to the participants; mainly, because they have the chance to reach a certain degree of understanding by reading as many times as they want. Oppositely, the students consider speaking the most difficult skill, thus affecting oral participation in the classroom. Some reasons for this are some psychological aspects such as insecurity, low self-esteem, and feeling ashamed, as well as some linguistics facets as lack of vocabulary and poor sentence structuring command.

The vision the students have about the English language learning process seems somewhat bounded. In their conception, it consists only of acquiring new words, getting understanding through translation, and learning new sentences. Probably, the teaching methodology their teachers have used exercises some influence on this reductionist conception. Notwithstanding, a few students consider that learning cultural and historical issues is also important, possibly, a sign of more maturity or a broader vision of the role of English in the world and their lives.

Finally, students associate learning with having fun. They report music, playing games, and the use of technological devices as desirable learning tools. Doubtlessly, all these means are part of their daily routines and highly familiar for them.

One of the objectives of the current research is to provide some suggestions to increase oral participation in an EFL classroom, which the researchers will now fulfil. Though the authors intend
these suggestions for the specific vulnerable school where they conducted this study, some of them may be applicable in other realities with the necessary adjustments or may serve as a source of inspiration for other teachers as well.

Considering that variables such as environment, social status, culture, language, and affection affect vulnerable students significantly, the following suggestions will bear them in mind. The authors present them from the teachers’ perspective.

- Become a leader who provides guidance and counselling rather than a mere language instructor.
- Get your students to identify themselves as active members of their class. This action should help them to assume their responsibility in oral activities such as role-playing and debates.
- When teaching favour collective and collaborative approaches. Oral participation requires pair and group work.
- Provide the necessary vocabulary and design learning opportunities to build language discourse through participation. Discourse development should become part of every English lesson.
- Highlight any contribution or advancement, no matter how irrelevant it may appear. This action should boost students’ motivation, and sense of achievement.
- Consider your learners’ interests when planning the lessons. Students will tend to become more engaged in them, and they will feel included.
- Bear in mind, their desire for games and entertaining activities. Include some sorts of fun competition, visual aids, and the use of some technological devices.
- Involve your students in classroom discussions. This involvement implies avoiding doing all the talking, as students may feel discouraged and finding it difficult staying focused.
- Favour interactive and participative methodologies as a sound mean to maintain concentration and reduce anxiety.
- Set clear learning and participation expectations so that students develop an explicit vision of their role during the lesson.
- Create a respectful atmosphere. Students should feel well and secure. That is to say, consider mistakes as a mean of learning and effectively dealing with any sign of misbehaviour or disrespect among them.
- Help students understand that a pleasant classroom environment facilitates learning. A set of basic classroom rules and their fulfilment may help you achieve this.
- Do not forget that classroom participation also means paralinguistic communication. Consequently, pay attention to gestures and body language.
- Closeness and personal follow up are usually suitable means for supporting left behind students and developing students’ commitment.

Limitations and suggestions for further research
The research conveys at least two main limitations. The authors conducted the survey, focus group, and interviews in Spanish, the students’ mother tongue; therefore, some nuances might have got lost in translation. Additionally, the research occurred at a local and specific educational establishment, with its own culture and peculiarities; hence, it would be difficult to generalise its results.
The methodological implications of increasing oral participation may offer exciting possibilities for further research. What strategies do teachers use to enhance oral production? How do students value them? What methodology, resources, and material are more useful in attaining the desired goal? How do teachers interconnect speaking to the other linguistic skills? How do teachers support slow or left-behind students to overcome their low levels of oral participation and production? These are all research questions that could have direct implications for the teachers’ daily practice.

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Phonological Problems of Omani EFL Learners: Pedagogical Perspectives and Implications

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Abstract
Like many non-native learners, English is a Foreign Language to Omani learners; therefore, Spoken English turns out to be difficult and often problematic. Non-native learners of English face several phonological problems mainly because most languages follow specific, predictable rules of pronunciation, but English does not. There are native and non-native varieties of English, which differ not only in terms of vocabulary and grammar but also in pronunciation. In the backdrop of phonological differences between varieties of English and ensuing pronunciation problems, this action research was conducted to investigate the phonological problems that Omani learners at school level encounter. The study was based on focused observation using the diary as a tool for data collection for six months each in one (1) class of grade seven (7) and one (1) class of grade nine (9) in two Omani public schools. The total sample size was 100. The collected phonological data were coded and organized in terms of marked thematic categories. The recurrent problems which surfaced in the Spoken English of Omani learners involved in this study were pure vowel substitution for diphthongs /eʊ/ and /eɪ/, replacement of /p/ by /b/ sound, insertion of the vowel sound /ɪ/ while pluralizing the words, syllabification of initial and final consonant clusters, deletion of /s/ sound occurring as the final element from consonant clusters, the alternation between /dʒ/ and /ʒ/ and /dʒ/, /tʃ/ and /ʃ/ sounds, replacement of /tʃ/ by /ʃ/ sound, lengthening of certain vowel sounds, pronouncing ‘r’ in all phonetic environments, irregularities in the use of weak forms, and not following the rules of aspiration. Based on the emerging phonological problems, certain remedial activities were planned and used with the students, which helped improve their phonological problems considerably. These remedial activities are proposed and recommended as measures of pedagogical intervention.

Keywords: alternation of sounds, aspiration, consonant clusters, non-native varieties, Omani learners, phonetic environment, phonological problems, predictable rules, syllabification

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Introduction
In today’s world of competition, the knowledge and competence of English are desirable for many reasons. English is widely used as a contact or link language between the speakers of other languages. It is generally the medium of higher education. In the areas of Science and Technology, English is used for communication. It is the language commonly used in seminars and conferences. In academic or intellectual gatherings, English is preferred for transacting business. A considerable amount of English is used on radio, television, and social media.

By consensus, people believe that English makes a considerable difference in their career prospects. It is often felt that proficiency in English is an essential skill that will affect their success in the future. To be able to speak well in English is an advantage for getting a job, promotion, and favor. Those who choose salesmanship require excellent command of English. Students who plan to pursue higher studies and overseas assignments realize the importance of English.

Among other skills, ‘speech’ is primary to language in the sense that we first learn to speak for communication. Writing comes later. And, the use of speech is generally more than that of writing in everyday interactions and situations. “Having a good pronunciation of a language, as Al Yaqoobi, Ali, and Sulam (2016) have argued, is essential for communication, particularly intelligibility” (p. 59). The correct pronunciation of words is also essential for the reason, as Nation and Newton (2008) have stated that if learners’ pronunciation of a word is not stable, then the word cannot quickly enter long-term memory because the unstable pronunciation makes it difficult for the word to be held in the phonological loop. As Roach (2009) has explained, “Languages have different accents, and they are pronounced differently by people from different geographical places, from different classes, of different ages and different educational backgrounds” (p. 3). A more significant issue with the phonological system of English is that it does not allow for a one-to-one relationship between the spellings and pronunciations. George Bernard Shaw, an Irish playwright, drew people’s attention to the confusing spelling system of English (cited in Patil, 2002, p. 16). He took the example of the sounds represented by ‘gh,’ ‘o,’ and ‘ti’ in the following words, respectively: enough, women and nation. How are these letters pronounced? The letters ‘gh’ in enough is pronounced like the same as the first letter in fish; the letter ‘o’ in women is spoken as the second letter in fish, and the letters ‘ti’ in the nation are articulated as the last two letters in fish. Therefore, G. B. Shaw wondered why people didn’t spell the word fish as ghoti!

Thus, as Patil, (2002) has argued, “It is no surprise that English language is a difficult language to pronounce” (pp. 16-17), where spelling is no guide. Such a situation of diversity and differences calls for research studies in non-native contexts of the English language where English is not learned as the mother tongue.

Literature Review
According to Gillette (1994) and Pennington (1994), the influence of learners’ first language causes pronunciation errors. In English, as Balasubramaniam (1981, rep. 1995) has discussed, spelling is not a reliable guide to how a word is spoken as there is no one-to-one correspondence between the letters and sounds of English. Another reason for such differences, as Patil (2002) has explained, are there due to varieties of English. There are native varieties of English such as British English, American English, Australian English, etc. and there are non-native English
varieties like Indian English, Singaporean English, etc. These varieties of English also differ not only in terms of vocabulary and grammar but also in terms of pronunciation.

Some studies have been conducted on the Omani students’ pronunciation problems; however, their scope is limited in nature. Al Balushi and Al Seyabi (2016), in their study on the spelling strategies, have found that Omani EFL learners predominantly use spelling strategies such as sounding out, syllabification, and visual checking, which indicates that the students try to link pronunciation with spelling. Another study, conducted by El Shorbagi et al. (2017) on the first-grade basic education program Omani students, has indicated towards the gap and need for effective phonemic and phonological awareness programs. Al Yaqoobi, Ali, and Sultan’s study (2016) has examined Omani EFL learners’ errors in certain consonant sounds, which are limited to only some plosive and affricate sounds. Al Mahrooqi’s (2012) study has focused on Omani students’ perspectives on low proficiency of English in Oman in which some reflections have been made on phonological aspects. In view of the limited perspective of phonological problems of Omani learners available in the literature, this study focuses on examining all those phonological aspects where deviations are observed in Omani school learners’ phonological productions in English.

Al Yaqoobi, Ali, and Sultan (2016) have reported that the first language interference, teachers, curriculum, and lack of students’ practice outside the classroom are the factors that affect Omani learners’ pronunciation in English” (p. 60). As an illustration of L1 interference of Omani learners, the classic example of the dichotomy between the voiceless, bilabial, plosive sounds /p/ and /b/ in the context of English and voiced, bilabial, plosive sound /b/ in the context of Arabic phonological system can be highlighted and discussed. As Brown (2000), and Nunan and Carter (2001) have argued that /p/ and /b/ are two different phonemes in the phonological system of English language; however, voiceless, bilabial, plosive sound /p/ does not exist in the phonological system of the Arabic language. Therefore, the Omani learners, and also other Arab learners, replace the phoneme /p/ by /b/ due to this binary gap. As a result, they pronounce, for example, the word ‘pin’ as /bin/ rather than /pin/ which leads to semantic confusion. Similarly, Brown (2000) has found that L1 transfer is a significant source of errors for L2 learners. O’Connor (2003) has rightly argued that learners are confused with such sounds, and they tend to replace such sounds with other sounds that are similar to their L1. Similarly, Binturki (2008) and Hameed and Aslam (2015) have reported that consonant sound pairs such as /p/ & /b/; /s/ & /θ/; /z/ & /ð/; and /ʃ/ & /ʃ/ cause similar pronunciation problem of replacing the one with the other in English words. In similar context, Wahba (1998) has reported that “Egyptian learners wrongly pronounce the word /pjuːpl/ as /bjuːbl/ (p. 3). As Rabab’ah (2003) has explained other factors that contribute to the faulty pronunciation are: first language interference, lack of interest, and lack of exposure to English speaking environment. According to Abbad (1998), low priority is given to pronunciation training in English language courses, and in Al Jadidi’s (2009) view, lack of awareness regarding pronunciation issues are the reasons for the problems of phonological intelligibility EFL learners face.
As Patil (2002) has explained, there are three significant causes of phonological errors: carelessness, over-carefulness, and affectation. Carelessness creeps in due to lack of awareness and motivation, while over-carefulness and affectation may result from over-consciousness (p. 33). If one wants to talk naturally and effectively, he/she should learn to recognize and avoid these errors. Effective speech expresses a thought, an idea, and an opinion in the simplest and most economical way. If one’s pronunciation is defective, the listener will not listen to her/his ideas. Careless pronunciation generally either annoys or amuses the listeners. Unless one intends to be funny, his/her speech must never amuse the listeners. So conspicuous the phonological problems listed above may become at times that they would force the listeners to focus their attention on the form of speech rather than on its substance. Hence, we need to be careful and alert all the time.

In line with Dani’s (1993) argument that the Spoken English Practice course should form an integral part of remedial work of language skills of listening and speaking (p. 23), remedial work for the phonological problems is a compelling need for the non-native EFL learners.

This phonological action research was undertaken based on the direction from the above studies. The following section discusses how this action research was conducted in the Omani EFL context.

**Research Methodology and Design**

Based on the premise that the phonological system of English language, unlike many other languages, does not allow for one-to-one correspondence between the spelling and pronunciation of those spellings and also that syllable structures and accent, rhythm, and intonation patterns surface differently in different languages; this action research was initiated. This study, to investigate phonological problems of middle school Omani EFL learners was conducted for a period of one year. The class size was 25 in each class. The study was based on focused observation using diary as a tool for data collection for a period of six months in one (1) class of grade seven (7) and grade nine (9) each of an Omani public school named Khalid Bin Al Waleed School in Bid Bid, Dakhilia region and for another six months in one (1) class of grade seven (7) and grade nine (9) each of an Omani public school called Maabela Higher Secondary School of Muscat region of Oman. The total sample size was 100. In order to see students’ phonological performance in their natural setting, I have employed the method of observation in view of the following research insights: As Basit (2010) has argued, “Observing the behavior of others is a natural phenomenon (p. 118). Researchers like Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007) regard observational methods as an essential measure to gain in-depth insight into situations. Observation is the method, which allows the researcher to get information by seeing what is happening without asking questions (Nunan, 1992), and it is a “non-judgmental description of classroom events that can be analyzed and given interpretation.” (Gebhard, 1999, p. 35). In this study, therefore, I have adopted a simple observation method to collect data. Comprehensive class notes were documented in a diary throughout the period of this study.

The collected phonological data were coded and organized in terms of marked thematic categories. Based on the phonological productions of students in the classes, and also outside the classroom, diary notes were recorded on a regular basis for a period of six months in each school. At the end of the data collection period, the diary notes were examined, sifted through, and listed
in terms of emerging thematic categories based on the frequency of errors that occurred. The remedial measures that helped students overcome their phonological problems in the two cycle-two grade 7 and 9 classes each, in the two schools, are organized and discussed in this paper.

In the following sections, the frequently encountered phonological problems and remedial measures used for improvement successfully are discussed. The pronunciation errors of average Omani learners in the middle phase of their school studies are classified and discussed in the following section, followed by remedial measures that were used as a pedagogical intervention.

Identified Phonological Problems of Omani EFL Learners

1. Replacement of /p/ by /b/ sound

As /p/ sound does not exist in the phonological system of Arabic language, most Omani EFL learners of English tend to replace it by /b/ sound as it shares the same place and manner of articulation except for the fact that /p/ is a voiceless sound and /b/ is a voiced sound. Thus, the word pay becomes bay in their speech. This phenomenon may often become a significant hindrance to the intelligibility of Omani English. Sometimes it may also lead to an embarrassing situation as in the case of pray versus bray. The matter of the fact is that such a substitution either brings about a total change in meaning or results in a nonsensical word. Here are some more such examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pot</td>
<td>/po:t/</td>
<td>/bo:t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plank</td>
<td>/plæŋk/</td>
<td>/blæŋk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plot</td>
<td>/plo:t/</td>
<td>/blo:t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paul</td>
<td>/po:l/</td>
<td>/bo:l/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pat</td>
<td>/pæt/</td>
<td>/bæt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pin</td>
<td>/pin/</td>
<td>/bin/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Replacement of /t/ by /t̚/ sound

Some Omani EFL learners find it challenging to articulate /t/ sound correctly. Below are some examples of such replacements, which cause confusion and sometimes misunderstanding.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>contact</td>
<td>/kəntækt/</td>
<td>/kɒntækt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>skit</td>
<td>/skɪt/</td>
<td>/skɪt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sixteen</td>
<td>/sɪksti:n/</td>
<td>/sɪkstɪ:n/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>test</td>
<td>/test/</td>
<td>/tɛst/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sister</td>
<td>/sɪstər/</td>
<td>/sɪstər/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tutor</td>
<td>/tju:tər/</td>
<td>/tʃuːtər/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Pure vowel substitution for the diphthongs /əu/ and /ei/

Although diphthongs like /əu/ and /ei/ do exist in Arabic words and phrases like /τəu/ and /ei ʃ ei/ meaning ‘now’ and ‘anything’ respectively, the Omani EFL learners somehow tend to replace the diphthongs /əu/ and /ei/ by long monophthongs or pure vowels /o:/ or /e:/ respectively. Generally speaking, this problem does not cause any serious problems, but at times it may result in some confusion. Here are some examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>close</td>
<td>/kləuz/</td>
<td>/kləuz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>goat</td>
<td>/goʊt/</td>
<td>/goʊt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hotel</td>
<td>/heutel/</td>
<td>/hoːtəl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fate</td>
<td>/fət/</td>
<td>/feːt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>baby</td>
<td>/beɪbi/</td>
<td>/beːbi/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>late</td>
<td>/leɪt/</td>
<td>/leːt/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Alternation between /dʒ/ and /ɡ/ sounds
A frequent alternation is observed between /dʒ/ and /ɡ/ sounds and between /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ sounds in the speech of Omani EFL learners. Thus the word, for example, engage is sometimes heard as /enɡeːdʒ/ and sometimes as /endʒədʒ/. Similarly, the word pleasure is heard as /pleːdʒər/ and chin as /ʃiŋ/. Such alternations may, at times, hamper intelligibility of speech. Some more examples of these alternations are as follow.

4.1. Alternation between /dʒ/ and /ɡ/ sounds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>jot</td>
<td>/dʒɔt/</td>
<td>/ɡɔt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>John</td>
<td>/dʒɔːn/</td>
<td>/ɡɔːn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>job</td>
<td>/dʒɔb/</td>
<td>/ɡɔb/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jet</td>
<td>/dʒɛt/</td>
<td>/ɡɛt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ginger</td>
<td>/dʒɪŋdʒər/</td>
<td>/ɡɪŋɡər/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vegetable</td>
<td>/ˈveɡətəbəl/</td>
<td>/ˈveɡətɪbəl/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2. Alternation between /ʒ/ and /dʒ/ sounds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pleasure</td>
<td>/pleʒə/</td>
<td>/pleːdʒər/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>measure</td>
<td>/meʒə/</td>
<td>/meːdʒər/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rouge</td>
<td>/ruːʒ/</td>
<td>/ruːdʒ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>leisure</td>
<td>/leʒə/</td>
<td>/leːdʒər/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Phonological Problems of Omani EFL Learners

4.3. Alternation between /tʃ/ and /ʃ/ sounds

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>chin</td>
<td>/tʃɪn/</td>
<td>/ʃɪn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>church</td>
<td>/tʃɜːtʃ/</td>
<td>/ʃɜːʃ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>choose</td>
<td>/tʃuːz/</td>
<td>/ʃuːz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chain</td>
<td>/tʃeɪn/</td>
<td>/ʃeːn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>/tʃaːniːz/</td>
<td>/ʃaːniːz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chicken</td>
<td>/tʃɪkɪn/</td>
<td>/ʃɪkɪn/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Insertion of a vowel /ɪ/ for the articulation of -s, -es, and -ed morphological inflections

Omani middle-grade school EFL learners are often found to insert a vowel sound for the articulation of plural marker -s, -es and the past tense marker -ed which, as per the standard conventions of pronunciation, invariably goes wrong in many situations. Words like films and arrived are often pronounced as /fɪlmz/ and /ərəvɪd/. Incidentally, the rule of pronunciation for these inflections differs in terms of their phonological environments. The articulation of the plural marker -s/es results in /s/ if the inflected word ends in a voiceless sound; /z/ if it ends with a voiced sound, and /z/ if the inflected word ends with /s/, /z/, /ʃ/, /tʃ/, /dʒ/ and /ʒ/. Similarly, the articulation of -ed inflection is /t/ after a voiceless sound; /d/ after a voiced sound, and /d/ after /t/ and /d/ sounds occurring word finally in the inflected words. Here are some illustrative examples from the Omani students’ productions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bulbs</td>
<td>/baɪlz/</td>
<td>/baɪlzs/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asked</td>
<td>/ɑːskt/</td>
<td>/ɑːskɪd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arranged</td>
<td>/ərəɪndʒd/</td>
<td>/ərəɪnʤɪd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thanked</td>
<td>/θæŋkt/</td>
<td>/θæŋkɪd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>watched</td>
<td>/wɔtʃt/</td>
<td>/wɔtʃɪd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attached</td>
<td>/ætʃt/</td>
<td>/ætʃɪd/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The frequent occurrence of such words in rapid speech may make English of Omani learners sound un-English.

6. Deletion of /s/ as the final element from consonant clusters

Some Omani EFL learners find it challenging to pronounce consonant clusters in words with multiple consonant sounds, especially with recurrence of /s/ sound as part of such words. This
Phonological Problems of Omani EFL Learners

Phenomenon, at times, results in a faulty subject-verb agreement in a speech, which may lead to confusion and embarrassment. Below are some examples.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Consonant Cluster</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ksθs/</td>
<td>/siksθs/</td>
<td>/siksθ/ or /siksθis/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/mpts/</td>
<td>/temps/</td>
<td>/temp/ or /temps/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/lfθs/</td>
<td>/twelfθs/</td>
<td>/twelfθ/ or /twelfθis/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Lengthening of vowel sounds

Omani EFL learners are generally found to be lengthening vowel sounds, which at times, does result in serious confusion as the length may often bring about a change in meaning or confusion. Consider the following examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pull</td>
<td>/pu:l/</td>
<td>/pu:l/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>full</td>
<td>/fu:l/</td>
<td>/fu:l/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fit</td>
<td>/fi:t/</td>
<td>/fi:t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hit</td>
<td>/hi:t/</td>
<td>/hi:t/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clinic</td>
<td>/klinik/</td>
<td>/kli:nik/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>video</td>
<td>/vidrəu/</td>
<td>/vi:dəu:/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8. Syllabification of initial and final consonant clusters by inserting a vowel sound

It is observed that many Omani EFL learners have difficulty in pronouncing consonant clusters. Perhaps, in the process of simplifying the pronunciation, they insert the vowel sound /ɪ/ and syllabify the consonant clusters. Such a syllabification often creates confusion and makes the rapid speech far more challenging to understand. Here are some examples which may be noticed frequently.

8.1. Initial consonant clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>please</td>
<td>/pliːz/</td>
<td>/pliːz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>drink</td>
<td>/drɪŋk/</td>
<td>/drɪŋk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>splendid</td>
<td>/splɛndɪd/</td>
<td>/splɛndɪd/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>station</td>
<td>/streɪn/</td>
<td>/streɪn/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>smile</td>
<td>/smɑːrəl/</td>
<td>/smɑːrəl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>straight</td>
<td>/streɪt/</td>
<td>/streɪt/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

8.2. Final consonant clusters
Phonological Problems of Omani EFL Learners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>drenched</td>
<td>/drentʃ/</td>
<td>/drentʃid/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>helped</td>
<td>/helpt/</td>
<td>/helptid/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solves</td>
<td>/sɔlvz/</td>
<td>/sɔlviz/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linked</td>
<td>/lɪŋkt/</td>
<td>/lɪŋktid/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clamps</td>
<td>/klæmps/</td>
<td>/klæmpis/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>attempts</td>
<td>/ə'temptɪs/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9. Pronouncing /r/ sound in all positions of words

As per the British convention of pronunciation, the letter ‘r’ is not pronounced in all the positions in words. However, Omani EFL learners retain /r/ sound in all positions. According to the British phonological system, it is not articulated if it is preceded by a vowel sound, and it is not followed by a vowel sound. For example, ‘r’ in the word ‘sir’ will not be articulated as it is preceded by /ɜ:/ vowel sound and it is not followed by a vowel sound. But, it is articulated if it is followed by a vowel sound. For example, ‘r’ in the word ‘central’ will be articulated because it is followed by /æ/ vowel sound. This phenomenon does not cause any serious problem as far as the intelligibility of speech is concerned. However, it is likely to cause a problem for Omani learners if they are subjected to the listening of Standard British English. Moreover, it is a clear case of phonological deviation from the Standard British Pronunciation system.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>war</td>
<td>/wɔːr/</td>
<td>/wɔːr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>center</td>
<td>/senət/</td>
<td>/senter/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>actor</td>
<td>/æktər/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mother</td>
<td>/mʌðər/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alarming</td>
<td>/elərnɪŋ/</td>
<td>/elərniŋ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>artistic</td>
<td>/ærtɪstɪk/</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. Aspiration

Usually, Omani EFL learners are not heard to aspirate /p/, /k/, and /t/ sounds when they occur in stressed syllables of English words, which the native speakers of English always do. Non-aspiration of these three sounds in stressed syllables may not make their speech unintelligible, but the ignorance of it may pose problems for them in comprehending the native speakers’ rapid speech. As per the British model of pronunciation, the aforementioned three sounds should be aspirated when they occur in stressed syllables, as highlighted below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>table</td>
<td>/ˈtɛərbl/</td>
<td>/teːbəl/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appoint</td>
<td>/əˈpɔrnt/</td>
<td>/əpɔrnt/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Here, a few idiosyncratic pronunciations are noticed. For example, the words sixteen, sandwich, and doctor are invariably pronounced by Omani EFL learners as /sɪkstɪ:n/, /sændvɪk/, and /dəˈtɔːr/ respectively. A number of Omani learners are also observed pronouncing the words, depth, ate and letter as /dɹθ/, /eɪt/, and /ˈleːtər/ respectively. It seems that these Omani learners are over-generalizing some patterns learned and practiced elsewhere, which are certainly deviant forms that might cause unintelligibility.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Pronounced in Standard English</th>
<th>Pronounced in Omani Context</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sixteen</td>
<td>/sɪkstɪ:n/</td>
<td>/sɪkstɪ:n/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sandwich</td>
<td>/sændwɪtʃ/</td>
<td>/sændvɪk/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doctor</td>
<td>/dɒktər/</td>
<td>/dəˈtɔːr/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>depth</td>
<td>/dɹθ/</td>
<td>/dɹθ/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ate</td>
<td>/eɪt/</td>
<td>/eɪt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>letter</td>
<td>/ˈleːtər/</td>
<td>/ˈleːtər/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. Accent, rhythm, and intonation

Many deviations are observed when it comes to the accent, rhythm, and intonation in the speech of Omani EFL learners. This may be due to a lack of awareness, mother tongue influence, and carelessness. Often the words are stressed at the wrong syllables. Structure words are seldom used in their weak forms in rapid speech, which disturbs the characteristic sprung rhythm of the English language. Conventionally speaking, the content words are stressed according to the stress rules, and structure or grammatical words are weakened and crowded together so that the stressed syllables maintain their occurrence after a fixed interval of time. Further, Omani learners are observed to be predominantly using a level tone, thereby missing to communicate subtle nuances of meaning which is not communicated through the bare meanings of words and phrases in utterances. Such supra-segmental meanings are exploited through the strategic use of fall, rise, fall-rise and rise-fall intonations in one’s utterances used in different contexts.

Having explored major phonological problems of Omani learners at the middle school level, it is now time to recapitulate the above findings and look into some remedial measures that delivered favorable results and suggest specific pedagogically essential recommendations.

Suggested remedial measures as solutions to EFL learners’ phonological problems

The following remedial measures, implemented with the Omani EFL learners at the middle levels of school education, which helped improve upon the phonological problems of the participants of this study, may be considered for handling the phonological problems in similar EFL phonological contexts of studies.
1. Learners should be motivated to improve upon their pronunciation by participating in learner-friendly activities like collecting and practicing reading news in the classroom every day. This activity can be done on rotation, and 5 minutes could be devoted for it every day either in the beginning or at the end of the class. This can also be done as a part of the morning assembly. Several role-playing games may be organized in regular English classes and in substitution classes to improve upon students’ phonological skills.

2. The problems of faulty articulation of sounds may be taken care of by incidentally doing the required speech therapy exercises and also by drilling the contrastive sounds using minimal pairs. A reasonable degree of awareness and understanding can be inculcated for the correct articulation of speech sounds by way of practicing minimal pairs as they overtly indicate the substitution of one sound for the other in pairs resulting in a total change of meaning or resulting in altogether nonsensical word. Consider for illustration the following minimal pairs for specific sounds.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Contrasting Sounds</th>
<th>Minimal Pairs</th>
<th>Contrasting Sounds</th>
<th>Minimal Pairs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/ &amp; /b/</td>
<td>pay-bay, pin-bin, pray-bray</td>
<td>/r/ &amp; /iː/</td>
<td>hit-heat, bit-beat, knit-neat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/s/ &amp; /ʃ/</td>
<td>ass-ash, sea-she, sin-shin</td>
<td>/iː/ &amp; /ə/</td>
<td>beak-bike, heap-hype, neat-night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/z/ &amp; /ʒ/</td>
<td>place-plays, sue-zoo, seal-zeal</td>
<td>/æ/ &amp; /eə/</td>
<td>cat-coat, bat-boat, flat-flat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ŋ/ &amp; /w/</td>
<td>veal-wheel, vine-wine, veil-wail</td>
<td>/uː/ &amp; /eə/</td>
<td>blue-blow, shoe-show, do-dough</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/p/ &amp; /f/</td>
<td>peel-feel, pale-fail, pool-fool</td>
<td>/eɪ/ &amp; /au/</td>
<td>they-thou, hey-how, bay-bow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. To use Shastri’s (1993) argument, language is essentially taught as a tool of verbal communication, and it is by and large considered as a set of speech patterns and rules of grammar as a description of these patterns. Therefore, training in speech patterns becomes a prerequisite for communicative competence in speaking. Therefore, for improving upon the rhythm in the target learners’ English speech, several structures of routine communicative importance holding various rhythmic patterns may be drilled in rotation and practiced in the class. Care should be given in the use of stressed and weak syllables in utterances. Consider, for example, the use of the two forms, i.e., strong versus weak forms, in the following utterance which consists of the strong syllable followed by weak syllable throughout and represents ti-tum, ti-tum, ti-tum, ti-tum, ti-tum, ti-tum rhythm, where ti represents a weak syllable and tum represents a strong syllable.

I want to take the dog for a walk in the park.

[əɹ 'wɒn te 'terk əɹ 'dɒɡ fəɹ 'wɜk ɪnɹə 'pɑːk]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ti tum</th>
<th>ti tum</th>
<th>ti tum</th>
<th>ti tum</th>
<th>ti tum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(□□)</td>
<td>(□□)</td>
<td>(□□)</td>
<td>(□□)</td>
<td>(□□)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Incidentally, structures holding some basic rhythmic patterns in English, as the following, maybe drilled and practiced.

(i) **Pattern one: ti tum ti tum** (□□□□)
    - He’s 'lost his' book.
    - It’s 'made of 'steel.

(ii) **Pattern two: ti tum ti ti tum** (□□□□)
    - I 'promise to 'come.
    - I’ll 'try to im'prove.

(iii) **Pattern three: ti tum ti ti tum ti** (□□□□□)
    - He 'went to the 'market.
    - I 'saw him on 'Monday.

(iv) **Pattern four: tum ti ti tum** (□□□□)
    - 'Follow the ', crowd.
    - 'What have you 'done?

(v) **Pattern five: ti tum ti tum ti tum** (□□□□□)
    - I 'want to 'buy a 'pen.
    - It 'happens 'all the 'time.

(vi) **Pattern six: tum ti ti tum ti** (□□□□□)
    - 'When are you re 'turning?
    - 'Thank you for the 'money.

(vii) **Pattern seven: ti tum ti ti ti tum** (□□□□□)
    - He was 'sitting in the 'front.
    - She ad 'mitted he was 'wrong.

(viii) **Pattern eight: ti tum ti ti ti tum** (□□□□□)
    - He’s 'taking another call.
    - She’s 'probably in the class.

(ix) **Pattern nine: ti tum ti ti ti** (□□□□)
    - I’ve 'eaten them all.
    - I 'thought it had been.

(x) **Pattern ten: tum ti ti ti tum** (□□□□□)
    - 'Throw it into the 'fire.
    - 'Why did you run a 'way.

**Conclusion**

This paper has traced various uses of English in the present-day contexts and underlined the importance of Spoken English in the field of higher studies, academic circles, and the global job market. It is in this context that several common phonological problems of Omani middle school EFL learners have been explored and investigated, keeping in mind the fact that they are non-native learners and users of English. The recurrent problems in the Spoken English of Omani EFL
learners involved in this study were pure vowel substitution for diphthongs /əu/ and /əɪ/, replacement of /p/ by /b/ sound, insertion of the vowel sound /ɜ/ while pluralizing the words, syllabification of initial and final consonant clusters, deletion of /s/ sound occurring as the final element from consonant clusters, alternation between /dʒ/ and /g, /ʃ/ and /dʒ/, and /tʃ/ and /ʃ/ sounds, replacement of /t/ by /tʃ/ sound, lengthening of certain vowel sounds, pronouncing ‘r’ in all phonetic environments, not following the rules of aspiration, and irregularities in the use of weak forms. These problems have been illustrated with several examples collected through classroom action research and personal interaction with the students outside the classrooms. Subsequently, some remedial measures and pedagogically essential recommendations have been suggested in order to handle and improve upon the pronunciation differences, deviations, and deficiencies of Omani school learners. The main points which emerge as solutions, remedies, and implications in this context are to ensure the involvement and participation of Omani learners in learner-friendly ear training and speech production training and integration of formal testing and evaluation of learners’ verbal abilities. It has been argued here that this will bring about positive change in the attitude of the learners towards the phonological aspects of the English language. And finally, the training of non-native teaching force through an intensive training course in Phonetics and Spoken English is strongly recommended with a view to facilitating a conducive environment of competent Spoken English in Omani EFL classrooms.

**Pedagogical implications and recommendations**

As Bansal (1993) has rightly argued, “An educational program has to be based on the needs of the community for which it is planned” (p. 1), and “A course in Spoken English has to include specific training in pronunciation” (p 3). In view of lack of emphasis on Spoken English in curriculum, Howatt (cited in Saraswati, 1993, p. 109) has rightly argued that “If our system of modern languages, in the present case of English language, is ever to be reformed, it must be on the basis of preliminary training in General Phonetics.” In view of such pedagogical routes and the findings of this study, the following recommendations should be a part of proficiency courses and training programs in Spoken English for Omani EFL school learners.

1. Various simple structures catering to most of the day-to-day communicative needs may be drilled with varying intonation patterns (i.e., fall, rise, fall-rise, and rise-fall tones), indicating various meanings in different contexts. The most frequently used communicative functions in day-to-day speech situations are related to conversational skills for introduction; greetings and responses to greetings; introducing others; joining a conversation; leaving a conversation; taking leave; requesting; extending, accepting, and declining invitations; asking, refusing for and giving information; asking for information; suggesting; agreeing; agreeing partly; disagreeing; complementing; responding to compliments; complaining; apologizing; etc.

2. The spoken form of English is seldom evaluated sufficiently in most of the school education systems. Our examination-oriented students may not take it seriously what is not going to be tested. Hence, it is recommended that spoken ability must be tested in an oral test, which can be clubbed with every written examination.

3. The choice of a pronunciation model is advantageous as it sets a target of achievement for learners. The choice of model should be based on practical and realistic considerations keeping in mind the factors such as intelligibility, acceptability, and availability of teaching materials based
on the model under consideration. If these factors are taken care of, it will not matter then whether the model is native or foreign. For historical reasons and for practical convenience of the availability of books, Received Pronunciation (RP) may be recommended. RP is widely accepted all over the world, so the students have an advantage in following this model. However, at the time of evaluation, the teacher may slightly relax the standard expected of a student since we know that strict adherence to RP is nearly impossible in a foreign setting of teaching and learning. For example, replacing the sounds /ei/ and /eu/ by /e:/ and /o:/; using /r/ sound whenever it is indicated in spelling; unaspirated /p/, /b/, and /t/ sounds when they occur in stressed syllables; and, a few Omani intonation patterns with minor deviations may be acceptable.

4. The complexity of the situation arises when speakers of other languages who are non-native speakers of English and also who are not the speakers of the learners’ L1 teach English to the L1 dominated learners (in the present case Arabic). Obviously, these teachers are likely to influence the pronunciation patterns and habits of the learners differently. Hence, it is recommended that an intensive training course in Phonetics and Phonology of English be given to these teachers of English so that they are better equipped to achieve a kind of uniformity of pronunciation throughout the country.

5. And lastly, as an implication of this study on further research, it is recommended to conduct a national level phonological study to investigate Omani learners’ pronunciation problems using a more significant data involving from all the regions of Oman in order to arrive at more generalized results based on multiple data collection instruments and triangulation of results as this action research is strictly limited to the data collected only from two classes in two schools from two regions using a singular data collection tool of diary through focused observation.

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References


Cognitive Presence in a Blended Learning Environment at Jordanian Universities

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Abstract
Cognitive presence is the ability of the learners to project their mental and perceptual presence. This paper aims to investigate cognitive presence when using a Blended Learning environment. The article also aims at exploring university students' attitudes towards using a BL environment in language learning, since BL perception, as a computer learning environment, has become a requirement to enhance language learning. The sample for the study consists of 100 students studying the English Language Skills course at Al-Balqa Applied University (BAU) in Jordan, who responded to a questionnaire on cognitive presence issues. The findings of the study reveal that Blended Learning (BL) can create a vibrant cognitive presence, which enables to support active language learning. The results share some positive attitudes towards a cognitive presence in a BL environment. The study recommends that more research on the part of the online instructors to create and enhance cognitive presence is necessary to benefit learning English language skills.

Keywords: Blended learning, cognitive presence, Jordanian universities, negative attitudes, positive attitudes

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Introduction
Technology has revolutionized the processes of teaching and learning at universities. Technology has paved the path to expand knowledge and create a sense of 'being there'; it has created a different way of thinking, feeling, and behaving from an instructional perspective. Instructors need to ensure planning and designing a course to make sure of the effective learning outcomes. Technology cannot replace instructors; it can only enhance the quality of teaching and learning. Although some may say it is a lonely journey feeling isolated and anxious in the online world, it is not valid if the courses are structured to create discussion, to work collaboratively, and to receive and give feedback to make the learning enjoyable.

Most universities nowadays are using blended learning courses to benefit from both modes, Face-to-Face and online learning environments. Pramela et al. (2012) explain that interaction is so essential in a virtual learning environment, and it calls for a more in-depth inquiry that would contribute to online learning. Akyol et al. (2011) and Redmond (2011) state that there is a need for more research on the effectiveness of cognitive presence on blending learning to improve critical thinking and depth of knowledge. Initial study comparing the effectiveness of online learning and face-to-face education indicated that there is no significant difference in the learning outcomes of students (Twigg, 2001). All learners, irrespective of the learning environment - face-to-face, online, or blended - have the opportunity to achieve the same cognitive outcomes.

Blended learning enables educators to create learning opportunities where both face-to-face and online paradigms are part of the learning process. This research aims to investigate the impact of cognitive presence in blended learning experiences, to achieve quality learning outcomes that promote critical thinking; while students are connecting, constructing, and applying knowledge.

The ultimate goal of learning via both modes of blended learning, whether face-to-face or online, is that students must be encouraged to become self-directed, manage and monitor their knowledge appropriate to the task and ability (Garrison & Anderson, 2003). Harasim et al. (1995) explain that participation in an online environment is based on making input, responding to peers, and sharing ideas. This can be seen by the number of contributions made by students in their weblog or learner management systems (LMS), which tracks all contributions in the learning forum. Students need to participate without hesitation, and this allows for successful learning and teaching to be witnessed. To add to that, it is essential to know what Lehman and Conceicao (2010) say. According to them, the instructors' presence is vital as his voice serves as a model for the critical discourse, constructive critique, and formative feedback.

Cognitive Presence
The concept of presence is complex and not easy to understand. Presence is a result of the dynamic interplay of thought, emotion, and behavior in the online world (Garrison & Arbaugh, 2007). Therefore, Lehman (2010) believes that presence has to be viewed from a different perspective, social, psychological, and emotional. These components are necessary for the cognitive presence to maintain constant.

Cognitive presence was defined by Garrison et al. (2000, 2001) as constructing meaning...
through sustained and permanent communication. Based on this definition, Matheson, Wilkinson, and Gilhooly, (2012) argue that this could be achieved through "greater use of group work that values the personal contribution and promotes secure learning environments to foster exchange."(p.259) Two critical issues must be taken into consideration concerning active learning. These are internal cognitive processes and the external contextual elements that precipitate and shape thinking. According to Garrison (2003), cognitive presence is concerned with "the process of both reflection and discourse in the initiation, construction, and confirmation of meaningful learning outcomes" (p. 4). If there is no reflection, students will not be able to "fully appreciate what they have learned and how far they have come in learning, and how to apply and use new knowledge they gained" (Akyol, et al., 2012. p. 159).

According to Gutiérrez-Santiuste et al., (2015), cognitive processes aim at promoting the "analysis, construction, and confirmation of meaning and understanding within a community of students through reflection and discourse" (p.350). Understanding cognitive presence is a priority provided that a deep and meaningful learning outcome aspires to an educational experience resulted from integrating the public and private worlds of students. Meaning and understanding are both basic concepts in the creation of cognitive presence for learning outcomes.

Cognitive presence indicates the extent to which students are capable of constructing meaning through a continuous reflection in a critical research community (Garrison & Anderson, 2003; Garrison, Anderson, & Archer, 2001) through sustained communication (Gunawardena, Lowe, & Anderson, 1997). Cognitive presence thus indicates the extent to which the learning objectives are achieved. The cognitive abilities involved in high–level instruction—making inferences, observing connections, verifying, and organizing—generate better results when they are integrated cooperatively (Resnick, 1987), and promoted and maintained by social presence (Fabro & Garrison, 1998; Gunawardena, 1995).

Researchers are intent on determining if higher-order learning can be achieved in an online or blended learning environment. Most of the research on cognitive presence has been collected using the perceptions of participants, such as student satisfaction and perceived learning in higher education students (Richardson & Swan, 2003; Shea et al., 2006). Akyol and Garrison (2011) call for an emphasis on measuring actual learning outcomes to connect collaborative and engaging approaches of blended and online learning to a depth of learning. They state that linking processes and outcomes is critical in order to understand how to support cognitive presence in blended and online learning environments (Akyol & Garrison, 2011).

Garrison et al. (2001) introduced cognitive presence as the extent to which meaning can be constructed and validated by online learners through the process of reflection, discourse, analysis, and synthesis. According to Garrison et al. (2001), cognitive presence is based on the literature of critical thinking, which is a necessary condition of learning, and therefore is a process and outcome frequently presented in higher education (Garrison et al. 2000). When learners possess critical thinking and inquiry, they can understand and confirm meaning and their knowledge construction (Akyol & Garrison, 2011; Shea & Bidjerano, 2009). Because cognitive presence is a vital element in critical thinking (Garrison et al., 2000), it is considered an essential element to success in higher education (Garrison et al., 2000). Besides, critical thinking is also the

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desired outcome of the educational pursuit of high school students (Jeremiah, 2012).

**Methodology**
The study utilized the quantitative method of data collection using a self-report questionnaire. Data were collected from students studying the university requirement English language skills 101 online at BAU in Jordan. Those 100 students came from different disciplines of study; most of them were students specializing in Medicine, who enrolled in one section, and the other section comprising 50 students who were from different majors: Management, Engineering, and Information Technology (IT). The questionnaire was distributed to the students after their Face-to-Face meetings in the laboratories of the Information Technology College at the end of the semester of the academic year 2016-2017. The completed questionnaire was analyzed by using SPSS version 16.0.

**Data Analysis**
Table (1) presents the items responded by the students using a Likert scale of 1-4, scale, being: 1-Strongly disagree, 2- Disagree, 3- Agree, and 4- Strongly agree. The number of items in the questionnaire was 10. The responses received on scales (1) and (2) were categorized as negative responses. However, the answers received on scales (3) and (4) were classified as positive responses.

**Discussion of Findings**
The collected data on cognitive presence towards the use of the BL environment in language learning is shown in Table 1. The critical constructs in the ten items, namely *problem solver, think critically, easily understand, different viewpoints, participate in discussions, self-reliant, construct explanations, express opinions, to study using BL*, represent cognitive elements; hence it qualifies to be used to measure cognitive presence in the BL environment. The findings indicate that (40.8 %) of the participating student positively agree and (7.5 %) of the students strongly agree that they "became a better problem solver." This result indicates that students were able to solve problems when using BL environment, which allowed most of them (52.8 %) to think critically, and which helped more students, (61.4 %) of the participants, understand conversation using this approach, BL, that made them better problem solvers. This finding is associated with what Gutiérrez-Santiuste et al. (2015) suggested that meaning and understanding are both basic concepts in the creation of cognitive presence for learning outcomes.

**Table 1. Student responses to cognitive presence questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Negatively Responded (%)</th>
<th>Positively Responded (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 I became a better problem solver.</td>
<td>16.5</td>
<td>40.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 This approach allowed me to think critically.</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>52.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 I could easily understand conversation using BL environment.</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>61.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
To the item on, *I felt motivated to explore content-related questions*, the majority of the students responded positively (61.4 %) agree and (17.3 %) strongly agree. This result indicates that students were able to explore content-related questions as most of (60.8 %) *could easily participate in discussions* motivated by using the BL environment. The table also showed that (60.4 %) of the students agree that *BL helped them see different viewpoints and broadened their minds*, which indicates that the students were able to work on varying perspectives. They were (82.4 %) who were *able to participate in discussions easily and express their opinions clearly* when the BL environment was applied. This result is also supported by Resnick, (1987), who indicated that cognitive presence includes making inferences, observing connections, and verifying better results, which help learners to explore better (Lehman & Conceicao, 2010).

Further, the Table shows that (70.7 %) of the students positively agree that learning activities employed by the BL approach helped them *construct explanations and solutions* to the problems they encountered through the learning process (Lehman, 2010). And finally, the statement *I prefer to study using BL environment* received highly positive responses, a total of 90.5 % of the students, which indicates that the majority of the participating students would rather use the BL environment than *use* the traditional approach in learning the oral skills of the language. The findings showed high responses, which might be attributed to that fact that most students were from Faculty of Medicine, Faculty of Engineering, and IT College. Those students obtained high scores in their school exams and public exams, which may have been a prerequisite for admission in these faculties that require very high scores, as is known. This result also suggests that if the students were from other different majors, the results of the study might have been changed.

The findings of the present study have shown that cognitive presence is significant in applying the BL environment, which can improve not only the students' competence, but also their performance in language learning. Students were able to acknowledge the benefits of the BL environment in respect to the oral skills. The majority of the students responded positively to employing the BL approach into language learning, the oral skills in particular. They appreciated

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>1.5</th>
<th>20.5</th>
<th>59.6</th>
<th>18.4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>I felt motivated to explore content-related questions</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>60.4</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>BL helped me see different viewpoints and broaden mine.</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>61.8</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I could easily participate in discussions using BL environment.</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>58.5</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I felt more self-reliant as a result of the content learned in the course</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>70.7</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Learning activities helped me construct explanations/solutions.</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>72.7</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>I felt that BL helped me express my opinions clearly</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>75.3</td>
<td>15.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>I prefer to study using BL environment.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
particularly authentic features of the use of BL activities, and the opportunities for interaction and collaboration with other students in the class. They perceived facilitating learning environment and experienced an innovation to the traditional face-to-face classroom teaching. Therefore, more emphasis should be given to cognitive presence for the success of online contributions. This study is also prepared with the foresight that students would provide positive responses to the cognitive presence in a BL environment, which has undoubtedly become significant in the learning process. Further, such a learning environment has positively brought about new challenges when being utilized effectively.

**Conclusion**

This study is limited by the sample size used, which is two sections of English 101 at BAU in Jordan. Hence the generalization of the results may not apply to other institutions or faculties. It is hoped that future research will be using random sampling, so that the predictive value of cognitive presence can be generalized. Besides, more studies on the effectiveness of BL are needed on students from other faculties and colleges like Faculty of Education, Faculty of Arts, Faculty of Law, and others. The study also recommends that further studies be in need focusing on the instructors' attitudes towards using BL environment in language learning at universities. However, we should not lose sight that the instructors' role in the BL would play an important role they would need to initiate the discussion.

To continually support the cognitive presence, psychology and social presence are equally important. Besides, the learning resources must be professionally designed to offer the kind of cognitive constructs to lead to healthy online learning. All these can be a reality to enhance the English language when there is a real communication supported by meaning feedback to build a sense of community in the online presence.

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**References**


Impact of Watching Cartoons on Pronunciation of a Child in an EFL Setting: A Comparative Study with Problematic Sounds of EFL Learners

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Abstract
The purpose of this study is to describe a longitudinal case study of pronunciation acquisition for an Arabic child who watched English TV cartoons in an English as a foreign language (EFL) setting, basically in Buraidah, Saudi Arabia. The child, whose name is Anmar, was raised in a typical Arabic environment where Arabic was the only means of communication he experienced. He watched selected English TV cartoons since he was three years old and until he was ten years old. This research study focused on Anmar's acquisition of pronunciation, although the chances to use the language were very limited due to his EFL environment. Additionally, the study aims at comparing Anmar's pronunciation of problematic sounds to Arab learners of English as stated in previous studies. The research adopted a longitudinal research methodology aiming to find if watching English TV cartoons without even minimum use of language could impact the child's pronunciation compared to his counterparts of Arab learners of English. Therefore, this research utilized some methods, including rating some audio and video recordings of conversations with his father and storytelling. Two native speakers of English rated his performance. A mispronunciation recognition test was carried out to evaluate Anmar's recognition of mispronunciation. The study found out that Anmar's pronunciation was native-like. He far outperformed the Arab learners of English concerning the problematic sounds to Arab learners. He easily differentiates between, for instance, minimal pairs, diphthongs, consonant clusters, vowels, and intonation. The study concluded that children might acquire English pronunciation by watching TV cartoons to be able to overcome the pronunciation problems that many Arab speakers experience. Additionally, English learners in elementary schools may watch such programs to train them to listen to authentic language in media.

Keywords: Acquisition, Arab, EFL learner, English cartoons, phonetics, phonology, pronunciation

Introduction
The systematic study of how people acquire a second language is still subject to further studies, although it began many years ago. Second Language Acquisition (SLA) refers to the study of how students learn a second language (L2) in addition to their first language (L1). The existence of the first language implies the challenges and parameters of the field of SLA. Here L2 refers to the process of learning any word after the first language or as the learners are still acquiring the first language inside or outside the classroom where learners communicate with the use of L2 outside their homeland (Ellis, 2000). There are different ways to acquire or learn second or foreign languages. It can be in a formal way as in a classroom environment or informal means, such as when the learners pick up the words by being culturally active participants of the society of L2. Usually children living in a foreign country have a chance attend public. Likewise, ESL adults may engage in activities that require routine immersion in the community. It is extremely important in second language acquisition to study if some local cultural tools and media of L2 available to foreign language learners may enhance the acquisition of L2. What other factors can these tools and media provide to EFL learners and children may also add to second language acquisition? Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Early Language Learning (ELL) received considerable attention from linguists over the years. There is a widespread belief that second language acquisition among children is achieved relatively fast and without effort (Nikolov & Djigunovic, 2009). What may SLA research yield if children in EFL settings face this effortless second language acquisition via English TV programs? How much do they learn? Do they resist to watch different programs? What language aspects do benefit the most from watching English TV programs? This research study represents only one aspect related to pronunciation.

Definition of Pronunciation:
Cook (1996, as cited in Gilakjan, 2016) introduces pronunciation as the articulation of English sounds. Paulston and Burder (1976, as cited in Abbas, 2016) propose a definition for the pronunciation that ensures the use of a sound system, which facilitates communication between the two parties, the speaker and the listener. Kristina, Diah, Rarasteja, and Zita (2006) emphasize this concept between the speaker and listener. They perceive that pronunciation requires the production and reception of sounds to achieve interaction. To facilitate communication, Otlowski (1998) states that speakers should avoid pronunciation mistakes by producing certain sounds in an acceptable manner (Richard & Schmidt, 2002).

Pronunciation is an essential skill that learners should acquire because it is the "bridge" for oral communication. In fact, mispronunciation hinders communication and discussion. In English classrooms, according to mispronunciation creates significant difficulties, whereas proper pronunciation positively impacts language learning.

Acquisition of L2 Pronunciation
Language acquisition entails language exposure and language communication (Celce-Murcia et al., 1996), which is absent in EFL environments. Therefore, the acquisition of pronunciation falls into the same challenge for EFL language learners. Most language input for EFL learners is limited to classroom instruction, which, according to Larson-Hall (2008), comprises minimal information through a few hours per week. Therefore, EFL learners meet some difficulties with the sound system second or foreign language.
A study conducted by Binturki (2008) found that ESL learners in college had significant problems with minimal pairs. In the study, the participants were Saudi nationals who had started learning English from the age of twelve years and later went through an ESL program in the US. Even after the ESL program, these college students were unable to correctly differentiate between /f/ and /v/ as well as /b/ and /p/ (Binturki, 2008). Similarly, Hago and Khan (2015) researched pronunciation problems among Saudi secondary school students. They found that they had a problem with the sound /v/ since it does not exist in the Arabic language. The participants mispronounced the phoneme /v/ with /f/, which is the closest sound.

Therefore, and in order to deal with the dilemma of L2 pronunciation problems, many researchers introduce several instructional techniques to teach pronunciation (Elliott, 1997; Lord, 2008; Hahn, 2004). These techniques include phonetic training, minimal pair drills, contextualized minimal pairs, twisting of tongue, reading aloud, and recordings of learners' sounds (Morales, 2017). Altamimi (2015), for example, introduced a technique to train students to differentiate between minimal pairs after he noticed that students have a significant problem with relative sounds, such as /b/ and /p/ and between /f/ and /v/. Additionally, Hamada (2017) used an instructional technique called "shadowing," where students hear sounds and repeat them as accurately as possible.

However, previous studies on L2 pronunciation instructions in EFL contexts have been unsuccessful (Fullana & Mora, 2009; Garcia, Gallardo, 2003; Monje-Sanguesa, 2016). Calvo, Benzies, (2014) and Moyer (1999) showed that failure of these explicit instructions refers to the nature of pronunciation acquisition, which requires a long time and a large amount of language exposure and not only applying some techniques for a few weeks. With these issues concerning the dilemma of L2 pronunciation, one might think of the significant source of the problem that is related to the age of L2 learners who had minimal exposure to L2 in their childhood.

**Critical Period and Pronunciation Acquisition**

It has become widespread that second language learners learn better and faster than adult learners. It is Lenneberg (1967) who coined this idea of "critical period hypothesis" (CPH). Critical period suggests that due to biological and neurological reasons, language learners lose some flexibility that prevents successful language acquisition after the age of puberty. At that time of the critical period, language learning tends to be slow and inaccurate.

The critical period hypothesis is related to the age of the language learner. However, it affects some domains of language acquisition. Pronunciation is said to be the most sensitive domain that is associated with the age of the learner (Scovel, 1969). The acquisition of pronunciation, after the age of 14, is supposed to be invariably identified as non-native or non-nativelike performance (Long, 1990). De Guerrero (2004) asserts that at a young age, a child uses inner speech in L2 and internalization to develop fundamentals in L2 acquisition. Evidence in support for the CPH is well-established in the literature. Many studies have attempted to test the CPH (Asher & Price, 1967; Snow & Hoefnagel-Hohle, 1977; Thompson, 1991).
Language Input and Language Interaction
Although interaction and input have been controversial issues in language acquisition, this research doesn't favor one to the other. It views the status of cartoon watching regarding to the two theories. Both theories have significant roles in second language acquisition. Long (1996) claims that interaction "facilitates language acquisition because it connects input (what learners hear and read); internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention; and output (what learners produce) in productive ways" (pp.451-452). By this, he assumes that interaction and meaning negotiation enhances language acquisition and language learning. Although interaction theory is not geared directly to pronunciation, according to Long (1996), it allows language learners to receive feedback, which eventually involves linguistic input (morphemes, words, utterances). However, interaction in EFL environments, though indispensable, rarely exists.

On the other hand, comprehensible input, which first proposed by Krashen (1985), emphasizes the role of the linguistic data that language learners receive in the target language. Krashen views interaction as a source of contribution to the learner, which later is governed by the affective filter that decides language manipulation.

Both two theories, interaction and comprehensible input, highlight one another. Krashen, for example, emphasizes the role of communication. Long, on the other hand, puts great emphasis on the importance of comprehensible input (Muho & Kurani, 2011). The existence of both theories creates an ideal environment for language acquisition and language learning. The absence of either one calls language learners and language teachers to work on alternative techniques or ideas to compensate for the lack of language exposure in EFL settings. The current research focuses on the impact, if there is, of input received from TV programs on the acquisition of pronunciation by a child in a non-native speaking country (EFL), Saudi Arabia, in the absence of minimal interaction.

Language Acquisition via TV Programs
TV programs for children provide great amount and high level of language. Yet language exposure in natural settings without any systematic intervention represents the ideal source of language acquisition where language receivers experience language characteristics in a substantial manner. According to Koolstra and Beentjes (1999), the full meaning of the word becomes comprehensive when language learners receive the words in various semantic contexts. Incidental language acquisition is what signifies natural language acquisition. Similarly, research has shown that watching TV programs in a foreign language allows learners to acquire language incidentally (Lekkai, 2014). A study by Poštič (2015) found that students born in a non-English country who had watched American cartoons in their childhood developed American accent over time. This vital development occurs with little effort and almost without their realization. Therefore, watching cartoons allows a young learner to immerse himself in a foreign culture, which creates an environment for learning and acquiring the English language. Several researchers (San Jose & Vicencio, 2018; Sipra, Alsolami, & Farooq, 2016; Nurhayati, 2015) have emphasized that watching TV cartoons is interested and enjoyable to children and creates instinct motivation to view and continue watching (Prosic-Santovac, 2017).

Previous studies on the effect of watching TV programs (Lekkai, 2014; Rapaport, 2000; Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999) were either conducted on the impact of watching subtitle programs or...
with some writing activities during watching, which means that watchers already have a minimum amount of language. Many studies have investigated the influence of watching subtitled or captioned TV programs for a short time in experimental settings, academic settings (Koolstra & Beentjes, 1999; Rapaport, 2000; Webb & Rodgers, 2009; Brown et. al., 2008; Vidal, 2003). Other studies have researched the influence of watching subtitled TV programs in non-academic experiments (d’Ydewalle et. al.,1989; 1995, 1997; Pavakanun et. al., 1992).

However, the present study is different since it focuses on a child raised in a typical EFL country and who started to watch English TV cartoons with zero knowledge about the English language and without any intention to acquire or develop pronunciation. Furthermore, this study does not track child pronunciation stages. It, instead, compares the performance of the child and Arab speakers of English regarding the problematic sounds they have, as shown in literature studies.

Problems of Pronunciation of ESL and EFL speakers
This part serves as referential data of erroneous pronunciation to compare the child's pronunciation with ESL /EFL Arab and Saudi speakers. The errors of pronunciation experienced by Arab and Saudi learners of English as a second or foreign language have received much attention by researchers (Al-Saidat, 2010; Kharma & Hajjaj, 1989; Al-Shuaibi, 2009; Binturki, 2008; Altaha, 1995; Tushyeh, 1996; Wahba, 1998, Barros; 2003, Hago & Khan, 2015; Watson, 2002; Val Barros, 2003; Avery & Ehrlich, 1992). Although these studies may give different labels and different reasons for pronunciation errors, they provide almost similar examples.

This research doesn't review these studies but refers to them to cite the familiar erroneous sounds that Arab, and in particular, Saudi Arabian, speakers of English commit. They focus on different problematic sounds. The following table shows the common sound problems investigated in the studies mentioned above. This current study will investigate the subject's performance with regard to these doubtful sounds. Also, the study will describe the impact of watching cartoon programs on the subject's performance.

| Table 1. problematic sounds produced by Arab speakers of English |
|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|
| **Sound Label** | **Type of Error** | **Examples of Errors** |
| consonant cluster | Breaking cluster by inserting vowel | Spring /sɪpring/ wished /wɪshid/ Asked /ɑskɪd/ |
| Consonant doubling | Separating two consonants | Allow /al-low/ |
| Distinct phonemes | Loosing phonetic features | Light /l/ |
| Sound replacement | Sounds are replaced with other sounds | /t/ in /bat instead of /d/ in /bad/, /t/ in /mat/ instead of /d/ in /mad/ |
| Minimal pairs | Confusion between certain pairs of sounds | /p and /b/ in /beoble/ for "people" /v/ and /f/ in /faforite/ for "favorite“ |
| Diphthongs | Replacement of diphthongs by other sounds | We need to use phonetic symbols |
| Vowel distinction | Replacement of a vowel by another vowel | /ɪ/ and /ɛ/ in /sit/ and /set/ /ɒ/ and /ʌ/ in /lock/ and /luck/ |
**Significance of the Study**
This longitudinal study will provide the field with an optimal way to quickly master a persistent language problem, basically pronunciation problems that those Arab speakers of English face. Data gathered will help English teachers in elementary grades to make pupils imitate the same way Anmar did. It is also significant because it guides parents to help their children with instruments and tools that are available for free and have an impact on them and their attitudes towards English. The study will inform parents how the case of Anmar is applicable and useful to their children. This study is significant in whole as watching cartoon is the main source of the acquisition of pronunciation. The subject preview of language pronunciation acquisition has not resulted from other effects of subtitles or captions shown on the screen. The child started watching TV cartoons with absolutely zero English and was not exposed to any other sources later.

**Study Problem**
Students may acquire language through socialization and the media. Therefore, the language development of students should end in their classrooms. Since English is not the native language, pupils often find difficulties in learning it quickly. Nowadays, children can easily acquire knowledge and ideas on what they see on screens. Children under the pre-elementary stage usually need more considerable attention in catching their interest in learning to develop their listening and speaking skills. During this time, they formally or informally associate words with actions and actions with signals and symbols that they see at home. Children, at this level, acquire knowledge based on what they hear and see. Though there are a lot of motivational devices used by parents at home and teachers in schools, those are not enough for students who just began learning and attending schools. Pre-elementary students do not stay in school longer than 5 hours, so, most of the time, they are at home resting, playing, and watching the television, specifically English cartoons. From there, children’s learning progress also grows. They are fond of watching cartoons, and besides being entertained, they learn something from it and most probably live with the language used by those cartoon characters and by their parents and siblings through imitation.

**Study Setting**
The study took place in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia, where Arabic is the mother tongue of Saudi people and English is a foreign language. Saudi students start learning English at the fourth Primary Grade. The subject of the study was three years old when he started watching cartoons in English. Arabic was the only means of communication at home and in school.

**Television Cartoons**
Anmar started watching just "Dora the Explorer" as his English was zero. After he had gained some language and confidence, he started watching other cartoons such as "Lazy Town" and "SpongeBob." Then he began watching episodes of real characters of children.

- **Dora the Explorer**
  *Dora the Explorer* is a program for children. This cartoon teaches many things by interacting with young viewers. The program is based on a problem-solving task through the use of a map. Some episodes are particularly geographic (Carter, 2008). The English language used is simplified, in which the characters continuously repeat words. The creators of the program claim that the show was created based on Gardner's Multiple Intelligence Theory that encourages children to use all
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Music and comedy, which has an exact story with a dynamic colorful world, turned upside-down (Barth & Ciobanu, 2017).

- **Lazy Town**

  *Lazy Town*, in a town full of lazy people, one hero, Spartacus, tries to make a difference by teaching people how to live healthy lives. It is about promoting a healthy lifestyle for children, in a positive, entertaining, and catchy way. It is a cartoon from Iceland. Its central characters are Stephanie, Spartacus, and Rotten Robbie. It is a combination of live-action, puppetry, and computer-generated animation with a tale full of energy. The series promote a healthy lifestyle through a fun mix of music and comedy, which has an exact story with a dynamic colorful world, turned upside-down (Barth & Ciobanu, 2017).

- **Sponge Bob**

  *Sponge Bob* is an entertaining cartoon. It is about Sponge, who lives in the ocean. It presents everyday language. The program is suitable for children of six- to 11-year-olds.

**Methodology**

This study is a longitudinal investigation of a child's pronunciation through viewing cartoons in English. It shows the child's acquisition of pronunciation of some problematic sounds compared to other English learners from the same country, Saudi Arabia, and EFL speakers of English from other Arab countries. It adopts the case study method. A child born in Saudi Arabia, a non-English speaking nation, started watching strictly specific TV cartoon channels at the age of two. Arabic was present in everyday dialogue with his parents, his two brothers, his relatives, and his friends. He kept watching English cartoons until he was eleven. So, the primary quantitative part of the research is connected to the actual time spent in front of the TV and, more specifically, cartoon channels, and the qualitative part represents the influence cartoon-watching had on the English-language acquisition of pronunciation of the child.

Thus, this research used a longitudinal case study approach since it offers the necessary features for this study. As noted by Duff (2008), case studies are common in education and linguistic research. Additionally, the qualitative aspect of the research is deductive, as it entails the description of a linguistic phenomenon. In particular, the study is attempting to explore the correlation between watching cartoons and English pronunciation acquisition and describe the observed impacts. One of the advantages of case studies is that it is exploratory and allows for theory building, and it is critical in longitudinal studies due to in-depth features (Duff, 2008). The collected data was analyzed where distinct themes such as consonant clusters, minimal pairs, and others, which represent common pronunciation challenges faced by Arab learners of English, were evaluated.

Exclusive audio and video recordings were collected during the child's conversations with his father or from the child's monolingual speech, such as when he plays with his toys or the songs he memorized. The communication between the child and his father served the research. Two native speakers of English listened to these conversations, analyzed, and compared the child's pronunciation performance to the pronunciation problems of Saudi learners in particular and Arabs.
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in general. These problems, regardless of their sources, are well stated by previous studies, as mentioned earlier.

The native speaker raters paid particular attention to the familiar sounds that Saudi and other Arab speakers of English face. For more and through data, the child was recorded reading several passages to better rate his pronunciation competence for both segmental and suprasegmental sounds.

The study does not focus on the child's pronunciation development or his problems. It investigates his pronunciation performance compared to the pronunciation problems experienced by English as a second language (ESL)/EFL Saudi speakers and Arab speakers, as well. Additionally, the study tries to examine the child's recognition ability to distinguish the problematic sounds through mispronouncing these sounds and giving him a chance to decide whether it is correct or not.

The reason behind choosing Saudi and Arab EFL and ESL speakers serves the purpose of the study. From one aspect, the case study relates to Saudi children who face persistent difficulties in learning English. Including the Arab learners of English is because Anmar speaks the same mother tongue of Arabs, although they talk about variant accents of Arabic. Therefore, the researcher assumes that this study, within its limitation, might add to the related literature of SL and FL acquisition in general and pronunciation acquisition in particular.

Rating the Child's Speech
Two English native speakers volunteered as raters (Baker and Smith). One of the evaluators is a Ph.D. student at Indiana University of Pennsylvania (IUP). The other evaluator is a master student at the same university. Both assessors were enrolled in the English Department at IUP and were provided with a list of the problematic sounds of Saudi and Arab EFL and ESL speakers to judge if the child produces similar doubtful sounds or outperforms them. The raters used a scale of 10 points to judge the accuracy of the pronunciation of the target sound problems. Appendix A presents a description of this scale. The raters did not know the source of language acquisition of the child or his case, so they do not show any tolerance, mercy, or sympathy with the child's pronunciation.

Findings
Acquisition of pronunciation

Imitation

The purpose of the paper was to describe the impact of watching TV cartoons on pronunciation acquisition in an EFL setting and investigate the performance of the subject in terms of English pronunciation against Arab speakers of English, as shown in previous studies. Although the subject of the study was initially reluctant to engage in the first stages of the research, he soon became enthusiastic about watching cartoons in English. Anmar was able to acquire various phonetic features by listening and reproducing them. The child had started by attempting to mimic English sounds as spoken by the characters and soon progressed to pronounce English words, phrases, and sentences almost similar to how the characters spoke. The subject started viewing
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cartoons from the age of three years and continued to watch animated characters as he grew up. This duration was critical in acquiring proficiency in pronunciation.

Child's Performance
The study found that the child’s pronunciation rating was native-like, which implied that he had an incredible English pronunciation given that he lived in a non-English environment. Previous studies have evaluated the pronunciation performance of EFL Arabs and found that they experience significant challenges when speaking the English language. Various phonetic elements prove challenging to most Arab learners of English. However, this study reveals that the subject outperformed participants in the previous studies since he performed well in most themes, and developed a native-like accent of English.

It is impressive how watching cartoons during the early stages of a child’s language development can aid in achieving proper pronunciation for EFL. The initial phases of the learning process demonstrate that the child had difficulties in spelling some of the English words, but still he progresses to become proficient in the English sound system. For instance, Anmar pronounced the words better, bottle, and little with a noticeable /d/ sound, which is similar to how English natives pronounce a /t/ sound with a /d/ sound. Table 1 shows his performance regarding various pronunciation problems common among Arab learners of English. Appendix A describes the rating used.

It is also important to note that Anmar’s accent is American since most of the programs he watched were American. He can also accurately identify British English and American English since he has experienced both accents over time.

The child also properly performed intonation techniques during pronunciation. He could pause appropriately when the meaning of the text required so. In many instances he would reread the text to pause appropriately after he discovered the sense.

Acquisition of Problematic Sounds

Minimal Pairs
The study also found that Anmar has a good acquisition of minimal pairs. He does not have problems in confusing certain sounds such as /p/ with /b/ or /f/ with /v/. For instance, he can easily differentiate between “map,” “bridge,” and “bag.” In another instance, the child had stated how his EFL teachers confused /f/ with /v/ in the word “favorite,” and this indicates his ability to recognize and appropriately pronounce words with such phonetic features.

Consonant Clusters
Furthermore, the subject was well equipped to handle consonant clusters. He can pronounce words without inserting vowels to break the consonants. For instance, he does not mark the word /asked/ as /askɪd/ as is the case for most Arab learners of English. This attribute suggests that watching TV cartoons aids in better consonant cluster acquisition and avoids problems with its pronunciation.
Diphthongs
Anmar has a good understanding of diphthongs compared to most Arab learners. The typical error committed by most Arab EFL learners is the replacement of diphthongs by other sounds (Al-Busaidi & Al-Saqqaf, 2015). For instance, the word /wait/ is pronounced with a gliding sound /ey/, but they tend to mark it as /wet/ thereby confusing between the sound /ey/ and /e/ (Al-Busaidi & Al-Saqqaf, 2015). However, Anmar is capable of pronouncing these sounds correctly. Anmar exemplified high-level ability to recognize and mention some of the words that are often mispronounced by his EFL teachers and provide the correct pronunciation. In particular, he demonstrated proficiency in mispronounced words such as "pat" and "bat," "lap," and "rap."

Table 2. Anmar’s correction of mispronounced words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words</th>
<th>Mispronounced words</th>
<th>Anmar’s correction and recognition of these words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Wait</td>
<td>/wet/</td>
<td>/weyt/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stay</td>
<td>/stai/</td>
<td>/stet/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nice</td>
<td>/nis/</td>
<td>/nais/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Map</td>
<td>/mæb/</td>
<td>/map/</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asked</td>
<td>/askid/</td>
<td>/ɑːskt/</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Vowel Distinction
Lastly, the study found that the subject made clear vowel distinctions during his pronunciations. Contrary to most Arab learners of English, Anmar can differentiate various English vowels. For instance, he does not confuse the /ɪ/ sound with the /e/ sound in the words /sit/ and /set/.

Table 3. Anmar’s performance against common English pronunciation problems based on recorded audios

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound Label</th>
<th>Examples</th>
<th>Frequency of errors</th>
<th>Anmar’s performance (rating for each sound label)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sound replacement</td>
<td>Latter, liter, better, bottle, little, mat, sat</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimal pairs</td>
<td>Map, bridge, favorite, pat, bat, harp, fan, lap, pal, safe, fine</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intonation</td>
<td>Have you read this book?</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consonant cluster</td>
<td>street, stay, pray, empty, asked, grandfather, complete, bumped, sixteen,</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diphthongs</td>
<td>Wait, nice, high, shine, guide, boy, sky, cow, loud, ride</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vowel distinction</td>
<td>Hot, sit, pin, lock, dock, lid, din, bit, hill, not</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Discussion

Child's Performance
The native-like accent of the subject demonstrates that his pronunciation was quite similar to the pronunciation of children who acquire English in natural settings because children who watch TV cartoons receive language incidentally and without realization (Lekkai, 2014). Similarly, Poštič (2015) found that although children living in non-speaking English countries may develop American accents over time if they extensively watch American TV cartoons. Thus, Anmar developed American accent due to watching American cartoons. Interestingly enough, although still young, since Anmar now started to select the programs that he likes, he can easily differentiate American accent from the British accent.

It is also important to note that the subject enjoyed watching cartoons, which played an essential role in his impressive pronunciation performance. He kept watching because he was watching what he loved since he was very young. This process is in line with two crucial aspects mentioned earlier in literature review: first the Critical Period Hypothesis notes that learning a second language late is slow, unlike learning at a younger age; second, children's attitudes towards sources of language content are crucial in language acquisition (San Jose & Vicencio, 2018). Also, this concept is emphasized earlier by (Sipra, Alsolami, & Farooq, 2016) that language exposed in a natural setting is quick and incidental. In the case of Anmar, he liked watching cartoons since his childhood, which enabled him to learn English quickly and avoid various pronunciation errors committed by most Arab learners of English.

The aspect of watching an exciting cartoon program is related to motivation, which is pivotal in language acquisition. As noted by Prosi-Santovac (2017), when a young child watches cartoons with likable content, the child develops intrinsic motivation that allows him or her to have the interest to learn English as a foreign language. Additionally, the author notes that such cartoon programs are necessary instructional tools since the content includes repetition, as in the case of Dora the Explorer, which aids in language acquisition. Similarly, creative and exciting activities, including media, enhance learner’s English pronunciation (Nurhayati, 2015). Anmar watched three cartoon programs that offered easy language comprehension, and the characters spoke with audible sounds. Besides, these cartoon programs were exciting. Therefore, the present paper recognizes that parents or caregivers should allow their children to watch cartoons in their preschool stages so that they develop their motivation towards English when they grow up. This motivation, if raised, has the potential of increasing their language acquisition in general and their pronunciation in particular.

Given that Anmar was able to provide correct intonations, The cartoon programs he watched played a pivotal role in this language development. Children can unconsciously grasp the way characters in the programs interact and observe essential conversation elements such as intonation and body language. A study by Morales, Montenegro, Ruiz, and Concha (2017) showed that when children watch cartoons in English, they can learn to stress certain words and present the required meaning during communication because cartoon characters exaggerate their speech, which makes it possible for learners to differentiate words through intonation. However, the study involved tenth-grade students learning English as their foreign language, and although they showed an improvement in pronunciation, their accent was not native-like. By watching cartoons
and eventually deriving the meaning of how characters interact, a child understands this context in a native-like manner. To this effect, Anmar was able to recognize the meaning of words, observe how actors communicated, and use these elements in speaking the English language.

**Pronunciation and Interaction via TV Cartoons**

Furthermore, although Anmar was in an EFL setting, he outperformed well as compared to other subjects in the same context. By receiving a rating of native-like, it meant that his linguistics and social environment did not have a significant effect on his pronunciation. That is, although Anmar rarely used the English language since Arabic is the primary language of communication, his English pronunciation was better compared to Arab learners of English. According to communicative approach, learners gain fluency in pronunciation from practice and engagement in actual interaction (Long, 1996). However, learners in an EFL setting experience difficulties to practice English in day-to-day communications. Therefore, watching selected cartoon programs over time lets children observe how characters interact in English in various situations that require specific ways of pronunciation. Although children may not have communicated in English in social settings, by watching cartoons, they learn to pronounce correctly, beginning with internalization then practicing to speak afterward. De Guerrero (2004) asserts that at a young age, a child uses inner speech in L2 and internalization to develop fundamentals in L2 acquisition. Thus, a child voluntarily or involuntarily utters L2 and silently repeats what he hears in this foreign language. Therefore, Anmar performed better than his counterparts. He had enough time to watch and internalize, which led to the development of sound articulation and native-like accent.

**Acquisition of Problematic Sounds**

The fact that Anmar outperforms ESL Arabic learners, although he has a pronunciation problem regarding sound replacement, demonstrates the significance of the only source of language acquisition, TV cartoons. For instance, he applies minimal pairs, that offer significant challenges to Arab participants. In particular. The study conducted by Binturki (2008) supports the finding of this research. Binturki found that Saudi ESL learners in college failed to apply /f/ and /v/ as well as /b/ and /p/. in their speech. Given this, early exposure to cartoon programs in English leads to improved English proficiency. In particular, a person who has had childhood exposure to audio-visual learning acquires better pronunciation skills compared to ESL. Therefore, if children develop their English, strategies that aim to improve pronunciation such as minimal pairs training, as suggested by (Altamimi, 2015) become unnecessary for them. Thus, allowing a child to have a setting where he or she can watch cartoons in English leads to better language acquisition, especially pronunciation aspects. Apart from college students, Anmar also outperformed secondary school students, who, according to Hago and Khan (2015), had a problem with the sound /v/. They replaced it with the phoneme /f/ because it is the closest sound to it in the Arabic sound system. In the present study, Anmar had adequate mastery of these sounds and could easily differentiate between them. Surprisingly, Anmar criticizes his teachers' performance concerning these minimal pairs. In his dairies with his father, he quickly notices his English teacher's failure in pronouncing \v\ sound in 'favorite' or /p/ sound in 'palace.' Instead, these sounds were pronounced as /f/ and /b/ respectively.

When EFL learners have a clear understanding of consonant clusters and can use them appropriately, they demonstrate an important step in English language acquisition. The subject of
this study developed high selectivity of English sounds, and he didn't not insert vowels to break the clusters. This significant achievement happened due to watching cartoons from an early age. However, acquiring this key pronunciation component is difficult when a child is not offered this form of learning and only experiences English in conventional environments. For instance, Hago and Khan (2015) found that Saudi secondary school learners inserted vowels in the initial, medial, and final consonant clusters. The researchers attributed this challenge to the tendency of the participants to integrate the English language with Arabic. It becomes difficult for these individuals to pronounce consonant clusters, which leads them to insert vowels to make the pronunciation easier (Al-Saidat, 2010). According to Al-Saidat, Arab learners of English experience cluster splitting due to mother tongue interference, where learners insert vowels to make the pronunciation of consonants easier. Anmar, even though he is a native Arabic speaker, his mother language had no influence on him in this regard. However, when Anmar was correcting consonant cluster mistakes, he was not able to provide the name of these mistakes, nor was he able to explain how these errors because the acquisition of pronunciation occurs incidentally.

Also, Arab learners experience pronunciation challenges due to unawareness of spelling mistakes (Aloglah, 2018). Al-Saidat (2010) advises that practice and experience are critical for these learners to overcome the challenge. The implication is that when Arab children watch cartoons in English, they can notice spelling errors and correct mistakes when speaking the language since they have learned the correct pronunciation from watching cartoon programs. Therefore, it is not surprising that in this study, Anmar developed high-level spelling of words, which affected his spelling awareness, and this reflected on his pronunciation of words in general and on the avoiding problematic sounds that his counterparts have.

This paper has shown that watching cartoons is critical for Arab learners of English when the learning starts during childhood development as opposed to advanced stages. Al-Saidat (2010) asserts that the stage of development plays a crucial role in language acquisition, where interlanguage is the main component. The researcher notes that the learner modifies his first and foreign language by adding or deleting rules based on the learner’s errors (Al-Saidat, 2010). Additionally, learning requires enough time to master certain language features since some mistakes belong to the beginning stages, and others occur in later stages (Al-Saidat, 2010). To this effect, exposing a child to cartoon programs from an early stage allows him to form a good understanding of various English language rules, thereby minimizing pronunciation errors from an old age. Moreover, as the child continues receiving this form of learning, his mastery in the language is improved. Therefore, Anmar outperformed other Arab participants in phonology since he had ample time to learn the English language as opposed to other participants who started at a later stage.

Since cartoons have short durations, children perceive them as exciting to eliminate boredom. However, as the child grows, the duration of audio-visual programs may increase and, in that case, cartoon movies are also crucial in helping a child to acquire proper English pronunciation skills (Wahyuni & Fata, 2016). Thus, watching cartoons is critical in encouraging a child to watch more programs and thus broaden the language exposure, which in return, increase the opportunities to acquire advanced words and their pronunciation. Anmar dared later to watch real character programs of his own, and gained self-confidence.
Anmar was assigned specific durations to view English cartoons before he joined the school, and this helped him to have adequate preparation in learning English in a familiar environment. While he was at home, he had specific periods to watch cartoons, and this was beneficial to his foreign language development. This process is also constructive since it acts as a hobby for the child forming part of his daily routine since he usually stays at home doing nothing. Thus, parents should allocate specific times for their children to view cartoons while at home and before joining the school. The assigned time does not affect the acquisition of the mother tongue since the environment is monolingual: the child uses the mother tongue to communicate at home and in the community.

Conclusion
So, early exposure to cartoons and continuous exposure as the child grows is a critical tool for developing proper pronunciation in either second or foreign language. Comics are fun, which motivates children to understand the language used in the cartoons. According to San Jose and Vicencio (2018), English pronunciation is the most challenging aspect of language acquisition by Arab learners. However, this paper has demonstrated that exposing a young child to watching cartoons in English can minimize this vital challenge. Early exposure to a native-like environment allows the child to reproduce what he observes in the cartoon programs, which then leads to proper language acquisition at a faster pace and the required competency. Anmar had a native-like English accent, which reveals English pronunciation was not a challenge to him as it the case for most Arab learners of English. Also, Anmar’s pronunciation of individual sounds where he replaces the /t/ sound with /d/ is similar to the American pronunciation. Watching cartoons from an early age is essential as it enables a child in a non-English speaking background and country to develop proper pronunciation skills because a child has less hindrance in acquiring the language since the process starts at a young age, that is optimum for language acquisition, and the materials provided are captivating. Watching cartoons in English from an early age presents an individual with the opportunity to learn English pronunciation and practice it effectively. This form of learning is better than starting to learn English at a later stage of development. Parents should allocate specific times for children to watch English cartoons while they are at home and before joining the school to make them ready when they start learning English in schools. This duration does not affect L1 acquisition since the dominant language in use is his mother tongue. An early start presents enough time to understand the language intuitively, distinguish between sounds, and eliminate pronunciation errors. Thus, viewing cartoons is a critical commitment that will allow the child to have proper foreign language pronunciation amidst first language interference.

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Impact of Watching Cartoons on Pronunciation of a Child in an EFL Setting


**Appendix A**

Does the child produce similar problematic sounds or outperforms them? Yes or No (1). The answers were then combined with the question about the accent of the child ranging from non-native-like to native-like and scored from 1(Yes and Non-native-like) to 10 (No and native-like).
The Use of Question Modification Strategies in ESL Class

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Abstract
Questioning is a popular instructional strategy in a language class to encourage learning. However, not all questions are effective in doing so, as some questions sometimes go unanswered. When faced with a situation such as this, teachers must adjust their questions to make it more understandable. This study investigates question modification strategies employed by student teachers in English as a second language (ESL) class. Data for the study was collected through classroom observations. The participants were seven Diploma in Teaching English as a second Language (TESL) students who were undergoing their compulsory 12-week teaching practicum (TP) at various primary schools in Terengganu. The data were analyzed thematically based on the types of strategies used in the process. The finding shows that the most popular modification strategies among the STs are repetition and translation. Besides, the choice of modification strategies is limited to just a few. Many strategies were not fully utilized in class. The findings highlight important pedagogical implications for education providers (EPs) to improve on to produce competent teachers. EPs should expose student teachers to a wide array of question modification strategies to prevent interaction breakdown and to encourage active participation in the class. The ability to modify questions will create a more interactive and communicative environment suitable for learning English in a second language context.

Keywords: class observation, ESL, question modification strategies, student teachers, teaching practicum

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Introduction

Questioning is one of the most common yet effective strategies teachers use in the language classrooms. The importance of questions is stressed by Brualdi (1998), who posits that “in order to teach well, it is widely believed that one must be able to question well” (p.1). Through questioning, teachers can make language class more communicative as there is involvement from students. However, since not all questions can be used to enhance learning, teachers have to make sure the questions they ask are appropriate and serve their purposes, failing which, it is considered a futile effort. Owing to this, Wilen and Clegg (1986) believe that teachers should employ the right questioning strategies such as phrasing questions clearly, and probing students' responses to have them clarify ideas, support a point of view, or extend their thinking.

These questioning strategies, as defined by Wu (1993), are “strategies teachers use to elicit verbal responses from students” (p.55). They are used to elicit answers or responses to promote learning. However, the strategies are only useful if they can encourage students to respond. In many instances, questions are not always followed by responses, as some go unanswered. This unresponsiveness or silence could indicate several problems either with the questions or the students. This is, according to Varonis and Gass (1985) due, probably to the fact that “a nonunderstanding has arisen during interaction” (p. 76) or that they misinterpret the question (Tsui, 2001). Similarly, Walsh (2006) thinks that silence or unresponsiveness in the class “may indicate uncertainty or confusion” (p. 53). Others, such as Dumteeb and Kwan, suggest that it could be due to students’ inability to express themselves (as cited in AlShenqeeti, 2014), thus preventing them from providing necessary responses to the questions posed. To this, Wu (1993) and Moritoshi (2002), add that students’ inability to respond to teachers’ questions on their own, warrants additional stimuli/prompts from teachers.

Hence, teachers must take notice of the above indicators as proper measures can be taken to encourage students to communicate in cases when responses are not forthcoming. Teachers are recommended to use additional questioning strategies or modifications of questions (Mehan, 1979; Wu, 1993; Moritoshi, 2002). These question modification strategies are used to improve the comprehensibility of their questions (Pica & Long, 1986) so that students will have more opportunity to rethink about the response to the questions.

Modification strategies have been classified differently by different researchers. For example, Chaudron (1988) has a very comprehensive analysis of the modification techniques. They include, among others, modified pronunciation, changing rate of speech, using basic vocabulary, self-repetition, pauses, rephrasing, and translation. Moore (2007), on the other hand, divides modification strategies into five, namely redirecting, wait-time, halting, listening, and reinforcement. Another classification is by Wu (1993), who divides the strategies into five types which include rephrasing, simplification, repetition, decomposition, and probing. The description for each strategy is presented in Table 1. As Wu (1993) indicates, the modification strategies are used for different purposes. For example, rephrasing, simplification, repetition, and decomposition are used mostly when the initial question does not elicit any responses from students. Probing, on the other hand, is used to encourage students to elaborate on their answers. Regardless of the different ways of defining what constitutes modification strategies, there is no dispute about the usefulness of the strategy in encouraging and promoting language learning.
However, despite being an essential aspect of learning, not much is done to investigate modification strategies teachers employ (Alshenqeeti, 2014; Wu, 1993) when there is a communication breakdown in class. As Walsh (2006) puts it, “the ability to ask questions, to refine and adjust those questions and to clarify for learners is central to the notion of Classroom Interactional Competence” (p.131). He believes that understanding how teachers change their line of questioning is essential in encouraging student participation in the lesson. Similarly, Moore (2007) argues for the needs of teachers to possess the ability to ask proper questions and modify questions in the absence or lack of responses, thus making questions more comprehensible.

Studies have shown that teachers indeed do employ modification strategies when facing difficulty in getting responses in class. This is confirmed by Hosoda and Aline (2013), who investigate classroom discourse. They found that when students fail to respond to a question, the teacher normally finds other ways to pursue the responses. However, what is not certain is the kind of strategies they employ in such situations. This uncertainty creates a need for studies examining the use of modification strategies at different education levels and in different contexts to be conducted.

At the tertiary level, studies on question modification strategies have been conducted, although the number is somewhat limited. One such study is by Alshenqeeti (2014), who investigated questioning in EFL classes in Saudi universities. One of the aspects that were investigated in his study was the additional questioning strategies of the lecturers. His findings indicate that teachers use various modification strategies such as at the word or sentence level, through student nomination practices, and through question reframing. Among the three, modifying at the word or sentence level, which includes repetition and paraphrasing, is the most popular strategy used by teachers in his research.

Similarly, Yu (2010) investigated both the types of questions and questioning modifications ESL teachers use at a college in China. In terms of modification strategies, she found that three techniques are used frequently namely, repetition, code-switching and pauses are used in the teaching process. Among the three, repetition happened in many more instances compared to others.

Besides, studies at the high school level have also been conducted. Using Chaudron’s (1988) framework, Fitriani, Makhsum, and Samad (2016) investigate strategies used by the English teacher in a high school in Indonesia. Through observations, they found that teachers use a variety of strategies at different degrees, the most frequently used being narrowing utilizing clues, followed by rephrasing with alternative and wait time. Meanwhile, repetition is reported to be the least popular strategy.

Moritoshi (2002) studies modification strategies employed by English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in a Japanese junior high school. His study focuses on modifications based on Chaudron (1988). Moritoshi (2002) found that teachers in his study used techniques such as self-repetition, pauses, rephrasing, and translation into Japanese whenever they encountered situations whereby their students could not respond to their questions. Repetition was the single most used technique (82%) of the total number of modification strategies. Moritoshi (2002) argues
that the repetition technique was used not to increase the comprehensibility of the questions but rather to give extra time for students to produce an answer. Translation was also dominant in the study as when teachers rephrase the questions, they did it in Japanese instead of English. Moritoshi (2002), however, recommends teachers to make an effort to provide as much input in the target language as possible.

The studies discussed above investigate question modifications among experienced teachers in various contexts (secondary and tertiary levels). Nonetheless, little is known about how teachers modify their questions at the primary school level. What is even lacking is studies among student teachers (STs), who are undergoing teaching practicum for the first time on how they vary or modify their questioning strategies whenever they do not receive feedback from the students. Studies of this nature are crucial as student teachers often have little formal training in questioning techniques. The lack of training is highlighted by Cotton (2001) who believes that “preservice teachers are given inadequate training in developing questioning strategies” (p.8). Those who ask questions were found to either ask ineffective or inappropriate questions (Gall, 1984). For experienced teachers, Wilen (1991) believes that the practice of questioning comes naturally, as most of the time, they rely on intuition as well as experience. These teachers have undergone numerous training and have vast experience; thus, their practice is shaped by their intuition and experience handling the class. Unfortunately, students who are learning to be teachers (student teachers) do not have these luxuries to fall back on. Being new to the teaching world, they have to rely on whatever knowledge they acquire during their program.

Student teachers’ classroom practice needs to be observed for improvements to be made. The present study, which is part of a more extensive study, focuses on the strategies that student teachers use to frame their questions in the case of unresponsive question and the frequency of each strategy utilized. It is believed that little attention has been paid to investigating this area compared with the prevalent studies of teacher questioning in English classrooms in general. This study adopts Wu’s (1993) framework, as explained in Table 1.

Table 1. Types of questioning strategies (adapted from Wu, 1993)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rephrasing</td>
<td>A question is expressed in a different way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(REPHR)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simplification</td>
<td>This may be regarded as a kind of rephrasing by means of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(SIMPL)</td>
<td>which a situation is simplified so that students can cope with it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repetition</td>
<td>A question is repeated in the hope that a verbal response will be</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(REPEA)</td>
<td>elicited.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Decomposition</td>
<td>An initial question is decomposed into two or more parts so that an answer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(DECOM)</td>
<td>may be obtained.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Probing</td>
<td>A question is followed up by one or more other questions so that the teacher</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(PROBE)</td>
<td>can solicit more responses from a student.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Translation**</td>
<td>A question is asked in two languages, one after another.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(TRANS)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** strategy added
The Use of Question Modification Strategies in ESL Class

Jusoh, A Rahman & Salim

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Objectives of the Research

This research is part of a more extensive study conducted to investigate the questioning behavior of English as a second language (ESL) student teachers (STs) during their 12-week compulsory teaching practicum. However, this particular paper only focuses on the questioning strategies employed by the STs. Thus, to achieve the objective, the following research question is formulated:

What question modification strategies did student teachers employ in class when teaching ESL class?

Methodology

The following section briefly describes the methodology employed in the study. The discussion includes data collection method, informants, and also the data analysis procedure.

Data Collection Method

The study employed a descriptive research design that uses data from qualitative method. Data was collected through class observation. Class observation technique has several strengths, such as it allows direct information on class practice to be obtained (Weir & Roberts, 1994). Besides, “there is no substitute for direct observation as a way of finding out about language classrooms” (Nunan, 1989, p.76). Seven ESL classes in different primary schools were observed for an hour each. All the observations were conducted by the researchers who happened to be the students’ academic supervisors. All the observations were tape-recorded.

Informants of the study

Seven student teachers (6 females and one male) enrolled in Diploma in Teaching English as a Second Language (TESL) program were involved in the study. They were undergoing their compulsory 12-week teaching practicum at different primary schools in the Kuala Nerus area. The student teachers were teaching different classes from Year two to Year five.

Data Analysis

The data obtained from observation were tape recorded and later transcribed to determine the questioning strategies the student teachers employed. The analysis was done thematically based on Wu’s (1993) questioning strategies. Besides, the data were also quantified to determine the frequency of each strategy used in the classes.

Results

The analysis was conducted based mainly on the framework recommended by Wu (1993). The strategies are divided into five, namely repetition (REPEA), rephrasing (REPHR), simplification (SIMPL), decomposition (DECOM), probing (PROBI), and translation (TRANS) based on how the questions are rephrased.

Table 2 presents the types of strategies employed by the STs and frequency of occurrence of the strategy for each ST. Based on the result, it can be seen that the most popular strategy was repetition (REPEA) as it has the highest number of occurrences, with a total number of 22 times. In terms of the total number of occurrences, the next most popular modification strategy is
translation and probing. In total, both strategies were observed to have been used seven times each. On the other hand, the least popular strategies were simplification and decomposition. Each of these strategies was used once.

Apart from being the strategy with the highest number of total occurrences, repetition was also most popular among STs in terms of the number of STs using it. It was used by almost all STs (by six out of seven STs). Nonetheless, the frequencies of occurrence differ from one ST to another. Teacher D (T D) used the most at nine times. Translation (TRANS) and probing (PROB) were used by four out of seven STs each.

When the focus is on the behavior of individual ST, the frequency and type of strategies employed vary from one ST to another. The ST that employed strategy the most was Teacher D (T D), who used strategies 12 times for the whole one-hour lesson. However, in terms of variety, she used less varied strategies (three types of strategies only). Teacher F (T F) and Teacher G (T G), on the other hand, used far smaller number of strategies, but with a greater variety, four types of strategies. Teacher A (T A), used the least strategy in terms of frequency and type with one rephrasing strategy only.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics on observed question modification strategies

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher</th>
<th>REPEA</th>
<th>REPHR</th>
<th>SIMPL</th>
<th>DECOM</th>
<th>PROBI</th>
<th>TRANS</th>
<th>Total types</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>T A</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T B</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T C</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T D</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T E</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T F</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T G</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total occurrence</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total users</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The findings from class observation suggest that the student teachers’ choice of question modification strategies was limited to just a few dominant strategies, such as repeating and translation. The findings concur with others (Chaudron, 1988; Wu, 1993), who also found that repetition to be the modification strategy most commonly used by teachers during lessons. The findings support the statement made by Moritoshi (2002), who believes that repetition plays a significant role in a language class as it provides students with more opportunity to come out with responses.

Similarly, translation is also rather popular among the STs as it seems to be the most straightforward strategy to modify problematic questions to help students’ understanding. In many ESL classrooms, using two languages or code-switching is still one of the most widely used
teaching techniques. This finding corroborates that of Moritoshi (2002), who found translation to be dominant in ESL classes in Japan. This technique is, however, not recommended by Bruck & Schultz (as cited in Chaudron, 1988, p. 172). They caution teachers against using translation, as they believe that “a gradual tendency for a teacher to use her dominant language for instructional tasks (whether the L1 or L2) will result in a similar shift in the learners’ preferences for language use” (p. 172). Thus, ideally, teachers should minimize the use of translation as modification strategy since using it defeats the purpose of questioning, which is to give them a platform to practice using English.

Resulting from the use of limited choice of strategies, the STs did not fully utilize other strategies such as simplification and decomposition. These two strategies were least used in this study, although this is hardly surprising, as Wu (1993) also obtains similar findings. There are several explanations that can be offered for this observation. One is that the STs are not aware of other strategies that are available for them to use as they were not exposed to these strategies. Lack of familiarity to the strategies arises because these strategies are not commonly used even by experienced teachers. Hence, STs were not aware of their existence due to a lack of exposure to them.

Another plausible explanation is that the STs know about those strategies, but they avoid using the strategies. This avoidance is because the STs themselves are neither comfortable nor confident enough to use them. This behavior perhaps could be because both strategies, especially decomposition, were not as straightforward as other strategies such as repetition and translation. Using them requires teachers to use some specific techniques such as breaking questions into simpler parts and finding more commonly used vocabulary to express the gist. The observation also indicates that STs were not able to go down to the level of their students, thus preventing them from using simplification and decomposition strategies to modify their questions.

Nonetheless, this is in contradiction with the findings by Alshenqeeti (2014), who found that teachers in his research were observed to be using various modification strategies. However, the teachers in his study were highly experienced. Thus, whenever there is a breakdown in communication, they know how to modify and keep the interaction going. The ability to modify the questions is in line with Wilen’s (1991) statement regarding this issue. He states that “most of the decisions teachers make about questioning in the classroom are intuitive and are therefore based primarily on experience’ (p.8). In this study, being new to the teaching profession, the respondents have no experience to fall back on hence for their lack of variety in modification strategies.

Additionally, not only did the student teachers lack in the use of different varieties of strategies, but they were also found not using sufficient strategies when teaching. This issue is a cause for concern for education providers as it suggests that the STs are not interacting enough with students in class or are lacking the skills to ask and modify questions, thus depriving students of a language-rich environment. This deprivation is what Cotton (2001) laments when she highlights the inadequacy of training given to preservice teachers in developing questioning strategies. Without proper training, the effectiveness of instructions will not be fully optimized.
The study sought to investigate student teachers’ employment of question modification strategies when teaching ESL to primary school students. Based on the findings and discussions in the previous sections, student teachers in the study were more comfortable using just a limited number of modification strategies while other strategies were neglected entirely. Focusing on just a selected few means that the student teachers did not utilize a sufficient number of strategies when asking questions in the class. Besides, there seems to be a lack of varieties in the follow-up questions they posed. From these findings, it can be concluded that the student teachers are either not familiar with or not aware of the existence of other strategies that can be used to modify their questions when their initial questions fail to invite responses from the students.

However, as this is a small-scale study involving only a small number of participants who were observed only once, the conclusion derived from it should be viewed in light of those limitations.

Implications of the study
Despite being a small-scale study, the results yielded in this study have several consequences. The first implication concerns the lack of diversity in the strategies employed by the student teachers in this study. It is thus vital that STs be made aware of the different strategies available for them to use while teaching so that they can vary the strategies from time to time. Using the same strategy on all occasions can make the learning process so predictable and monotonous, which will create a dull and uninteresting learning environment.

The issue with a lack of modification strategies should be taken seriously so that education providers (EPs) can produce competent ESL teachers. This can be overcome by giving the STs opportunities to reflect on their classroom practices more frequently and regularly so that awareness can be raised promptly. This responsibility should fall under the purview of both their cooperating teachers (CTs) and university supervisors (SVs). Instead of focusing only on their overall lessons, CTs and SVs should also emphasize on specific areas such as questioning behavior in the classroom.

Another implication is that, the findings from this study regarding question modification strategies among STs provide EPs with the information on areas to improve in the teaching and learning process, especially during teaching practicum. This feedback is essential to ensure that the quality of teacher trainees produced by the university meets the standard set by the Ministry of Education. The information is necessary since proper intervention programs such as in-house workshops and training clinics can be conducted to provide teachers with adequate exposure and opportunity to practice effective questioning strategies. Another option is by embedding this topic in specific subjects such as ELT Methodology and also in the micro-teaching class. This integration is especially important as teaching English to students in a non-supportive environment requires maximum effort from teachers in providing necessary language inputs to create a language-rich environment that can be done through proper questioning techniques.
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The Use of Question Modification Strategies in ESL Class

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Analysis of Lexical and Cohesive Ties usage in Undergraduate Students’ Writing by Applying Task-Based Language Learning Methodology

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Abstract
The present scenario fact that the English is a language of modern technological and scientific developments, text is a primary tool for students to gain the knowledge in writing skills. However, most male Saudi students show minimum efficient in L2 writing skill and do not have sufficient competence for writing the authentic English passages. To enhance this various study were undergone to cope up the gap between the student’s use of lexical and cohesive ties by applying task-oriented teaching. However, the immediate need to fill the gap, the researchers made pioneer study on this filed. The present study investigates analysis of lexical and cohesive ties usage in undergraduate students’ writing by applying task-based language learning methodology. The study was performed by thirty-five students from an advanced ESL Reading class at King Saud University, Arts College in Riyadh for 15 weeks. This study has been investigated by Four English passages including behavioral psychology, scientific and two general passages throughout the semester respectively. The analysis of the obtained data proved that the students’ language abilities in grammar and vocabulary significantly improved especially in the discourse analysis passages. In addition, the results of the study evidenced that students are more engaged and motivated during group work activities, and learn more about structure, identifying, cause and effect, purpose and function and if clause of analyzing passages. Proficiency of grammatical category results concluded among the 35 students, average 60% of the students were prefect in tenses, passive structures, if clause, cause and effect, purpose and function, documented 37.14,57.14,54.28 and 77.14% respectively. Overall, the present study concludes with pedagogical implications that ESL teachers might consider a task in their ESL classrooms.

Keywords: ESL learning, lexical and cohesive ties, task-based language learning, passage analysis, undergraduate students, vocabulary acquisition

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Introduction
Long’s (2015, p. 369) states the Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) is an innovative approach that to catch on and spread sure involvement of teachers and practical demo are in order. Education in the current scenario provides creative innovation and quality to the students. The classroom learning could be creative and interesting for the learners particularly from the rural for this study. The Advanced method of teaching and learning will provide a fair environment for active learning. Teaching tasks in the classroom provides special importance to the needs and proficiencies of the learners to develop the language learning skills. The medium of teaching to undergraduate education is English, and it remains to be the language needed for profession in business and other occupations. It is necessary to improve employability for the learners and learning environment, which must be student-centered.

There is a need for accuracy and fluency in English. The students show their interest in acquiring language skills in order to get a better job. It is also essential for many learners, who wish to pursue their higher studies in overseas. Everybody feels ponder of knowledge of English as it is a significant requirement to grasp professional prospects. The second language English speaker catches courteous replies in many situations than does the native speaker. Most of the skilled workers who are fluent in English enjoy the profits of good jobs in multinational business companies. In addition, online education also increases responsibility for giving quality education for the learners. There is a need for accuracy and fluency in English. The students show their interest in acquiring language skills in order to get a better job. It is also essential for many learners, who wish to pursue their higher studies in overseas. Everybody feels ponder of knowledge of English as it is a significant requirement to grasp professional prospects. The second language English speaker catches courteous replies in many situations than does the native speaker. Most of the skilled workers who are fluent in English enjoy the profits of good jobs in multinational business companies. In addition, online education also increases responsibility for giving quality education for the learners.

Technology in Education
Technology grounded education stimulates the learners’ ability in attitude and interest which consider vital for learning skills. The e-learning setting helps the learners to attain knowledge over critical thinking. Education becomes meaningful and the learning methods increase self-esteem and confidence among the students. It comforts them to overwhelm the existence of affective filter. Moreover, Technology-based learning gives an easy entry to web-based sources and the students are able to use these resources to improve their knowledge. Ziegler (2016, p.136) argues a common relationship between TBLT and Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL) has enriched over the years and the researchers fascinated in tasks and technology has brought to study of how technology might support and facilitate during learning, but how TBLT engages as a framework to investigate CALL. E-learning plays a significant role in providing virtual (face to face) learning situations in the classroom. The computer-based language teaching enhances easy language learning. Even personal computer fetches a drastic change in the learning process. The digital networking motivates the learners and has the incredible effect of their attitude and attention to learning the language. This kind of improved motivation emphasizes the quality of work and enhancement in learners’ attitudes towards their learning skills.
Teaching English in the Classroom

Role of Teacher and Students

In the present scenario, education is no longer a matter of personality development and general understanding it could be a professional method of education and training for the learners to meet the competition of this era. In the context of the teacher's side, the learners do not feel adequately motivated to acquire the language and they are unwilling to put in the necessary amount of hard work to imbibe the necessary language skills. The teacher’s respective questionnaire should be administered at 99%. The language educators have been using Task-based language teaching (TBLT) in the classroom for the past 35 years. This strategy is considering a process-oriented method for language teaching that unifies language teaching at the center of syllabus design and instructional goals. (Littlewood, 2004; Nunan, 2004; Richards, 2005). The syllabus is properly designed with clear objectives by specialists in the English Language Teaching and the only cause for the inadequate (poor) results is the study habits and the improvised socio-economic background of the learners (students) which cannot be either helped or changed in the short time available to them. It is beyond their scope and only the administration with backing and support of the university can improve the conditions of learning. On their part, they feel doing their best to keep the level and position of learning though it needs co-operation from the learners and administration to reach the preferred results.

There is an immediate need to innovate and re-model classroom teaching from a traditional method to an interactive one (learner center method), which is more or less compel the students to imbibe and activate the patterns of language learned in the classroom. The language courses should be revised, restructured and redesigned from time to time to incorporate changes coming into English language usage and the changing demands of the market.

Likewise, Workshops, retraining programs dealing with the improvement of language skills ought to be conducted frequently, to impart new strategies for teachers to progress their classroom presentation and support of the supervision. The Appropriate task should be adapted during the course of the year for testing language skills. The acquired language is consolidated and framed so that the teachers and administration will know the language progress of the learners and methods of enhancing and reinforcing the process, further it also helps the teachers to equip their teaching methodology as per need.

The TESOL training must be organized to meet the requirement of teachers for dealing confidently in the new styles of teaching. The training must be made compulsory to every teacher in all levels of teaching. This training should be learners centered rather than teacher-centered. The language should not be treated as a simple course syllabus to educate but it is an effective communicative tool and having functional value used for factual life situations. The latest methods of utilizing educational technology and gadgets to improve learning should be introduced along with innovative class-room teaching to relieve the monotony and motivate the learners’ interest.

Unfortunately, a few colleges not having the necessary tools/software for learning a language like any kind of audiovisuals aids to help the learner acquire the language and they feel totally alien to their culture. So, teaching in colleges today is challenging. The pressures are greater
now than ever before. Such exchanges among teachers do not occur as frequently as they should. Teachers must equip their students in order to get better jobs in the society. For this demanding time, the researcher needs to discuss present problems and emphasize the importance of TBLT. The common platform of teachers is to share their ideas, to know common approaches and to part their experiences. This attempt may pay attention to a great number of the language teachers, are willing to agree with the new methods and approaches leaving behind the traditional approaches of practice in the EFL Classroom.

**Literature Review**

**Second Language Learning with Task-Based Teaching**

The researcher experience as an assistant professor of English, learners with many years of experience in the English learning classroom still have considerable difficulty in coping with English in its normal communicative use. In order to improve communicative competence, students have to look for additional tasks in the Discourse analysis. They mainly want to acquire accuracy and fluency for learning the English language. Task-Based technology of Language teaching and its focus on accuracy and fluency look exactly what the learner’s need. An experimental program called the “Access Microscholarship English Language Program was familiarized as an endeavor to hone” communicative competence among the students who study through a non-English medium, by changing the formalized, structured pattern of conventional classroom teaching. This program succeeded to a great extent due to its task-based approach. Ellis (2009, p. 221) stated TBLT basically for teachers and students to forget where they are and why they are there. It is hard to understand for considering the “educational[ly] imperative” nature of the EFL (Goffman, 1981, p.53).

For the past 20 years, TBLT grabs the attention of English language educators. It considers a process-oriented approach for language teaching and merges the process of communicative language teaching in the center of syllabus design and instructional goals (Littlewood, 2004; Nunan, 2004; Richards, 2005). “Coring the language education with a task is expected to offer learners an experiential process of learning wherein they use the target language for meaningful and this negotiate language process will spur and promote the students’ language acquisition skills” (Samuda & Bygate, 2008, p. 590).

Most of the challenges occurred in the time-based and physical constraints of the ESL syllabus and potentially reduced with the help of technology. So, the communication and technology increase the range of tasks in the classroom with web resources (Skehan, 2003; Stone & Wilson-Duffy, 2009), improve the validity of tasks and motivation for implementing a task in the learning environment (Sadler, 2009; González-Lloret, 2003), facilitate learners ownership of and agency in the tasks (Kern, 2006; Kern, Ware, & Warschauer, 2004; Reinders & White, 2010). TBLT suggests the use of tasks as a vital element in the Second Language classroom because it provides well contexts for stimulating student acquisition processes and supporting L2 learning (Shehadeh, 2005; Prabhu, 1987). For initiating the task-based technology of teaching and learning a second language in an ESL classroom, grounded on the idea for effective learning when learners are fully involved in language learning with the task.
The TBLT theory states English Language Learning is a process of communication rather than a theory of language construction. Richards and Rodgers (2001, p. 228) suggest that "tasks are believed to be a process of negotiation, modification, rephrasing, and experimentation that are at the heart of second language learning".

**Focus on Meaning in the Task-based Learning**
The students can learn plenty of vocabulary during paragraph writing in L2 use in the learning environment, accessed in active lessons in the classroom with no presentation of structures or rubrics and no motivation for students to realize themselves. It states an analytic syllabus and structure of the language come from the learner’s intention (Wilkins, 1976).

**Focus on Form in Task-based Learning**
The attention of form arises when attention is typically on meaning but is moved to form seldom when a communication breakdown happens. Many skills are used to encounter this goal, such as "recasts" in which the teacher offers a remedial reformulation of the learner's incorrect discourse creation or understanding (Long, 1985).

The TBLT is the starting point for language development and form is developing from the meaning. If we take this goal, initially teachers have to encourage learners to use the language in the classroom as much as possible without worrying too much about formal accuracy. Further, a form –focused stage gives them the opportunity to see in detail at some of the forms that have been used in the classroom. Since this focus on form comes after learners have experienced the language in use, they have a context that will enable them to feel of the new language.

Tasks must be applicable to real-life to help students accomplish the tasks and show their analytical competence of sentence/structure in the classroom teaching and real-life situations (Willis, 1996, p. 149). In addition, task types include picture stories, puzzles and games (Nunan, 1989); interviews, discussions, and debates (Nunan, 1989; Oxford, 1990; Richards & Rodgers, 2001); everyday function, such as service encounters and telephone conversations (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). These tasks are valuable learning activities in the classroom environment.

**3. Methodology**
The present study examined thirty students, selected randomly from the classroom out of 54 students. The researcher assigned four passages; Behavioral psychology, Scientific and two general passages. Moreover, assessment and analysis were based on the three aspects namely Lexis, Grammar, Syntax, and Discourse (direct and inferential). Under the heading Lexis: Synonyms, Antonyms, One Word Substitution, Idioms, Word Formation with Affixes were given. In the second part (Grammar and Syntax) focused on Tense identification and their usage and differences in the structure, identifying “cause and effect”, purpose and function”, “if clause” and “passive” statements from the passages were given. In the third part –inferential and text-oriented questions were given to examine their talent to infer meaning, guessing and understanding the passage based on contextual clues.

At the beginning of the task, the participants wrote two passages, after which the researcher collected the passages. The researcher then read each passage and at the end of each passage, he
wrote a comment. The comment motivates self-confidence and improves writing. However, the researcher does not comment on the grammar mistakes and vocabulary employed (as the main goal is to continue the writing process). The feedback of the task is given to the learners in the next lecture hour, and the learners are requested to continue writing passages.

In the classroom, the researcher pinpoints the main features of cohesive devices and lexical items. He describes what he liked most and what he liked least of their written passages. The classroom group discussion does not take longer than 20 minutes, where learners also discuss the problems they faced in the task, and the errors they might change in the next task. This discussion is to pay attention to an indirect way of guiding the learners more active. The group discussion is later minimized to 10 minutes. In the fifteenth week, all the tasks of learners are collected to evaluate the number of passages they wrote and calculated the comments with the change in writing quality, quantity, and styles. The data is calculated in terms of mean and average percentage. The researchers also entered an average score of the vocabulary, grammar, and cohesion between the pre-test and post-test differences.

4. Result
4.1 Task 1. Lexis

From the finding of the sample task given to a group of 35, It is inferred that only 20 students scored in synonyms and 22 of one-word substitution. Further, 18 students scored off antonyms out of the 35. Only 15 students have scored of idioms and 14 of word formation with affixes. From this, we come to understand that 20/35 students who attempted synonyms have limited vocabulary ability, In terms of synonyms the word ‘span’ written as ‘lifetime’ and the word ‘chronicle’ as ‘story’ or book’ etc. While in the context of antonyms test found difficult because little importance was given to the study of antonyms right through their schooling years. For example, like antonyms, the given word was ‘similar’, ‘perpetual’, ‘demote’, ‘political’, ’sophisticated’ for which most of the students written as ‘non-similar’, ‘perpetual,’ remote.’ political or nonpolitical’ respectively. Only 15/35 scored about idioms and 14/35 about word formation with affixes. This means that 15/35 students were fairly poor in terms of the two areas because they lacked proper grounding and usage of knowledge of the communicative language.

Table 1. Students score in the proficiency of lexical words and means score between them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Students scale (proficiency test)</th>
<th>Means score between both</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Synonyms</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>One word substitution</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Antonyms</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Idioms</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Figure 1 Lexical words

4.2 Task 2. Grammar and Syntax (Grammatical category)
In the grammatical category, students were tested in ‘Tenses’, ‘If Clause’, ‘Cause and Effect’, ‘Purpose and Function’ and ‘Passive Structures’. The results indicate that 13-15 students were able to score in these categories. A major number of students (35) did not perform well in the If Clause because they only had a vague idea of the subdivisions (in tense) in each category, only 13 students performed well. Hence, regarding the Cause and Effect, they attained 20 and Purpose and Function scored 19. The participants show a keen interest in Passive Structures and gained 22. Moreover, they were not able to identify and differentiate between the connectives to be used for Cause and Effect, Purpose and Function, etc. One of the reasons for their poor performance could be associated with the importance given to only prose and poetry during their schooling years which lacked in a technical approach for learning the above concept.

Table 2. Students score in the proficiency of grammatical category and means score between them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Students scale (proficiency test)</th>
<th>Means score between both</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Actual participant</td>
<td>Participant’s Scores</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Tenses</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>if clause</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>cause and effect</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.3 Task 3. Discourse
In the third part, the participants tested in three dimensions: 1. the text-based questionnaire, Non-text-based questionnaire and Inferring idea. The participants were assigned to four different groups and have done fairly in all the tasks with motivation and they scored 30 in Inferring idea, 27 in Text-based Question and 18 in Non-Text-based question respectively. The results indicate that students were able to answer the questions that were direct and text-based for which they only have to pick lines from the paragraph.

Table 2. Students score in the proficiency of discourse and means score between them

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sl. No.</th>
<th>Task</th>
<th>Students scale (proficiency test)</th>
<th>Means score between both</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Actual participant</td>
<td>Participant’s Scores</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Inferring idea</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Text-based Question</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Non-Text based question</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Discussion

Willis, (1996) described the task-based framework as a model consisting of pre-task (introduction to topic and task), task cycle (task, planning, and report) and language focus (analysis and practice). This allows learners to focus on meaning by using the limited vocabulary they have in the first two stages and then only in the last stage is there an emphasis on form and function, about accuracy. By the involvement of students in meaningful tasks provides regular opportunities to use discourse markers practice skills in a language they might need in real life. Task motivates students as they want to achieve the task outcomes. As learners choose the language they need, they are more likely to acquire it. Most importantly, language focuses on the last stage which prevents learners from fossilization and creates opportunities for improvement in language skills.

The researcher observed that engagement of tasks promotes learner’s confidence by giving them many opportunities to practice language inside the classroom and no fear for making mistakes once they begin to analyze the language.

During the group discussion, the learners used lexis, discourse markers and organizational patterns to signal how a text should be understood. These organizational structures demonstrated by students fairly well.

Strategy training is another way to provide comprehension instruction. Asking students to engage in prediction, clarifying questioning, reviewing and noting text organizations will provide real comprehension instruction.

While advanced texts are typically denser and present more complex information than texts of a more general nature, they are, nevertheless, assumed to be understandable with relatively little ambiguity. One of the major reasons for this assumption is the role played by discourse structure in text.
The test is an eye-opener on the fact that students, especially at the graduate level, need exposure to comprehension passages and knowledge on the discourse that help for improving the analytical thinking approach of the students.

The challenge of teacher for applying task-based techniques in the EFL classroom is how to choose and implement tasks to create a balance between focus on meaning and form. On the whole, researcher’s experiments with self-created TBLL tasks worked quite well. The learners remained active and engaged in the tasks. However, to develop their interlanguage system learners have to face the challenge of talking in front of the whole class. They need to practice the language while focusing on accuracy and fluency. By giving time to prepare the report encourages them to think about what they are going to say. This motivates the learners to ask about the language they need and are more likely to acquire it.

6. Conclusion
The present study concludes that analysis of lexical and cohesive ties usage in undergraduate students’ writing by applying task-based language learning methodology. Thirty students randomly selected for this study and examined in 15 weeks. The researcher assigned four passages; Behavioral psychology, Scientific and two general passages. It came up with a number of interesting findings; teachers can especially focus on improving the students’ verbal efficiency. There is a greater dependence on extrinsic and instrumental motivation to learn the language. The teachers should consistently motivate learners. Special attention should be given to the sentence structure, grammar, and Syntax, discourse markers or connectives. It has also been noticed that the learners who are shy tend to become very anxious when they have to analyze a sentence/ clause in front of the whole class. These challenges can be very well taken care of through practice, planning, and encouragement. The researcher suggests that more efforts to be taken to develop the students’ discourse competence skill in the course of English Language teaching and also the practical discourse analysis techniques will enrich the students’ knowledge to comprehend any passage. Therefore, these suggestions help tasks-based technologies on second Language learners not only focus on task-based class but also across context areas where TBLL is the fundamental tool for understanding the subject matter. The language teachers may implement above strategies in the EFL class rooms to enhance the effective class room environment.

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References


Learning Styles of Indonesian EFL Students: Culture and Learning

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Abstract
Learners’ success in language learning is affected by many factors, including age, aptitude, and intelligence, cognitive style, attitudes, motivation, and personality. Besides, learning strategies and learning styles also help to succeed in language learning. This paper discusses the learning style preferences of the first-year students at English Department Universitas Brawijaya Malang, Indonesia. There were two problems that attempted to be answered; first, what are the learning styles used by the students, and second, how influential is culture to the students’ learning. Barsch Learning Styles Inventory (BLSI) was employed as an instrument for 73 respondents. The results showed that more than 50% of respondents prefer visual mode, and the remaining were auditory learners, kinesthetic, and bimodal learners who combine visual and auditory modes in learning English. This might be affected by the culture of Indonesian learners that, in general, are accustomed to listening and reading instead of giving spaces to practice knowledge. Understanding the styles of learning can be very useful for the students to learn in the way they learn best through the activities. It will enable them to understand the course contents more comfortably so it can improve their motivation and language abilities, enjoy the learning process, decrease stress, and eventually get better achievement.

Keywords: auditory, bimodal, Barsch Learning Styles Inventory, culture, kinesthetic, learning styles, visual

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Introduction

Learning styles contribute to the success of language learning. This statement is not overrated since students learn best by seeing how vital the information presented in the classroom and how valuable the materials for them. If there is no interest in the material, there will be no learning process occurs. As stated by Gilakjani (2012), achieving the ultimate goal of student learning needs a combination of teaching methods and ways to make the classroom environment as stimulating and interactive as possible. There are many factors affecting learners’ success in language learning. The general factors that affect language learning are age, aptitude and intelligence, cognitive style, attitudes, motivation and personality (Ellis, 2008). In addition, learning strategies and learning styles also help to succeed in language learning.

Learning style is one of the factors affecting language learning. Steward and Felicetti (1992, as cited in Asiry, 2016, p.1) state that learning style is those educational conditions under which students are most likely to learn. Learning a foreign language is actually not very easy. It needs strategies to cope with the learning processes. Some learners might be successful and some of them might be unsuccessful. Successful learners might be able to find many strategies that are beneficial so they can deal with their weaknesses and they can take advantage of their strengths. On the other hand, unsuccessful learners might not recognize the problems they have or evaluate their weaknesses in learning. Thus, a learner should have awareness and knowledge about their learning style.

In taking information, everyone has preferences in how they learn best. To help all students learn, teachers need to teach as many of these preferences as possible (Oxford, 2003). It needs to be considered that students learn in many different ways. Some students are visual learners, while others are auditory. Visual learners learn visually by means of charts, graphs, and pictures. Meanwhile, auditory learners learn by listening to lectures and reading. Kinaesthetic learners learn by doing. Students can prefer one, two, or three learning styles. Due to these different learning styles, teachers need to incorporate in their curriculum activities related to each of these learning styles so that all students are able to succeed in their classes.

Some studies in this field have been conducted. Gilakjani (2012) investigated language learning styles used by the students majoring in English Translation at the Islamic Azad University of Lahijan in Iran and its impact on English Language Teaching. His study revealed that mostly the students preferred the visual learning style. They who preferred this learning style had the highest academic achievement in their educational major. In addition, teachers needed to know the students’ learning styles, therefore teachers could help the students learn more effectively. Furthermore, Phantharakphong (2012) examined language learning styles and the relation of high and low-performance of the Faculty of Education at Khon Kaen University in Thailand. His study revealed that high-performance students preferred kinesthetic learning styles, while low-performance students preferred multimodal learning styles. High-performance students thought that practicing or doing the activities helped them understand the contents more than remembering. Taking action also was similar to practicing four English skills. Thus, they could get high scores in English learning. On the other hand, low-performance students preferred multimodal since they liked to do various activities.
This paper discusses the learning styles used by the first-year students of the English Department Universitas Brawijaya. The freshmen in this department are exposed to English as the medium of instruction in the classroom. They are urged to speak English in class, and eventually, they are expected to master English. Thus, it is vital for the students to be aware of their learning styles because by doing so, it can help them to prepare some strategies to succeed in their study. Moreover, Barsch Learning Style Inventory questionnaire was used as the survey tool to collect the data. Meanwhile, DePorter & Hernacki’s (2009) theory was used to explain deeper about learning styles.

**Literature Review**

*Definition of Learning Styles*

Learning styles may be defined in many ways. Reid (1995) states learning style is an individual’s natural, habitual and preferred ways of absorbing, processing and retaining new information and skill. He adds that learning styles have been used as a focus for assisting students in higher education to realize their full learning potential. Brown (2000) defines learning styles as the manner in which individuals perceive and process information in learning situations. He argues that learning style preference is one aspect of learning style, and refers to the choice of one learning situation or condition over another. In addition, Larkin and Budny (2005) mention that learning style is a biologically and developmentally imposed set of personal characteristics that make the same teaching and learning methods effective for some and ineffective for others. Celce-Murcia (2001) defines learning styles as the general approaches—for example, global or analytic, auditory or visual—that students use in acquiring a new language or in learning any other subject. The manner in which a learner perceives interacts with and responds to the learning environment. Learning style is sometimes defined as the characteristic cognitive, affective, social, and physiological behaviors that serve as relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment (MacKeracher, 2004).

**General Learning Styles**

There are three main learning styles; visual, auditory, and kinesthetic (DePorter & Hernacki, 2009). The definitions of these learning styles are as follows:

a. **Visual Learners**

These learners are learning best through a visual channel such as images, bulletin boards, videos, and movies. They depend on the teacher’s nonverbal cues such as body language and facial expression to help with understanding. They sometimes preferred to sit in front of the classroom to avoid visual obstructions. They also like to take descriptive notes when the material is presented by the instruction, so they can absorb the maximal information. Visual learners also like to read a lot, which requires concentration and time spent alone.

b. **Auditory Learners**

Learners who have auditory learning styles are the ones who absorb the material through verbal lectures, discussions, group work, and conversations through listening to what others say. They discover information through listening and interpreting information through listening to the tone of pitch, voice, emphasis, and speed. They have a weakness in which they cannot absorb well to written information; however, these learners are best when they are reading the text out loud in
Learning Styles of Indonesian EFL Students: Culture and Learning

Manipuspika

the classroom. Therefore, written information is not a good choice to teach them. These students typically require only oral directions.

c. Kinesthetic Learners

Kinesthetic learners are the best learning through a “hands-on” approach. They like to make physical movement and interaction. Therefore, they are very active, and they may feel hard to sit for an extended period in the classroom and doing nothing. They imply total physical involvement with a learning environment such as taking a field trip, dramatizing, pantomiming, or interviewing. When remembering something, they like to walk around and when reading the book, they like to use the index finger. Most of the kinesthetic learners have a difficult time staying on target and become unfocused effortlessly.

Learning style is vital for many reasons; however, there are three vital ones. First, since everyone is in nature different from one another, people’s learning styles will vary. Second, it offers the opportunity to teach by using a wide range of methods in an effective way. Sticking to just one model unthinkingly will create a monotonous learning environment, so not everyone will enjoy the lesson. Third, teachers can manage many things in education and communication if they really recognize the groups they deal with. Of course, knowing every detail is not possible; however, being aware of students’ learning styles, psychological qualities, and motivational differences will help teachers regulate the lessons appropriately and according to the conditions (Coffield, Moseley, Hall & Ecclestone, 2004).

Previous Studies

Many scholars have conducted studies dealing with learning styles. Gilakjani (2012) from the English Language Department, Islamic Azad University; Lahijan, Iran was one of them. He analyzed learning style which was preferred by 100 EFL university students in Language Translation Department majoring in English Translation. The participants consist of 60 female and 40 male students between 23 and 28 years old. The purpose of the research was to determine which of the three types of learning styles (visual, auditory and kinesthetic) was preferred. The Perceptual Learning Style Preferences Questionnaire (PLSPQ) developed by Reid (1987) was chosen as the survey tool in this research. Through the process of the test, it was indicated that 50% of Iranian EFL University students preferred the visual learning style, 35% preferred auditory learning style, and 15 % preferred kinesthetic style for learning. Based on the finding of this previous study, it can be stated that EFL University Students of Azad University of Lahijan, Iran majoring in English Translation preferred learning through visual learning style, and the students who chose this style also got the highest academic achievement in their educational major.

Another study by Kharb, Samanta, Jindal & Singh (2013) took participation from the medical students in the School of Medical Sciences and Research, Sharda University, Greater Noida, India. The participants were totally 180 and they came from the first and seventh semesters. Visual, Auditory, Read/Write and Kinesthetic (VARK) Inventory distributed to the participants to determine their learning style. The result revealed that the most preferred unimodal instructional style of the first semester students was auditory, and that of seventh-semester students was kinesthetic. In relation to gender in both semesters, female students preferred auditory mode of learning style as compared to male students who preferred kinesthetic mode.
Method

Research Design
This study employed a descriptive qualitative approach while incorporating numbers in the form of percentages. Maxwell (2010) states quantitative data can help researchers to identify patterns that are not apparent simply from the unquantified qualitative data, or even to participants, and it may adequately present evidence for the interpretations. The data that has been collected in the form of numbers is then calculated into a percentage to be then explained descriptively.

Participants
This research was conducted in the Faculty of Cultural Studies at Universitas Brawijaya, Malang, Indonesia. The data were collected from the Barsch Learning Styles Inventory (BLSI) questionnaire filled by the first-year students majoring in English. The participants were the 2016/2017 academic year students of the English Department, so they are freshmen in the time this study was conducted.

Research Instrument
Barsch Learning Styles Inventory (BLSI), which is a questionnaire developed by Jeffrey Barsch was used as the instrument for collecting data. There are 24 statements provided in this questionnaire about the way students learn English. The statement in number 1, 5, 8, 11, 13, 18, 21, 24 represents auditory learning style. The statement in number 4, 6, 9, 12, 15, 17, 19, 23 represents a kinesthetic learning style. The statement in number 2, 3, 7, 10, 14, 16, 20, 22 represents a visual learning style. The statements indicate a visual learning style such as “like to write things down or takes notes for a visual review”, “can understand and follow directions through maps”, “feel the best way to remember is to picture it on your head” and so on. While the statements indicate auditory learning style, for instance “can remember more about a subject through listening than reading”, “require explanations of the diagram, graphs, or visual direction”, “can tell if sounds match when presented pairs of sounds” and soon. Moreover, the statements indicate kinesthetic learning style are like “bear down extremely hard with a pen or pencil when writing”, “enjoy working with tools” and “play with coins or key in the pocket”.

The measurements of this questionnaire were concluded 5 points for answering often, 3 points for answering sometimes, and 1 point for answering seldom. The measurement showed the students’ preferences for learning style. Then, all the points were summed up to get the result. The learning type which got the highest total point, it would be the learning type that the students preferred to use.

The reasons underlying the choice of this questionnaire are because this questionnaire is one of the quick assessments and it is related to DePorter & Hernacki’s (2009) theory in classifying the types of learning styles.

Data Collection
To collect the data, the following steps were taken: First, BLSI questionnaire was distributed to the students. They are given an explanation about the purpose of the study and then are asked to fill it insincerely and honestly according to their own experience of learning English. The researcher emphasized that the questionnaire would not change or affect their academic report.
**Data Analysis**

After the data were collected, the steps of analyzing data were as follows: firstly, each statement was converted into a number because every statement has different points: 5 points for often, 3 points for sometimes, and 1 point for seldom. The next step was calculating the points from each category to get the total point. From the total point, the highest point would be the preferences. This would be the type of learning style which was used by the participant. After the quantitative was ready, it was then described and discussed.

**Findings and Discussion**

The findings are to provide the answers which are related to the research problems. After distributing the BLSI questionnaire to the participants, the students’ learning style preferences were identified. The inventory was classified into three categories, namely visual, auditory, and kinesthetic. The measurements of this questionnaire were 5 points for often, 3 points for sometimes, and 1 point for seldom. The highest score from the questionnaire would be the learning style which was preferred by them. Therefore, they learned the best with the learning style they desired to use.

Table 1. Students’ learning preferences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Learning Preferences</th>
<th>Students</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Visual</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>61.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Auditory</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>24.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kinesthetic</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bimodal</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 provides the calculation of students’ learning preferences. There were only 73 students returned the questionnaire sheet. It can be seen from the table that the majority of students prefer visual learning (61.7%). The highest scored statement was number 22 “I obtain information on an interesting subject by reading relevant materials”. Meanwhile, the lowest scored statement was number 7 “I am skillful with and enjoy developing and making graphs and charts”. The second learning style preference favored by the students was auditory. Of 73 students, 24.6% preferred to use auditory styles in their learning. In auditory mode, there was a statement that got the highest point, which is number 13 “I learn to spell better by repeating the letters out loud than by writing the word on paper”. Meanwhile, the lowest point went to statement number 21 “I prefer listening to the news on the radio rather than reading about it in a newspaper”. The third learning style preference favored by the students was kinesthetic. In kinesthetic mode, there were 5.5% of the students who preferred it as their learning style. The statement taking the highest score was number 9 stating “I remember best by writing things down several times”, while the ones having lowest point were number 12 (I play with coins or keys in pocket) and 19 (I am good at solving and working on jigsaw puzzles and mazes). Finally, 8.2% of the students were apparently bimodal if seen from the results of the questionnaire, and this number outweighs kinesthetic learners. Bimodal learners displayed equal numbers in their visual and auditory mode results.

**Discussion**

The research finding displayed four learning style preferences used by the freshmen of English Department Universitas Brawijaya Malang, namely visual, auditory, kinesthetic and bimodal. It
can be seen from the total number of participants who favor each learning style, 45 students were visual, 18 students were auditory, 6 students were bimodal and four students were kinesthetic. It shows that individuals are unique because they have their own preference in learning English. Besides, an individual also has a different ability to understand materials, to be taught on the way they learn best, and to face obstacles in learning.

There were 67 students who prefer one type of learning style and there were 6 students preferred to learn in bimodal type. The variety of learning styles indicated that the learning preference of each individual was the result of their customs and culture; it is biologically innate, and it is related to personality so each individual possesses different learning styles. There are certain things that cannot be changed in a person no matter how hard they force themselves to practice, but there are also things that can be practiced and adapted to the environment, but it cannot be changed (Susilo, 2009). Thus, learning style cannot be changed, but it can be used to the maximum potential to increase someone’s ability by doing activities that are related to the preferences. Different learning style also leads to different needs of a learner.

It is stated by DePorter & Hernacki (2009) that someone basically possesses the three types of learning style, however, he or she has the most dominant mode. In this mode, it can be easier to receive information when learning. Students should prepare themselves to face any learning conditions. The habits of learners might also be influential, yet learners should be able to adapt to their environment, situation, and especially the technique which is used by the lecturers in the classroom. Furthermore, the success of the learning process can be measured from the evaluation of students’ understanding of a course. Learning process is categorized successfully if the lecturer provides the needs of his students. Ideally, the material should be delivered by adjusting to students’ preferences. The lecturer can guide the students to learn the way they learn the best. So, all things can be done to support the learning process and it goes in the same direction which is to establish a condition where the learning process is mutually beneficial.

It is also shown by the data finding that the most dominant type of learning style used by the participants was visual mode (61.7%). It means that the participants prefer to learn by using visual channels such as pictures, videos, presentations, and magazines. They are interested in following written instruction and they like to spend their time and read as much as they need. Visual learning style might become the most dominant type since this is a modern era where everything is made to help people’s life easier and more practical. The effect of it can be found in educational institutions. The technology is used to make the lecture process to be efficient.

It also happened to the English Department students, where almost all their lectures have used multimedia such as powerpoint in the learning process. In the classroom, they are also facilitated by visual media such as LCD projectors. Thus, the lecturer should prepare an interesting powerpoint or use videos and play a movie. Thus, visual learners are interested to see the material so they would be easier to receive the material, since the most dominant learner are visuals. This is in line with DePorter & Hernacki’s (2009) statement assuming that visual learners are very sensitive to see colors, pictures, videos because they like to make visualization in their mind so it helps them to remember something better. Visual learners also like to take descriptive notes while their lecturer explains materials. It is because they are not good to follow verbal instruction while
they like to take notes so they can read any time since spending time to read books also favored by them. For the participants in this study, visions take a vital role that should be employed because it can help them to establish their understanding of the material. They can learn better from everything that they have seen and it makes them easier to absorb information. Furthermore, from a statement in the questionnaire “I obtain information on an interesting subject by reading relevant materials” that got the highest point showed that visual learners mostly liked to read materials rather than, probably, to listen to it. Since it was the highest point from all statements that indicated visual activities, it means that visual learners in this study often do the activity in the learning process.

The finding was related to DePorter & Hernacki’s (2009) that visual learners liked to spend their time to read a lot and they were better to follow written instruction since they were not good in following verbal instruction. Moreover, the statement “I am skillful with and enjoy developing and making graphs and charts” got the lowest points from all the statements that indicated visual activities in the questionnaire. It might happen because they did not learn by using graphs or charts. Graphs, charts, diagrams were usually found in something which was quantitative or numeric; however, in the English Department, Universitas Brawijaya, the materials were mostly not about numbers and statistics. Therefore, this statement had the lowest points since they did not really often deal with this activity. The result of this research was in line with the findings of Gilakjani (2012) who reported that the visual learning style got the first place as students’ preferences. He observed Iranian learners of English Department Faculty majoring in the Language Department were mostly visual learners. The result might be similar because English was used as the main tool for communication of each department.

Next, there was an auditory learning style that got the second largest number of participants. There were 18 students (24.6%) who favored this mode. The auditory learners like listening to the audio, speaking about their opinion, involving in a discussion and debating since ears take a vital role in the success of their learning. Auditory learning style may get the second place as the dominant learning style because the students like to have a discussion. The questionnaire result showed that auditory learners thought of having a discussion in class, they could share opinions, give comments or suggestions about the current related topics to their subject so it was very effective. It was in accordance with DePorter & Hernacki’s (2009) theory that auditory learners are those who learned best through discussion or debate. Their strengths are in verbal communication; however, they do not prefer written instruction because they are not good in understanding it. Moreover, listening and speaking skills could not be separated from mastering English. Those are the two fundamental skills in language learning. When they are learning English, they should be able to deal with listening in which, for some students, is quite challenging. Nonetheless, auditory learners enjoy listening and speaking. They can listen to the different tone, pitch, voice, emphasis, and sound. Yet, they are very easy to be disturbed by noise and it is able to make them lose their focus. To establish a proper environment, they should learn without any noise that can disturb them.

This present research also revealed the statements which showed auditory activities used by the auditory learners. Statement number 13 got the highest points while statements 21 got the lowest point. The statement in number 13 was “I learn to spell better by repeating the letters out
loud than by writing the word on paper” while the statement number 21 was “I prefer listening to
the news on the radio rather than reading about it in a newspaper”. From the highest point of the
statements, it can be said that auditory learners liked to have verbal activities. They had the power
of listening and they can understand better if the material presented by verbal explanation. It is
related to the theory since it stated that auditory learners like to listen. Therefore, verbal
explanation, discussing, debating are the teaching methods that could be used to teach them.
However, the lowest point indicated that the reading is not so preferable for them. The auditory
learners preferred lectures through discussion or verbal explanation from the lecturer. They would
feel comfortable listening to the explanation, even they should read books. Because their lecturer
also taught them through verbal explanation, it was very beneficial to auditory learners. It was
related to the lecturer’s method of learning, so they could learn best to support their needs.

With regard to the kinesthetic mode which was the least frequent preference, there were only
4 students (5.5%) who chose this mode of learning. It might happen because of some reason. First,
learning by doing is not Indonesian culture. Indonesian learners, in general, have habits such as
sitting then listening, and reading instead of giving some spaces to involve us to practice anything
to apply our knowledge. Whereas, kinesthetic learners are those who need to do physical
movement to make them easier to remember something. They are very active and sensitive to
touch. Thus, they like to do field trips, study tours, role-playing, and drama. Second, being a
kinesthetic learner need more power. They need power to be able to do the physical movement.
When reading, they like to make a movement, such as walking around instead of sitting for a long
period of time, so they will not end up in boredom. From the data collected from the questionnaire,
kinesthetic learners mostly liked to write many times and they also liked to have physical
movement and touch. Since the statements “I remember best by writing things down several times”
was the statement that had the highest points, it could be said that kinesthetic learners frequently
do those activities while learning. They might better understand if they do it. They liked to do the
physical movement, such as touching something real, and they also enjoyed writing the materials
several times because it made them make a movement.

This finding was related to the theory since it is stated that kinesthetic learners are those who
like to do physical movement and very sensitive about touching. They learned better if they were
learning while doing physical movement at the same time. In contrast, Phantharakphong (2012) in
her findings revealed that kinesthetic style was the most learning styles preferred by the
participants. She investigated the learning style used by the students of the Faculty of Education
at Khon Kaen University, Thailand. She found the students mostly favored kinesthetic style
because they preferred doing activities in class with real experiences. Her participants thought that
learning by doing would be sustainable learning and they could apply it in the future. They also
did not like it when the lecturer taught by using the lecturing method without practicing. By
practicing they could improve four English skills (speaking, listening, reading, and writing).
Moreover, students in that faculty were preparing themselves to be a teacher in the future so they
should extend their exercise so they will be more confident to teach their future students.

The last type of learning style that could be found was the bimodal mode. There were six
students (8.2%) indicated as bimodal learners. These learners combined both visual and auditory
mode in learning, and in the calculation, both modes got the same total points. Bimodal learners
were unique because they were able to use both of their vision and ears to receive information. In addition, they can gain advantages through the combination of both visual and auditory abilities to be able to admit the lecturer’s teaching method in every situation. Presentation and verbal explanation cannot be separated from the learning process because it was the primary tool used by the lecturer to transfer knowledge to the students. While the lecturer does a presentation, the bimodal could focus on the power point, using their vision to see the material presented. Then, to help them memorize it better, taking a descriptive note would be a vital part. When taking notes, they should listen to the voice so they are able to write all the necessary words. On the other hand, if the lecturer asks them to have a discussion in class, they could use their auditory mode which deals with verbal communication. Hence, they should be aware when they use their vision and when they use their speaking ability.

Some of the students might be bimodal learners due to their future orientation of jobs. Having good proficiency in reading, listening, and speaking, they are able to have a job related to their study or may have a better job. Nevertheless, bimodal learners might not always use visual and auditory styles in every learning process. Based on the results of the questionnaires, bimodal learners were good to understand maps, they liked to picture something in their mind, as well as to read relevant materials. Moreover, in auditory activities, they mostly liked to listen to their lecturers’ explanation and listen to the audio to get a better understanding. In addition, bimodal learners also liked to read materials out loud than writing words in a paper and liked to listen to the verbal explanation. So, it could be seen that bimodal learners really combined both of visual and auditory activities in learning to help them to receive materials easier.

Kharb, et.al’s (2013) research revealed a comparable result. They assumed that the bimodal type which mostly favored by the first-year students was auditory kinesthetic. The data were taken from Medical students at the School of Medical Sciences and Research, Great Noida. The result might be different since the object of the study was different. In this current research, the data collected from the first-year students of English Program students. Medical students might use auditory kinesthetic due to their needs. They should gather information from the lecture, tutorial, and listening. It means they must listen very well to their tutor when the tutor gave an explanation about what they would do in the laboratory later. They had much time to practice and focused on it because in the future, their job required them to do direct practice, so they must practice it by themselves. In contrast, the bimodal mode found in this department was visual auditory. It might occur as a result of teaching methods because the lecture was presented in the form of presentation, discussion, debating, and video watching.

Conclusion
As has been discussed in the discussion, all three types of learning styles were used by the freshmen of the English Department, Universitas Brawijaya. Visual is the most dominant mode, followed by auditory and kinesthetic modes. Some students were also identified as bimodal learners since they combined two learning styles namely visual and auditory. To sum up, every participant had their own learning style to learn English. The activities related to their preferences can help them to absorb and understand the material better. Recommendations are made for students to maximize their potential in learning by using the strategies related to their learning style preferences. The students can face any teaching method that is used by lecturers also any learning environment if
they prepare themselves by knowing their strengths and the strategies that they could use. It can be very useful for them to learn the way they learn best through the activities that enhance them to understand the material easier, so it can improve their motivation, language abilities, enjoy the learning process, decrease stress, and then get the better achievement. In addition, lecturers in the Department were suggested to develop effective teaching methods to enhance the process of learning. By understanding their students’ learning preferences, the lecturers can create enjoyable and effective teaching.

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References


Enhancing EFL learners’ English Proficiency and Intelligence by implementing The Eclectic Method of Language Teaching

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Abstract:
This paper enlightens the significance of learner-centered approaches to language teaching. In an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) class, a teacher should adopt a specific teaching style to accomplish teaching goals. This study is an attempt to analyze and ascertaining the general principles and techniques of teaching EFL. The principal aim of the study is to highlight the needs of the learners and help the teachers to achieve their teaching goals with the planned learning outcome. The Eclectic Method of language teaching was introduced in the class to improve the communication skills and the academic performance of the learners. The Eclectic Method was pioneered in 1970 and gradually became very popular in English as a Second Language (ESL) and EFL classrooms. The Eclectic Method is a fusion of distinctive techniques of teaching and language learning approaches. This Method enables the language teachers to make it to all the learners despite the heterogeneity in their learning styles and intelligence. The author has used a Mixed Method Approach. The target group is female undergraduate students in the College of Science for Girls, King Khalid University, Abha, Kingdom of Saudi Arabia (KSA). After implementing an Eclectic Method in the language classroom, the author finds that it helps in blending multiple activities of language learning. It allows students to receive individual attention amid a populated class. It further makes the students feel more motivated and confident. The result of the study prompted that the learners have improved significantly in all the four skills: Listening, Speaking, Reading and Writing (LSRW) of language learning. The study signifies that the Eclectic Method works productively for every level of learners and makes learning easy and ingenious. The best part of this method is the teacher can design his/her own teaching techniques based on the Proficiency and the competency of the learners to make learning more effective.

Keywords: critical thinking skills, eclectic method, English proficiency, learner centeredness, needs analysis

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1. Introduction:
The Last 20 years have seen phenomenal growth in the demand for English in higher education and professional fields, respectively. With the fastest change in English Language Teaching (ELT) theory and practice, there has been a radical shift in approaches to ESL pedagogy, where we perceive language as a communication tool. This shift has brought in new ideas of teaching the English Language. There has been widespread dissatisfaction expressed by various language teachers and learners regarding the effectiveness of multiple Approaches or Methods. Hence, the demand for this Method emerges because it could motivate learners and proved to be exciting and compelling.

The prime concern of this article is to critically investigate the proficiency and intelligence of teaching English to Science Undergraduates through the Eclectic Method. Language teaching or learning comprises of four different skills LSRW. A language teacher needs to choose an appropriate method to teach each skill effectively. To date, various approaches came into practice in language teaching. Every single technique has its own merits and demerits. The failure of one existing process leads to the emergence of a new one. This study gives a brief review of various language teaching methods and throws light on the Eclectic Method in detail and how it is different from other methods. It further focuses on how the Eclectic process helps in accomplishing the main objectives of language learning. The author has applied the Mixed Method Approach and the study group comprises of first level of female undergraduate students of King Khalid University, Abha, KSA. The whole study was carried out based on classroom observations and experiences. Through classroom observation, the author has observed four prime factors that affect teaching and learning. Then to cope with the problems, the author has applied Eclectic Method in education. Finally, to find out the effectiveness of Eclectic Method students, assessment sheets were analyzed and interpreted.

2. Objectives of the Study:
   a. This study is an attempt to analyze and ascertain the general principles and techniques of teaching EFL.
   b. The intention of the research is to highlight the needs of the learners and help the teachers to teach them to good effect.
   c. It throws light on the benefits of using the Eclectic Method in Language classroom.
   d. This work focuses on the best possible ways to motivate students to learn English.
   e. The author has also discussed various classroom strategies to make language learning easier.

3. Statement of Intent:
This study particularly examines English language classroom of Science Undergraduate at King Khalid University, Abha, KSA. While teaching several problems were identified in the learning process, and these problems were hindering the student’s accomplishments.

One of the major problems was the size of the class; it is a large classroom of around 50 students comprising a heterogeneous group. Large classroom affects the learning process (Halim, Wahid, Halim & Farooq, 2019). Some are already very good in general English, and they tend to excel, whereas the average lot has a little basic knowledge of English, and some are true beginners.
second problem is the time constraint, a limited period of 12 to 15 weeks of instruction throughout the semester is not enough to teach language productively. The third problem is the lack of motivation within the students. Few students want to work hard and learn whereas an average lot is with a notion that English is not their prime subject, it is a part of the foundation course, and they are just persuading it to complete their B.S. course. This lack of motivation is possible due to a lack of career orientation. They are even unaware of the fact that they are going to need English knowledge if they want to pursue higher education. And finally, a significant communication gap was felt between teachers and students. Due to communication issues, they don’t want to communicate with their teachers. They do not even feel comfortable interacting in the class, which leads to boredom, causing distraction.

Hence after experiencing such problems, the researcher decided to apply the Eclectic Method. The author has implemented various versatile language teaching strategies to create a learner-centered classroom. It further helps to teach a big class within the limited period, focusing on all the four skills of language learning.

4. **Significance of the Study:**
This paper enlightens the importance of the Eclectic Method in English Language Teaching. The Eclectic Method is a blend of different methods and approaches. In an EFL classroom, a teacher should have a teaching style to accomplish teaching goals. Hence, this study may be beneficial to the language teachers in a way that they can apply the Eclectic Method of teaching to enhance communication skills and the academic performance of the learners.

5. **Various Language teaching methods: a review.**
There are various methods that work for ELT purpose, and each Method has its strengths and limitations. There is no single method that is perfect for different types of students in an EFL classroom. The failure of one way led to the emergence of the new one. Every Method is unique on its own, but with its exclusive advantages or disadvantages in implementing it.

The oldest of all is the Grammar Translation Method, a traditional teaching technique which was established during the 16th century to teach Latin and Greek. The prime objective was to teach grammar-translation of texts and vocabulary through rote learning. According to Richards and Rodgers (2001), the prime focus of the Method is reading and writing, and grammar teaching method is deductive. It is a teacher-centered approach and focuses on reading and writing skills and very little emphasis was given on speaking and listening. It’s an age-old method and was in practice until long.

At the end of the 19th century emerged the Direct Method. In the Direct Method, the goal was to enable students to communicate in a target language. The use of First Language (L1) was not allowed in the classroom. Grammar teaching method was inductive. In this Method, there was a focus on oral communication. Vocabulary acquisition was through the learning of word lists, and self-correction was encouraged. (Larsen-Freeman, 2004).

At the end of the 1950s originated Audio-lingual Method. This Method viewed language learning as a process of acquiring habits. The basis of Audio-lingual lessons was dialogues and
drills. The main emphasis of this Method was correction of pronunciation, stress, rhythm, and intonation. The learners learnt the target language through habit formation. In the late 1960s, this Method was opposed by various critics on the grounds of language as habit formation. As Chomsky (1966) asserted, “language is not a habit structure. An ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, the formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy” (p. 153).

The structural approach to English views the language as being divided into several components; these components interact with each other and form the rules of the word. This approach gives more importance to grammar than vocabulary. This approach enables students to learn through context.

Gorgi Lozanov developed another method termed as Suggestopedia. As asserted by Richards and Rodgers (1986): this Method viewed that a learner could learn a language only when he/she receives productively and has no mental barriers. The prime objective of this method was to gain conversational Proficiency by using a list of vocabulary items.

Total Physical Response is another method that attempts “to teach language through physical activity” (Richards and Rodgers, 2001: 87). The prime aim of this Method was to teach communication, the focus was on teaching basic speaking skills by using imperative drills. Students will learn how to respond physically to basic instructions like “open your book,” “turn to page 20”.

Another prevalent and much-used method came into practice in the late 1960s, which is known as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). The foremost target of this Method is to gain communicative Proficiency. This Method focuses on learning to communicate in the target language by using language in real-life situations. Fluency was given much importance as compared to accuracy.

The Silent Way: Caleb Galtheno (1972) developed this Method. Here the teacher speaks less, and the students were allowed to talk in a target language as much as possible. In this Method, the focus was on structure, and the prime aim was to make the learners acquire a near-native fluency and pronunciation.

Community Language Learning (CLL): In this Method, the role of the teacher is that of a counselor who assists the students and suggests them however, the learners are the ones, in the end, to decide what to learn. In this Method, there is a complete bonding between teachers and students, which allows active learning. It involves peer learning and the total participation of learners in the classroom.

In the late 19th century evolved another unusual method termed as Immersion. The main aim of this Method was to promote bilingualism, and the learning method focuses on the development of communicative competence in learners. Second Language (L2) was used as a medium of instruction to teach other subjects like science, or social science.
Task-based learning: Task-based learning involves completion of a task; the learner uses the target language to complete the job and acquires the knowledge of the language while doing the job. The teacher acts as a delegator and guides the students in accomplishing the task.

Natural Approach: Away from other methods and approaches, there emerged a new one, termed as Natural Approach. It distinguished from the earlier methods in the sense that it focuses on the use of language and gives importance to vocabulary over the structure. This approach views that the second language learning process is like the process of native language acquisition.

Michael Lewis (1993) suggested a new Method termed as Lexical Syllabus. The main objective of this approach was to teach lexical phrases, and it focused on the instruction of fixed expressions that occur frequently in dialogues. In this approach, the language was taught basically through authentic materials.

So, many methods and approaches appeared one after another, trying to overcome the flaws of their earlier ones. Still, none proved to be complete or useful in teaching ESL or EFL learners efficiently. According to Nunan (1991):

“It has been realized that there never was and probably never will be a method for all, and the focus in recent years has been on the development of classroom tasks and activities which are constant with what we know about second language acquisition, and which are also in keeping with the dynamics of the classroom itself“ (p.228).

English has become globally significant. It is a language of academics, power, and profession. There is no single method that has proved successful when it comes to learning complete English. As asserted by Li (2012):

“There is no single method which could guarantee successful results. We have to take an Eclectic view in the previous methods according to learners’ needs and objectives. Before we design concrete techniques, we should make it clear what language is and what factors facilitate learning” (p.168).

Hence emerged a new method termed as Eclectic Method. This Method gained popularity and it is used by most of the language teachers.

6. What is the Eclectic Method?
Eclectic Method is a blend of different methods and approaches used to teach language based on the needs and aims of the learners. The Eclectic Method established at the beginning of the 1970s, and gradually, it became prevalent in language teaching. According to Floresar, (2008), the Eclectic Method is a combination of different learning approaches (as cited in Jebiwot, Chebet, & Kipkemboi, 2016). There is no specific approach or language teaching theory in Eclectic Method. Various teaching methods are borrowed from different language teaching methodologies and are inherited to suit the needs of the learners. As for Larsen and Freeman (2000), “when teachers who subscribe to the pluralistic view of methods pick and choose from among methods to create their blend, their practice is said to be eclectic” (p.183).
The teacher acts as a moderator; he or she must first analyze the needs of the learners and depending on that, they must choose effective strategies to teach a target language. As mentioned by Rivers (1981), an Eclectic approach permits language teachers to draw up the best techniques and strategies of all the popular language teaching methods into their teaching process and use them for the purposes which are the most suitable ones. Language is an integrated whole, and it is impossible to teach it in isolation. Language teaching means teaching of listening, speaking, reading, writing, grammar, and vocabulary as one single unit. We cannot separate it into bits and parts. As asserted by Kumar (2013), “language should not be separated into chunks like pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary” (p.1). He further mentioned Eclectic Method is the best-suited Method that makes use of various techniques, approaches, activities, and strategies to help the students learn English as a whole.

The application of multiple approaches and strategies makes the Eclectic Method more learner-centered and helps learners to gain both accuracy and fluency. By implementing the Eclectic Method, a teacher becomes aware of which approach or Method is ideal for the learners and chooses the instrumental ones to benefit the learners. Apart from being dynamic, the Eclectic Method appears to be very authentic in EFL classrooms as it makes the learning existent. The teacher’s role here is that of a facilitator and a delegator. It bridges the communication gap between the teachers and the learners. The teacher’s responsibility also lies in creating an environment that is friendly enough for the students to learn a foreign language. (Jabeen, 2019). This Method makes the students feel motivated and learning simple, smooth, and boisterous. Eclectic Method leaves a lasting impact on learning. It engages the learners, helps to build language competence and intelligence, boosts their knowledge of language use in real-life situations, and finally develops the learner’s personality and self-confidence.

7. Research Methodology:
This research is primarily a Mixed Method Approach followed by the researcher’s classroom observations and quantitative data, to obtain specific information in a short period. The quantitative data analysis permitted the researcher to analyze and interpret the student’s improvement in the given situation using the Eclectic Method in the EFL classroom. The actual time frame of this research work is one semester or a total of 15 instructional weeks with eight contact hours per week.

The target group of this study was chosen randomly out of the two sections, which the researcher was teaching that semester as a routine instruction system. The target group consisted of 58 students who were the first-level Science Undergraduates. Their English course, which is named the Intensive English Program, is a part of the foundation course which they need to study to complete their graduation level. It was, however, a heterogeneous group with mixed ability where some were true beginners, and others were average or advanced. The first two weeks were of complete observation to identify the individual needs of the learners and investigate their problems and issues related to English Language Learning. Based on this observation and experience various teaching activities directed towards those issues and learning styles were being designed. Later, students’ assessment sheets in the form of Progress Tests were analyzed and interpreted. To receive the most compatible data, the researcher completed the whole research in the language classroom of the college campus.
The study hypothesized that the Eclectic Method of language learning elevates the teaching process and improves learners’ English proficiency. The earlier language teaching methods or approaches were not suitable enough to help the learners acquire communicative competence or language proficiency. Whereas the Eclectic Method is a complete blend of all the strategies which helped the teachers teach and the learners learn effectively.

8. Various activities and strategies based on the Eclectic Approach, used to teach the target group are:

8.1 Explanation/ Interpretation
This technique was mainly employed to teach grammar inductively, which is a part of the Direct Method of Language Teaching. The learners could notice and identify the structure through examples and then acquire the rules later.

Example: Teaching Simple present tense.
- I like chocolates
- They like chocolates
- We like chocolates.
- My parents like chocolates.
- He likes chocolates.
- She likes chocolates.
- Tom likes chocolates.

The teacher asked the students to recognize the variances in using ‘like’ and ‘likes.’ Then the rules of using simple present tense were explained, and further taught them subject-verb agreement.

8.2 Peer work
It is a task-based approach which implies to teach writing to the students. The students were divided into three groups, and one promising student is assigned to each group to monitor effectively, the groups were allowed to choose a topic of their choice (e.g., “My country” or “How to plan a class party”) and were asked to write an essay. While doing the task, it made active participation of the individual learners. The teacher acts as a facilitator here. While completing the task the students learned sentence structure, use of capitalization and punctuation.

8.3 Simulations and games
Activities and games like “just a minute” were carried out in the class to encourage speaking. The teacher asked the students instantly to choose any topic (e.g., the weather today, my classroom, my hobby), and talk on it for a minute. The teacher presented some photos of a landscape or any personality to them and asked to describe the picture. This Method was very effective and helped to develop confidence in the learners to speak in a target language.

8.4 Listen–repeat-listen-repeat strategy
The basis of this strategy was, the Communicative Language Teaching Method. The learners were first allowed to listen to the teacher, take note of how the teacher articulated a sound, then they were asked to repeat after. This strategy is an effective one to teach correct pronunciation, it is basically to teach skills like word stress, syllables, and intonation.
8.5 Interactive sessions:
To promote learning there were some out–class activities. This activity is designed based on both the Natural Approach and Task-based Approach of Language teaching. At times students could visit the college library and read authentic texts such as a magazine or newspapers in English. Then they were asked to return to the class and present an oral report of what they have read. It developed the learners’ skimming and scanning skills of reading text. This technique was fun and helped to improve their reading skills. It further gave room to learn new words and vocabulary and enabled them to use terms in context.

8.6 Using Audiovisual aids
The teacher used Audiovisual aids to warm up the students. Some videos on the related topic were shown to the students at the beginning of the session to grab their attention. This activity was not a mere warm-up but also introduced learners with some new words and motivated them to explore more. It’s better to start with a positive note.

8.7 Review and feedback sessions
Before closing the lecture, a brief review was provided by asking questions about what they learned, or by asking for feedback. It is a very effective strategy to make the class more interactive.

8.8 Critical thinking skills
To involve the learners and enhance their learning process the teacher used some critical thinking skills. Involving makes learning faster. Skills like brainstorming, comparing and identifying patterns provide more room for the learners to think further and discuss their queries. It makes them more aware of the languages they are learning and for example, Teaching vocabulary through context clues or semantic mapping. According to Sarifa (2018), learning vocabulary through context “helps the student bridge the gap between the students’ real-life exposure to vocabulary and the learning environment of the class” (p.42).

All the above-discussed strategies and techniques were being practically applied to the target group to escalate the teaching and the learning process. The feedback sessions after each lesson allowed the teacher to know how the Eclectic Method of teaching the English language to EFL students functioned and fruitful as compared to other traditional methods of teaching. Student assessment sheets were analyzed to support the findings of the research.

9. Result analysis:
The researcher conducted two progress tests during the semester. The First Progress Test (FPT) was at the end of the 6th week of instructions, and the Second Progress Test (SPT) was after the 14th week of preparations. It was a short test of 15 marks comprising questions covering all the four skills of language learning, i.e., Listening, Speaking, Reading, and Writing (LSRW). Students Learning outcomes of both the FPT and SPT were prepared on the excel sheet to compare and verify if teaching methods applied were functioning well or not. The figure below supports the information specified in this paper. Figure 1 shows the grades accomplished by the language learners in their FPT and SPT, respectively.
Enhancing EFL learners’ English Proficiency and Intelligence

Sarifa

Figure 1. Grade Analysis of the learners’ progress tests

After doing this grade analysis of the learner’s FPT and SPT, there is significant progress in the student’s learning process. Based on the percentage of marks received in FPT and SPT the learners were categorized into six different groups: A+, A, B, C, D, F. Learners who obtained a percentage ranging between 95 to 100 were under A+, learners who received a percentage rate ranging between 90 to 94 were under A, those who secured a percentage rate ranging between 80 to 89 were under B, those who obtained a percentage rate ranging between 70 to 79 were under C, the learners with a percentage rate ranging between 60 to 69 were under D, and less than 60 percent were under F (fail). From the above-given figure, we can clearly say that in FPT, 5 out of 58 learners were A+, whereas this number increased in the SPT, where 7 out of 58 are A+. In FPT, 11 out of 58 learners were A, but in SPT, this number decreased to 9. The reason behind this fall is they have shown significant progress, they excelled and are now under grade A+. One of the most remarkable change occurred in the average group. In FPT, the total number of students graded under B was 14, but in SPT, it increased, and it became 23 out of 58 students. This increase exhibits the progress in the learners’ performance. In FPT, 13 out of 58 students were under grade C, whereas in SPT it decreased to 10 out of 58 students. This same fall was noted with learners under grade D also, in FPT 10 out of 58 were under D, but in SPT, 7 out of 58 were under D. Total number of failures also decreased in SPT as compared to FPT, in FPT it was 5, but in SPT it was just 2. So, it is obvious from the result analysis that the total number of students getting excellent or good grades has increased and the number of students getting lesser grades or failures has decreased in the second progress test. Hence it exhibits clear outcomes for the efficacy of the techniques and the strategies applied by teachers in the whole teaching process.

10. Discussion:
This analysis shows that the students remarkably benefitted with the Eclectic Method of teaching language. Since the study group was heterogeneous, one comprising advanced, average, and beginners’ level their learning outcomes were affected the same way. To be more specific, the advanced level, students showed progress and were under excellent grade, in contrast, the average ones improved and obtained Grade B which, is the second-highest top category. Beginner ones...
also showed their progress, and they tend to get grade C instead of D or F. The researcher was successfully able to accomplish the language learning goals of the individual learners. After using the various teaching strategies and learning skills, it can be stressed that those strategies helped to enhance the learners’ English Proficiency in various ways. The learners very easily acquired grammatical rules and later used it correctly in their writing and speaking. For example, in FPT assessment sheets, mistakes like “She live in Abha”, “Ali have a red car,” My mother is good cooking” were present. In SPT, these types of grammatical errors were minimal, which shows the student’s improvement. Learners’ earlier used to mispronounce certain sounds and words incorrectly. For example, /p/ was pronounced as /b/ and /t/ was pronounced as [t̪ə]. These were very common errors noted in maximum learners. But through the application of Listen–repeat-listen-repeat strategy, it was easily corrected. Activities like “just a minute” helped to boost learners’ self-confidence to speak in English in front of others. Activities like “peer work” and “interactive sessions” added to learners’ motivation and encouraged them to work in groups. It further bridged the communication gap between the teachers and the learners. Using Audiovisual aids not only helped drawing students’ attention in the class but also made the language learning easy and enjoyable. Critical thinking skills made complete involvement of the learners in the whole learning process and provided rooms for the leaners to use language in a real-life situation. It made them aware of their knowledge and helped in developing judgmental skills. Language acquisition is temporary; hence teaching strategies based on critical thinking skills played a vital role in enhancing learners’ English Proficiency. The teaching of vocabulary through context made the learners learn new words along with their correct usage and knowledge of collocation. For example earlier the learners’ used to say “true” or “false” instead of “right” or “wrong,” similarly for “watching TV” OR “listening music” they used to say “see TV” or “hear music,” but by teaching vocabulary through contexts these errors were corrected. So, from the above discussion, it is summarized that the researcher has proved the hypothesis of the research significantly. Application of the Eclectic Method enhanced the English Proficiency of EFL learners.

11. Conclusion:
After implementing the Eclectic Method in the language classroom, it is clear that it helps to blend multiple activities of language learning. It allows students to receive individual attention amid a populated class. It further makes the students feel more motivated and confident. They have improved significantly in all four skills (LSRW). The teaching experience of the researcher clarifies that the Eclectic Method is very pluralistic and comprehensive, which helps to overcome the obstacles in the language classroom and meets the diversified needs of the learners. This Method works productively for any group of learners and makes learning easy and ingenious. Being learner-centered in its approach it doesn’t put any kind of pressure on the students learning process; they feel more motivated and comfortable in the class. It further provides room for the students to learn English in real-life situations. It enhances learners’ ability to respond, rationalize, and interpret. And the excellence of this Method is, the teacher can design his/ her teaching techniques based on the Proficiency and the competency of the learners to make learning more productive, which in turn strengthens the teacher-student relationships and promotes classroom management successfully. In a language class, teaching and learning are perpetrated concurrently. It is indispensable to choose an efficacious method like the Eclectic Method to teach English effectively in an EFL classroom.
About the Author
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References:
EFL Teachers’ Attitudes towards the Use of Mobile Devices in Learning English at A University in Vietnam

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Abstract
Among the sharp development of modern technology, mobile learning (M-learning) appears as the significant mark of technological revolution 4.0. It has seen that the exponential expansion of mobile devices accompanied their smart functions to support learners’ learning everywhere and every time. Thus, mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) is believed to serve learners’ English knowledge. Although learning through mobile devices is expected to apply appropriately to teaching and learning, teachers’ attitudes towards mobile learning need to be assessed seriously. This writing is to present EFL learners’ psychological preparation to perceive English mobile learning application at University X through a survey on 69 EFL teachers by questionnaire, including ten statements within 10 minutes. The investigation is carried out in the second semester of the school year 2018-2019. The qualitative approach was used to collect and analyze data, and findings showed that teachers have positive attitudes towards M-learning and its application at University X can be accepted firmly.

Keywords: attitude, mobile learning, Vietnam EFL students

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1. Introduction

English has been an international communicative instrument of humans today. Learning English is necessary; however, it is difficult for busy learners who are plentiful of ages, levels, jobs, etc. They have no time to acquire and practice English at class. They cannot spend time for learning English from the books even have no time to learn with tutors also. Thence, English fluency cannot be obtained with such learning method among busy-crowded situation of current education and society in Vietnam generally, Ho Chi Minh City mainly, especially, for EFL students of at University X. Evidently, EFL students really need to be supported their learning English by a flexible and active method that can help them learn whenever and wherever they can. Therefore, a proactive and convenient learning approach should be explored to serve learners to learn English every time and everywhere.

Nowadays, the world population offers enthusiastic use towards mobile devices like smartphones, Iphones, Ipads, Ipods tablets, laptops, etc. thanks their “handy and compact” nature (Iqbal and Bhatti, 2015). Because of the improvement of both mobile devices’ forms and functions’, they attached material data sources that serve human contact, information, demands involving learning in the offline and online environments every time and everywhere. Mobile devices can provide the significant wealth of knowledge through the internet as well as learning opportunities for the learners at different levels (Thao, 2014). By the profits of mobile devices for students learning, indeed, the mobile learning system is expected to be operated at educational institutes in Vietnam. However, learning English through mobile devices cannot lack teachers’ participation; their psychology preparation in teaching English on mobile technology should be explored. Therefore, the author conducts this survey to assess EFL teachers’ attitudes towards mobile learning and suggest some other aspects for future studies related to mobile technology in teaching English. This study’s main task is to respond to the following research question “What are EFL teachers’ attitudes toward teaching English through mobile devices?” The theory and methodology of mobile learning are provided and interpreted in continuous items.

2. Theoretical review on mobile learning

2.1. Definition of mobile learning

M-learning has been developing with such a non-stop speed that has exceeded the expectation of experts in Information and Communication Technologies (ICT). The term “M-learning” was defined under various views of different authors. In light of Quinn (2000), mobile learning is the way a person learns something by using mobile computing devices such as Palms, Windows CE machines, even his digital cell phone. Sharing a similar opinion, Sharples (2006) asserts that mobile education means the application of mobile technologies. Also, the following definition proves the practicability of mobile education on technology-proliferating society: “Any learning that happens when the learner is not at a fixed, predetermined location, or learning that happens when the learner takes advantage of the learning opportunities offered by mobile technologies” (O’Malley et al. 200; Feser, 2010). From information about M-learning provide by precious definitions, Mobile learning application was addressed in many forward pieces of research was summarized in a model below:
To implement the perfect M-learning application, a lot of details should be completed. This writing tends to survey teachers’ behaviors on M-learning and consider how their acceptance for teaching English through mobile devices as the foundation relevant to mobile learning application research in the future. As the present research’s topic, there are many prior studies employed by previous authors in Vietnam and the world like Linh et al. (2017), Khanh and Gim (2014), Pollara (2011), Aish and Love (2013), Kuciapski (2016), etc. However, these researches almost survey perceptions, attitudes, acceptance of English majored students in higher education without investigation on attitudes of EFL teachers towards the mobile learning approach. Thus, this survey conducted to fill this gap and collect new results on EFL teachers’ attitudes for English mobile learning as well as contribute a unique reference for the next relevant researches.

To discuss the relationship between mobile learning and learning English of students, some ideas were explained in the next sections.

2.2. Mobile learning for teaching English

In the era of revolution 4.0, mobile technologies became widespread in human life overcome time and space limitations through their multiple features; in particular, it is a precious and great invention in education globally. Chen et al., (2002) realize unique features of mobile technology with benefits which were not supplied through other distance learning technology in scaffold-learning. In learning English, learners can be supported significantly by mobile learning thanks to its benefits following:

Evidently, mobile devices become multimedia access tools, connectivity tools, capture tools; representation and analysis tools offering benefit characteristics for teaching and learning that Pollara (2011) emphasizes as support students’ motivation, encourage their sense of responsibility, improve their commitment and promote their learning in general, in learning English particularly and retention; help increasing individual’s organizational skills and self-regulatory capacity of learning through planning applications; support communication, collaboration and knowledge building via real-time data; offer both individualized and social
interactive learning environment and promote student-student and student-teacher interactions; improve learners’ reasoning skills and self-confidence; support independent, constructivist and contextualized learning; offer active and experiential learning opportunities allowing quick note-taking through photos, sound and video recording. Thank to these characteristics, Naismith et al. (2004) identified several others with many usefulness for learning English in particular and in general education, besides, mobile devices also exist some challenges teaching and learning English explained by Pollara (2011) as (1) Mobility poses challenges to usual teaching practices; (2) Informality can make mobile learning lose its benefits if it is too widespread; (3) Ownership poses challenges to institutional control; (4) learning over time offers the challenge of providing useful tools to lifelong users to reflect on their mobile learning experience. Also, the small size of mobile devices allows for mobility and portability anytime and anywhere; however, contacting mobile devices’ screens over time will affect users’ eyes and rain. Therefore, users need to be careful and balance to use mobile devices for their learning reasonable and practical.

From the relationship between mobile learning and teaching English as well as the usefulness and challenges of mobile education on learning English, mobile devices provide a dynamic and positive environment for teachers to teach English everywhere and every time. Basing on the purpose of this study, the researcher follows Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) (Davis, 1989) to design questionnaire contents; this model’s materials were described in the next section.

2.3. Technology Acceptance Model (TAM)

Davis (1989) explores the Technology Acceptance Model (TAM) with the purpose of measuring the perceived usefulness and ease-of-use among technology handlers. Napitupulu et al. (2017) suppose that the TAM was seen as an essential research model for evaluating the factors of information technology acceptance and utilization among users, and it was the most adopted model. Also, Raaij and Schepers (2008) believe that TAM is a comprehensive theory among many models in the information system literature to explain individuals’ acceptance of information technology. Because of the persuasiveness and evidence related to the attitudes, psychology, and perceptions of users, the researcher will refer this theory to survey ELF teachers’ attitudes towards mobile learning; the TAM was shown in Figure 2.


The TAM above was explained following the current study contents as Perceived usefulness (PU): The extent to which a person believes using technology to improve his or her
learning. According to Lefievre (2012), it is used to explore EFL teachers’ attitudes towards mobile devices’ usefulness in teaching English skills like listening, speaking, reading, writing and grammar for EFL students. Perceived ease of use (PEOU) is the extent which a person believes that using technology for learning is comfortable of effort. Similarly, PEOU is used to indicate EFL teachers’ perception on ease of using mobile devices in teaching English. Attitude toward using technology (ATUT) which was released EFL teachers’ attitudes towards using mobile technology in teaching English; then Intention to use technology (IU) presents for behaviors and tend of EFL teachers for using portable devices to serve their teaching English.

3. Research Methodology

The survey is conducted within two weeks of the second semester of 2018-2019 at University X. The quantitative used to collect data from the questionnaire with ten questions (15 minutes): (5 scales: strongly agree, agree, no idea, disagree, strongly disagree) to evaluate EFL teachers’ attitudes towards M-learning. In the light of this survey description, the participants are all of 69 EFL teachers of University X.

The questionnaire is designed as this study’s instrument with a purpose to measure EFL teachers’ attitudes towards learning English through mobile devices and their behavior in using mobile technology, the questionnaire including ten statements arranged correlatively.

Each statement accompanied by five Likert scales for the participants to choose their ideas by writing only a tick into one cell of idea columns (1) strongly disagree (SD), (2) disagree (D), (3) no plans (NP), (4) agree (A), and (5) strongly agree (SA).

4. Results and discussion

The questionnaire’s results revealed through numbers of sticking scale turn of each statement collected by a quantitative approach. The contents of the poll are to answer the research question, “What are EFL teachers’ attitudes towards teaching English through mobile devices?” The researcher analyzes the proportion of the participants’ ideas for each statement to appraise their behavior and acceptance of M-learning.

Table 1. Participants’ answers for the questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>NP</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. I spend more time to teach English more when I can access materials</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>82%</td>
<td>9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anytime, anywhere, to teach English through my mobile devices.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I am more likely to communicate with students more through my mobile</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>63%</td>
<td>24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>devices.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. I am more likely to interact with colleagues through mobile devices.</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>81%</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I am more likely to interact with my students thanks to teaching</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>78%</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English through mobile devices.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Students are more likely to develop their learning</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>85%</td>
<td>8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
EFL Teachers’ Attitudes towards the Use of Mobile Devices

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>NI</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Mobile devices are useful for teaching grammar English.</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>72%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Mobile devices are useful for teaching English listening skill.</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>65%</td>
<td>23%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Mobile devices are useful for teaching English writing skill.</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>4%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>80%</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Mobile devices are useful for teaching English speaking skill.</td>
<td>22%</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>11%</td>
<td>41%</td>
<td>17%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Mobile devices are useful for teaching English reading skill.</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>88%</td>
<td>12%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 3. Participants’ answers for the questionnaire*

In the statement 1, almost teachers saw that they focus on teaching English through mobile devices more when they can catch entry teaching materials on their mobile device. Actually, the rate of agree reached 82%, strong agree 9%, no idea just 9% and other 0% proved that EFL teachers agree with the sentence “I spend more time to teach English more when I can access materials anytime, anywhere to teach English through my mobile devices.” Next, 24% strongly agree, 63% agree, 0% no idea and disagree, and 13% strongly disagree for statement 2 “I am more likely to communicate with students more through my mobile devices.” Teachers love exchanging and
contacting their students through mobile devices. The figures of both statements above show that the teachers are more excited to teach English through mobile devices.

In response to statement 3, “I am more likely to interact with colleagues through mobile devices,” the proportion of the scales is 11% for strongly disagree, 0% for disagreeing and no idea, 24% strongly agree, and 63% for agreeing. Namely, most of the teachers interact with their colleagues well through mobile devices in the English classroom. The high proportion of strongly agree (14%) and agree (78%), no idea (5%), disagree (3%) and strongly disagree (0%) for the statement 4 “I am more likely to interact with my students thanks to teaching English through mobile devices.” It was seen that the majority of teachers interact not only with their colleagues but also with their students well through mobile devices. It was implied that mobile learning can support teachers’ interaction effectively in their teaching English.

Moreover, nearly all teachers approve the idea of the fifth statement “Students are more likely to develop autonomy when learning English with mobile devices” with 85% for agreeing and 8% for strongly agreeing, 0% for no idea and disagree and 7% for strongly disagree. These figures indicate that teachers who see teaching English through mobile devices can enhance their students’ autonomous learning during English mobile learning courses.

As a word, PEOU of TAM was defined that EFL teachers perceive that using mobile devices in teaching English is exciting. Somewhat it is easy to display teaching activities, including accessing teaching materials, interacting with students and colleagues, developing learning autonomy of students. EFL teachers’ attitude towards using mobile technology for teaching English is positive.

The overall response is 23% of teachers strongly agreed, 72% for agreeing, 4% for no idea, 0% for disagreeing and strongly disagree for the sixth statement “Mobile devices are useful for teaching grammar English.” It was said that EFL teachers believe that mobile devices can support them in teaching English grammar better. Also, they agree that “Mobile devices are useful for teaching English listening skill.” with a high proportion of strongly accept and agree is 23% and 65%, just 4% for all some have no idea and disagree and strongly disagree. It is showed that teachers see teaching listening skills through mobile devices useful. Besides, the EFL teachers have good behavior in teaching writing skills through mobile devices in statement 8, “Mobile devices are useful for teaching English writing skill.” The rate of five scales in turn 13% of students strongly agree and 80% agree, 0% of no idea, 4% of disagree and 3% strongly agree, which reveal such an insight.

In the ninth statement, the participants seem not to agree with the statement “Mobile devices are useful for teaching English speaking skill.” Quietly strongly with 17% of strongly agree, 41% of agree. The proportion of no idea is 11% states that there are several teachers who are still considering this idea. And the rate of disagree people reach 9%, especially, strongly disagree ones are nearly double at 22%, perhaps, they do not entirely concede teaching English speaking skill through mobile devices suitable.
Contrariwise, the percent of strongly agree (12%), And the rate of agreeing touches 88%, meanwhile, the left is 0% for participants who have no idea as well as none disagree or strongly disagree for the final statement “Mobile devices are useful for teaching English reading skill.” All teachers believe that teaching reading skills through mobile devices is a reasonable choice; they are interested in it.

In short, the rate of scales from the sixth to the tenth statement indicates that the participants consider using mobile devices effective in teaching English skills. PU from the sixth to the final statement was presented that almost EFL teachers concur using mobile devices to support teaching English skills for EFL students. They agree and admit that using mobile technology is useful in teaching listening, speaking, reading, writing, and grammar.

In general, the EFL teachers almost have good behavior in learning English through mobile devices. Besides, they believe that M-learning can support learning English effectively through a high percentage of scales. The participants have a positive attitude toward teaching English through mobile devices. The results of the questionnaire found a satisfactory answer for the research question “What are EFL teachers’ attitudes towards teaching English through mobile devices?” In detail, the rates of scale results draw out almost students have good behavior towards learning English through mobile devices. It was presented through the proportion nearly more than 80% of choosing agree scale for each statement relevant to practice and attitude towards teaching English through mobile devices. Thence, EFL teachers’ intention to use technology (IU) was indicated by the results of data analysis. Indeed, EFL teachers tend to accept teaching English through mobile devices via their positive attitudes towards this teaching and learning approach.

In the range of study, this writing holds the survey on EFL teachers’ attitudes towards teaching English through mobile devices without focusing on English majored teachers and carrying out other aspects related to mobile technology in teaching English in advanced. Moreover, researching mobile learning here is just halted at the survey on teachers’ behaviors upon teaching English through mobile devices; mobile learning applications to teach other subjects have not still been conducted.

The current study is related to those of Linh et al. (2017), Khanh and Gim (2014), Pollara (2011), Aish and Love (2013), Kuciapski (2016). They carried out users’ perceptions or attitudes towards mobile devices in teaching and learning language in general, for English in particular. Also, it was also believed that mobile learning can create motivation in teachers’ teaching English as well as support students to learn every time and everywhere.

Conclusion

To sum up, EFL teachers have positive attitudes and accept mobile technology in teaching English at University X. As some limitations of this research, mobile learning application ones were not still conducted, they are expected to be implemented in future studies to serve to teach and learning English at University X in particular and in education in Vietnam and over the world in general. Moreover, the researchers would like to suggest finance and policies for mobile learning applications; designing and experimenting mobile learning should be conducted for students to approach the significant convenient learning at University X and in other locations.
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References


The Challenges and Prospects of Using E-learning among EFL Students in Bisha University

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University of Bisha, Saudi Arabia

Abstract
This study attempts to find out the challenges students' face in learning English as a foreign language when using E-learning system at University of Bisha. It also investigates whether using E-learning is beneficial to EFL students in their learning English to the degree anticipated. There are many challenges face both teachers and students during use E-learning. These challenges include academic, technological; and administrative challenges. The study sample included 36 teaching staff and 261 EFL students at University of Bisha - English department. To collect data required, the researcher developed questionnaires that consist of three domains for both teaching staff and students separately. The study results show that there are no significant differences between EFL students (males and females) of E-learning activities. Therefore, it argued that all domains of teaching staff and students' challenges could not predict academic achievement. The findings reveal that some factors such as academic, administrative, and technical challenges regarding E-learning were the main challenges of E-learning at University of Bisha. The results also show that students aware of the benefits of using E-learning. They perceive themselves as having a highly positive attitude towards E-learning in English. However, the main advantage can be used anywhere, anytime, and the E-learning system can adapt to the aims of improving communication and enriching students' learning experiences.

Keywords: Challenges, E-learning, English as Foreign Language, Information & Communication Technology, and Prospects

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol11no1.11
Introduction
Due to the rapid change in technological progress and the globalization trend in higher education and the elimination of boundaries among students, new methods and perspectives have opened to educational practice such as E-learning. Now, Information & Communication Technology (ICT) is currently used in education to assist students in learning more efficiently. It is helping teachers to undertake administrative tasks more efficiently. There are many challenges to overcome while using E-learning in Saudi universities. The use of E-learning for learning English is still in its infancy at the University of Bisha due to many challenges related to implementation. E-learning system presents several challenges, -each- with its own particular importance to the whole. These challenges include academic, technological; and administrative. These challenges classified as the domains of the questionnaires. Frequent use of E-learning at university level is considered a long-term strategy in Saudi Arabia. There is clear evidence that a majority of Saudi universities are already using E-learning but mostly in the blended model with face to face teaching too. For instance, the University of Bisha is one of these universities, which is using E-learning in blended learning mode. However, a review of the tangible steps revealed meagre progress in the exploitation of E-learning approach in these public universities due to unexpected challenges. The majority of these universities are using E-learning in blended mode and have lagged in full implementation. According to Abdelaziz., Riad., & Senousy, (2014) state that E-learning use in combination with technologies such as information and multimedia alters the traditional learning style and learning environment. Teachers can deliver a lecture anytime or/and anyplace. E-learning changes the relationship between teachers and students from traditional education and provides a platform for teachers and students to communicate. Students can do a cooperative study through the platform. At the same time, Darcy (2012) points out that E-learning technology plays an essential role in English learning courses through the use of ICT. With the coming of computer technology, E-learning has played a progressively important role; especially in higher education. Increasingly, college students rely on computers for learning and many higher education institutions, ICT uses to develop course materials, deliver and share course content. Also, ICT promotes lectures, presentations and facilitates communication. Meanwhile, teachers and students conduct research and provide administrative and management services. Because ICT is essential in higher education and E-learning, the present study aims to:

1. Find out the challenges students' face in their learning of English as a foreign language while using E-learning program at the University of Bisha.
2. Investigate whether using E-learning is beneficial to EFL students in their learning of English to the degree anticipated.
3. Investigate to what extent the challenges of E-learning can affect the process of learning English.

Therefore, some questions arise in this study, such as:
1. What are the challenges faced by EFL students in using E-learning?
2. What are the potential benefits that EFL students will get when they use E-learning in their learning of English?
3. To what extent can E-learning affect the process of learning English?
In the following figure - 1 evident that the integration of E-learning with traditional teaching and learning. This figure established implementation E-learning system with the objective of the study. And to what the teaching staff and students were accepted E-learning process.

Figure 1 evident that the integration of E-learning with traditional teaching and learning.

Literature Review

Few kinds of research have examined the experience of teachers dealing with E-learning sustainability when taking over the course of an E-learning resource and associated assessment. Previous studies indicate that the introduction of technology into education (for instance, the use of E-learning) encountered many challenges even in developed countries. Donnelly, & McAvinia, (2012) argue that there are "many academics have had no training and little experience in the use of communications and information technology as an educational tool" p 19. Furthermore, administrative factors could contribute to minimizing the benefit of using E-learning. Therefore, Taurus., David., and Alex, (2015) investigate the challenges hindering the implementation of E-learning in Kenyan public universities. It also emerged that implementation of E-learning in Kenya faces some challenges. These include but are not limited to inconvenient ICT and E-learning. According to Feeney (2001), E-learning has been the focus of recent scholarly attention. As the integration of technology into higher education becomes an institutional imperative at universities worldwide, the adoption of digital courses in a new E-learning environment becomes both an organizational goal and a source of data upon which to evaluate performance. Furthermore, he states the higher education institutions face persistent challenges in the use of technology, with E-learning being the latest technological challenge Feeney (2001). However, Kim (2008) indicates that the challenges of technology impede the use of E-learning in higher education is faculty resistance. In contrast, other studies show factors such as technology, interaction, instructor, and quality of students were key factors to successful E-learning (Selim, 2007., Baylor & Ritches, 2002., Volery & Lord 2000). Khan., Hasan., and Clement, (2012) also found out that if teachers want to use technology in their classes successfully, they need to possess a positive attitude towards the use of technology. For the benefits of E-learning, Clarke (2004) asserts that learners have freedom of choice over "place, pace and time" (p.32). Therefore, Wanjala., Khaemba, and Mukwa, (2011) advice institutions to adopt ICT exploitation in education because these technologies recognized worldwide as tools that facilitate. Meanwhile, Berhanu (2010) points out that promoting E-learning provides a potential and comparative ladder for developing countries to leapfrog to the knowledge economy. It shows facilitating learning to large groups through the use
of information and communication technology. Al-Harbi (2011) shows that different factors influence E-learning acceptance. Students' attitude toward E-learning is the most important factor in determining their intention to use E-learning. Students' decision to use E-learning also determined by their subjective norm, i.e., the influence of people around them. Moreover, the perception of E-learning's accessibility plays a role in shaping the students' behavioral intention regarding E-learning acceptance. Some results support the innovative works in the area of technology acceptance. Bendania (2011) shows the factors related to mainly experience, positive attitudes, confidence, enjoyment, usefulness, intention to use, motivation, and whether students had ICT skills are all correlated. Fageeh (2011) demonstrates that informants identified the facilitators and inhibitors of E-learning previously recognized in prior research. He also shows that students are ready to accept technology implementation and shift to an E-learning model of education. In the same context, Al-Dosari (2011) examines the faculty members' and students' perceptions of E-learning in the English department. He observes their responses were positive and indicated that learning improved in an E-learning environment compared to a traditional method. Al-Mansour and Al-Shorman (2011) show that students who taught through computer-assisted English language instruction alongside the traditional method displayed a better achievement than those who taught through the traditional method alone. According to Salmon (2004), "training on the technological features of the E-learning system is only the first step to success, and the real challenge is training for changes to pedagogy" (p.6). According to Blinco., Mason., McLeamon, and Wilson, (2004) articulates the success of E-learning's rests upon the essential requirement that instructors & students possess adequate technical skills to use E-learning tools. Meanwhile, Zake (2009) says, poverty is one of the most important barriers, especially in Africa than in developed countries because ICT relatively is more expensive. Therefore, most Kenyan public universities have opted for blended learning, the significant step that shows their commitment towards the full implementation of E-learning. Rhema and Miliszewska (2010) associated some challenges with cultural & linguistic background of students & instructors with their awareness & attitudes towards E-learning, such as underdeveloped technological infrastructure, cost of educational technologies, lack of local proficiency in E-learning, and lack of educational management to support E-learning initiatives.

In summary, the reviewed literature identified that the use of E-learning has increased as faculty perspectives toward such technology which has addressed (Ong, Lai, & Wang, 2004; Roca, Chiu, & Martínez, 2006). There are many challenges to overcome while implementing E-learning in universities. Ssekakubo., Suleman, and Marsden, (2011) point out the majority of E-learning initiatives implemented in some countries tend to fail while partially or entirely due to the various barriers to E-learning in developing countries. In Saudi Arabia, according to Al-Ghaith., Sanzogni, and Sandhu, (2010), the quality of internet access is a significant factor influencing the adoption and usage of E-learning. Therefore, the stated aims of this study are to find out the challenges EFL students face in learning English when using E-learning system. As well as, to investigate using E-learning is beneficial to EFL students in learning English to the degree anticipated, and examine the challenges of E-learning can affect the process of learning English.

**Definition of E-learning**

The term "E-learning" was devised in 1998 by Jay Cross; Electronic learning or E-learning is a popular way of developing education by technological breakthroughs. In general, the term E-
learning is synonymous with online learning. E-learning becomes a new paradigm and a modern philosophy in teaching with a mission to serve as a development platform for the present-day society based on knowledge. So, E-learning has defined in many different ways. For example, Khan (2005) defines E-learning as "an innovative approach for delivering well-designed, learner-centred, interactive, and facilitated learning environment to anyone, anyplace, anytime" (p.3).

This definition includes pedagogy on perspectives as well as access and content. On the other hand, Garrison (2011) E-learning as "electronically mediated asynchronous and synchronous communication to construct and confirm the knowledge" (p.2). Palloff and Pratt (1999) connect a whole new set of physical, emotional and psychological issues in their definition "Electronic learning or E-learning is a general term used to refer to computer-based learning" (pp.15-6). Congruz-Bacescu, M. (2013) defines "E-learning concisely as the use of internet technologies to provide a broad range of solutions that enhances performance and knowledge. E-learning also means any act or virtual process used to obtain data, information, skills or expertise. In a broad sense, E-learning means all learning situations where there is significant use of informatics and communication resources "(pp. 573-578).

From the previous definition, E-learning used new multimedia technologies and the internet to improve the quality of learning and teaching. It would widely use, and it would even bring revolutionary changes to education. In other words, the use of new multimedia technologies and the internet in learning as a means to improve accessibility, efficiency and quality of learning by facilitating access to resources. Clarke (2004) asserts the close relation between ICT and "E-learning is covering many different approaches that have in common which use information and communication technology" (p.2). Jones (2003) states that "E-learning is digital learning, computer-enhanced learning. So, no matter which tag is applied, and all aim to exploit web-based technology to improve learning for students" (p. 66). Rashty (2012) E-learning with many common points with traditional learning, such as the presentation of ideas by the students, arguments, group discussions, and many other forms of conveying information and accumulating knowledge.

Methodology

Research Design

This study employed both quantitative research method and collected data from a varied number of respondents by administering a questionnaire.

The questionnaire included both close and open-ended questions. The validity of the questionnaire established by giving the questionnaire to experts to verify its validity. E-learning representatives in the college in charge also considered as key informants in this study.

Our considerations based on questionnaire responses from 36 teaching staff and 261 students, selected random, in the colleges of the University of Bisha.

These questionnaires send to teaching staff and students at University of Bisha-English department at the beginning of the First Semester 2017/2018. Then the questionnaires analyzed by using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Statistics version 17.0. The sample distribution, as shown in Table one.
Table 1 Distribution of the sample of the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>number</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching Staff</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Population
The population included all students enrolled in Department of English, as well as teaching staff in the College of Arts in Bisha and College of Science and Arts in Bal Qarn (Boys & Girls) at the University of Bisha – first semester in academic year 2017/2018.

Participants
In the first semester of 2018, 261 students from all levels in the English department participated in this research questionnaire randomly. Additionally, 36 teaching staff participated in another research questionnaire.

Data Collection Process
Data required for this study analyzed accordingly. The quantitative research data collected through questionnaires included 36 academic teaching staff and 261 students. The questionnaires were used to analysis teaching staff and students' views on the E-learning program. The questionnaires distributed in the first term in the academic year 2017/2018.

Instruments design
Questionnaires are the instruments used in this study. The researcher developed the items because no appropriate item found in the current literature. The questionnaires designed according to the objective of the study. The respondents were asked to provide their background information and then asked one question related to their view of using E-learning to learn English. The questionnaire forms adopted close-ended Likert scale statements (quantitative data). The scoring for the questionnaire was five Likert scale (Strongly Agree= 5, Agree= 4, Not sure/Neutral= 3, Disagree= 2, Strongly Disagree= 1). This study utilized two questionnaires. The teaching staff questionnaire comprised three domains, and the students' questionnaire also comprised three domains. The items of questionnaires prepared after looking critically at the literature review related to this field. Both the teaching staff and students' questionnaires were categorized into three domains, as follows:

1. Academic challenges  2. Technological challenges  3. Administrative challenges

Validity & Reliability of the instruments
It is important to mention that this study consists of two questionnaires: E-learning faculty teaching staff and faculty students. The items in each group were directed to answer some questions based on their classification as teaching staff and students. As a result, two reliability tests conducted. To ensure the validity and reliability of instruments, the first reliability test administrated to (5) academic staff teaching. The second reliability test runs to (30) students as a pilot study. The researcher got written feedback. These suggested helped a few modifications, improvements and
ensured validity and reliability. The reliability of the questionnaires using Cronbach’s Alpha. The value of these questionnaires is using SPSS.

Table 2 Reliability statistics for the instrument items for faculty teaching staff (n=35) and students (n=261)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Cronbach's Alpha</th>
<th>number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>faculty staff</td>
<td>0.76</td>
<td>36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>students</td>
<td>0.80</td>
<td>261</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table two shows the score reliability analysis for teaching staff (n=36). The value (a) is 0.76, which indicates a high level of substantial score reliability. According to suggestions and comments, some items changed to clarify the meaning some items modified in a way that is more appropriate with the aim of the study. And the score reliability analysis for students (n=261). The value (a) is 0.80, which indicates a high level of substantial score reliability. According to the interview and questionnaire for teaching staff and students, the researcher got some suggestions and comments. These made some items were changed to clarify meaning. The other items modified in a way that is more appropriate to the aim of the study.

Procedures
Throughout the study, several procedures followed. They include:

- English department students’ enrolled in the first term 2017/2018 contacted.
- Prepare the questionnaires of the study, with the help of previous studies.
- A sample of the study was chosen randomly from the population of the study.
- The questionnaire was distributed to the students during their classes and then collected after.
- For data analysis, the analytical method will use in finding the statistical significance of the results.
- The data of the questionnaire were collected, tested and analyzed using (SPSS program, 20.0) for integrity and clarity. Then the study discussed for final result and conclusions.

Results and Discussion
This section presents the results and discusses the findings. The data collected through questionnaires. The questionnaires analyzed for their relevance or irrelevance of the research literature. The tools of data collection, namely questionnaire and the interview enabled were complementary with each other and helped to approve, reject or add the results for a broader interpretation. The respondents acknowledged that several challenges face students of the University of Bisha to implement E-learning. Out of the 350 respondents targeted (students & staff teaching) in this study, 296 (about 85%) respondents completed and returned the questionnaires while ten directors interviewed successfully and their responses recorded. The results are arising from the analysis of questionnaires presented in Table 3.
Table 3 Academic challenges for teaching staff

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lack of time required to develop (build-up) E-learning content</td>
<td>3.57</td>
<td>1.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lack of interaction between students and teaching staff</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lack of necessary time for preparing online exams/assignments.</td>
<td>3.40</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lack of awareness regarding ways to integrate the software into teaching</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Inaccessibility of PowerPoint / PDF / data projection during lectures</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Inaccessibility of course notes/feedback about materials</td>
<td>3.42</td>
<td>1.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table three that the total mean for the academic challenges domain is (3.60) and the standard deviation is (0.91), which reflects that the teaching staff agrees. They face academic challenges when they use E-learning during the teaching of English. To know which statements have the most effect on implementing E-learning for teaching English. They are the lack of awareness regarding ways to integrate the software into teaching (3.62), lack of time required to develop E-learning content (3.57) and inaccessibility of PowerPoint/PDF/data projection during the lecture (3.45). Furthermore, lack of time needed to develop E-learning content, similar to the lack of interaction between students and teaching staff have the same mean (3.40).

It observed the academic challenges faced by teaching staff are a time to prepare the e-content & electronic exams, the method of interaction between instructors & students, and inaccessibility of power point, PDF, course notes/feedback. The study revealed that creating E-learning content and online exam or assignments is time-consuming to avoid these challenges. As a result, most teaching staff are busy with routine teaching and research tasks. Hence, they do not have adequate time to convert their courses from hard copy to e-content or prepare the online exam. On the other hand, the benefit is that when a course has developed in digital format, it is easy and less time destroy to maintain and update.

Additionally, the study highlighted the students' inability to access PowerPoint, PDF, course note, and feedback materials quickly. It emerged clearly that either teaching staff have less experience to create or deal with E-learning content or don't have enough training. The researcher found a lack of interest between teaching staff & students as well as a lack of awareness regarding ways to integrate the software into teaching. As a result, the teaching staff commitment to using E-learning. They considered the conversion of their courses to E-content as extra work without additional pay. Less motivation and fear of jobs insecurity cause disinterest and commitment towards the use of E-learning by the teaching staff.
Table 4 *Technology challenges for teaching staff*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Lack of technology/software required for home access</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Lack of technical support/advice</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>1.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Lack of necessary adaptive technology</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Inaccessibility of audio/video material, PDF, PowerPoint…etc</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Technological background</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Lack of training courses provided by institutions.</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>The software of E-learning is too complicated to use</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>1.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>4.64</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.65</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows that the overall mean for the technology challenges domain is (4.64) and the standard deviation is (0.65) which face the teaching staff. They strongly agree that they face technology challenges when they use E-learning during their teaching of English. The most significant factors that affect the implementation of E-learning are the lack of technical support/advice (4.02), inaccessibility of audio/video material, PowerPoint/PDF…etc (3.91) and lack of necessary adaptive technology (3.88). Then, the lack of training courses provided by the institution (3.71) cited. There is a similarity between two statements in their means as lack of technology/software required for home access and technological background (3.60).

It revealed the technical challenges faced by teaching staff include a lack of technical support/advice, lack of training courses, technical background, home internet access, and adaptive technology. Therefore, some teaching staff has basic computer literacy skills. However, these skills may not be adequate to use E-learning in teaching as well as developing e-content, so teaching staff needs technical support, training and access to the internet. The benefits of implementing training courses support professional background and improvement of literacy skills for teaching staff are to get successful E-learning. Also, teaching staff needs providing with some knowledge about how to upload/download the audio/video material, PDF, PowerPoint…etc.

Table 5 *Administrative challenges for teaching staff*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Lack of administrative support</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>0.972</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Problems with internet access</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>0.857</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Change in faculty role</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>0.847</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Lack of administrative encouragement</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>0.845</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Negative comments about E-learning</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>0.832</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Inadequate ICT (Information Communication Technology) and E-learning</td>
<td>4.05</td>
<td>0.937</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>infrastructure</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3.88</strong></td>
<td><strong>0.56</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in the above table, the overall mean for the administrative challenges domain is (3.88), and the standard deviation is (0.56) which face the teaching staff. They agree that they face administrative challenges when they implement E-learning when teaching English. The factors that most affect implementing E-learning are the inadequate ICT and E-learning infrastructure (4.05), problems with internet access (3.97) and lack of administrative encouragement (3.85). Then, some negative comments about E-learning (3.68).

This study presents, administrative challenges of teaching staff are inadequate ICT and E-learning infrastructure, problems with internet access, lack of administrative encouragement and some negative attitudes towards E-learning. It observes clearly that the inadequate of E-learning is the most critical factors to full implementation of successful E-learning. The University of Bisha is a Saudi university with substantial infrastructure in ICT and E-learning. It provides adequate technological infrastructure, including network connections and computers, and technical support for both students and teaching staff. Therefore, the problems with internet access or other administrative issues solved through the implementation of E-learning. Lack of some teaching staff or students' knowledge about E-learning who have the literacy of computer skills and the internet has negative comments/viewpoints. Research shows that the strong infrastructure in the University of Bisha is implementing E-learning possible quite easily. All teaching staff and students should benefit from this infrastructure and facilities through the implementation of E-learning.

Table 6 Academic challenges for students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lack of interaction between students and teaching staff</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>0.776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lack of Time required to have online exams/assignments</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.763</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Inaccessibility of course notes/materials</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.765</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>0.219</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As in Table six, the overall mean for the academic challenges domain for students is (1.88), and the standard deviation is (0.219). They disagree that they haven't any academic challenges when they implement E-learning for studying English. The most items affect implementing E-learning lack of time required to have online exams/assignments (4.16), inaccessibility, of course, notes/materials (4.00) and lack of interaction between students and teaching staff (3.93).

It observed that the academic challenges of students are the time required to exams/assignments, the way of interaction between instructors and students, and inaccessibility, of course, notes/materials. The study revealed that online exam or assignments take a limited time of short duration to avoid these challenges. As a result, most students are busy with the routine of daily life, studying and homework or fun. The benefit is that students easily can get their marks at the same time. It can do at any time and place. Students also can check and study their course materials anywhere and anytime as well.
Table 7 Administrative challenges for students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Problems with internet access</td>
<td>4.11</td>
<td>0.824</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Negative comments about E-learning</td>
<td>3.88</td>
<td>0.729</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Inadequate ICT and E-learning infrastructure</td>
<td>4.07</td>
<td>0.808</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.87</td>
<td>0.287</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table seven presents the overall mean for the administrative challenges domain for students is (1.87), and the standard deviation is (0.287). The respondents disagree that they don't face any administrative challenges when they implement E-learning to the study of English. The most items affect implementing E-learning problems with internet access (4.11), inadequate ICT and E-learning infrastructure (4.07) and negative attitude towards E-learning (3.88).

It highlights that the administrative challenges of students are: inadequate ICT and E-learning infrastructure, problems with internet access and some negative attitude towards E-learning. The University of Bisha provides adequate technological infrastructure, including network connections and computers, and technical support for both students and teaching staff. Therefore, the problems with internet access or other administrative issues already solved through the implementation of E-learning. Researcher realized that the strong infrastructure in the University of Bisha is making implantation of E-learning simpler. All teaching staff and students should benefit from all this infrastructure and facilities through the implantation of E-learning.

Table 8 Technology challenges for students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Lack of technology/software required for home access</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>0.792</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Lack of technical support/advice</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Inaccessibility of audio/video material, PDF, PowerPoint</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.775</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Lack of training courses provided by the institution</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>0.770</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>The software of E-learning is too complicated to use of</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>0.799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>0.375</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table eight presents the overall mean for the technical challenges domain for students (3.41), and the standard deviation is (0.375). They agree that they have technical challenges when they use E-learning to study English. The most important factor affecting the implementation of E-learning is lack of technology/software required for home access (4.16). There is a similarity between two statements in their means as inaccessibility of audio/video material; PDF, PowerPoint and lack of technical support provided by the institution mean (4.06). Other factors are lack of technical support/advice (4.02) and software for E-learning being found too complicated to use (4.00).

It reveals the technical challenges facing students in the lack of technical support/advice, lack of training courses, and inadequate home internet access. So, E-learning software is too complicated to use. Therefore, some students have basic computer literacy skills. These skills may
not be adequate to use E-learning in teaching, so students need technical support, training and access to the internet. The benefits of training courses and improving literacy skills for the students are to make successful use of E-learning.

**Recommendations**

The factors for the successful use of E-learning determined by presence or absence of the success factors of E-learning. In this study, the presence of challenges can be the cause of failure, while the lack of challenges can be the cause of success. Therefore, this study recommends the following:

1. Comprehensive training of teaching staff as well as students in the field of E-learning skills. Training on E-learning skills considered as a successful implementation of E-learning.
2. Adopt a blended learning approach at the beginning of the implementation of full-scale E-learning.
3. Introduce compulsory E-learning courses in the curricula for all students, particularly in the first and second year of study to equip them with E-learning skills as well as improve accessibility to E-learning.

**Conclusion**

The study attempts to find out the challenges EFL students face in learning English at the University of Bisha when using an E-learning system. This study also investigates whether using E-learning is beneficial to EFL students in learning English to the degree anticipated. It emerges that implementation of E-learning at University of Bisha is facing many challenges which include but are not limited to academic challenges, administrative challenges and technical challenges. There are also some disadvantages, such as some skills as speaking are harder to practice online. Further problems could include technical issues such as some students who are unable to learn individually. Therefore, they need direction from a teacher. On the other hand, the advantages of E-learning for students are, to some extent, capable of adjusting learning to suit their individual learning needs and time requirements. It is captivating as well as motivating for them. Tests and assignments immediately assesses, and the content of the course is possible to be kept up-to-date.

The study shows that the challenges as mentioned above in implementing E-learning make them imperative for Saudi universities to overcome them. There have been no two opinions that statistically significant differences between students who have challenges and those who don't have challenges through the E-learning method. It means that students improves their skills due to the participation in the E-learning course throughout the term.

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Ja'ashan

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The Effect of Semantic Mapping and Question Generation Teaching Strategies on English as a Second Language Tertiary Students’ Reading achievement

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Abstract
This study aimed at investigating the effect of two strategies of teaching reading: ‘semantic mapping’ and ‘question generation’ on the reading achievement of a sample of 40 female students enrolling in two classes in Level 2 English as a Second Language Foundation Program at the Community College of Qatar. The researcher of the current study tried to find ways to help solve the problems of students’ low achievement in reading comprehension tests. Convenient sampling was used to select the two classes as the researcher herself was teaching them. The two classes of 20 students each constituted two experimental groups. One class was taught by the semantic mapping strategy, and the other was taught by students’ question-generation strategy. A pre-posttests design was used in both experimental groups. T-test computed on the pretests in both classes revealed that the groups were equivalent. The researcher established the validity and reliability of all the components of the study: the pre-posttest and the instructional material. The instructional material selected for the intervention consisted of four extra expository texts, which are not written in students’ textbooks. After analyzing students’ results on the pre-post tests using two T-Test statistical analyses, it was found out that there were significant differences in the mean scores of each group on the pre-post tests, which reveals that each individual strategy has significantly influenced the group achievement. In order to investigate which teaching strategy was significantly better than the other was a third T-test on the post-tests, mean scores in both groups were computed. The results were in favor of the experimental group, which was taught by the Semantic Mapping Strategy. In light of these findings, the researcher suggested several recommendations directed to ESL instructors, curricula designers, and researchers

Keywords: Semantic Maps, Question Generation, Foundation Level, EFL students, Community College of Qatar

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Introduction
In this rapidly-changing world, "the challenge of teaching is to help students develop skills which will not become obsolete" (Clouston, 1997, p.1). Successful readers are always referred to as active learners who engage in metacognitive activities which include planning before reading, monitoring and understanding through reading and checking outcomes after reading (Palinesar and Brown, 1985)

Derivation of meaning from the reading text is a fundamental task in any reading. The reader must learn how to adapt reading behavior to specific tasks. Central to the cognitive approach in teaching English as a second language is activating learners’ ability to generate questions on the text, which helps them to utilize various thinking skills.

On the other hand, constructing meaning in a written text is based on understanding the relationship between the main ideas and the sub-ideas of written discourse. In the current study, pedagogical interventions were conducted in two classes to investigate which cognitive strategy is better for enhancing comprehension. These strategies were semantic mapping and students’ question generation.

The theoretical background of the study
Second language learning-teaching process has passed through several dramatic changes in paradigms, theories, and practices that determine the way reading is perceived. Grabe and Stoller (2001) remarked that in such a century as the 21st, training readers to be good comprehenders, goal-oriented, and strategic is the crucial purpose of teaching reading. In order to produce such readers, there should be certain teaching strategies that help students to construct meaning in a reading text, to be able to utilize higher thinking strategies, and to make use of all the mental, social, visual aids to build their autonomy in learning.

Cognitive psychology paved the way for what is so-called "comprehension revolution" (Pearson, 1985), which stressed new trends in learning and the role of learners. Here, the learner is perceived as a person who can use his mental activities to construct meaning, make inferences, generate questions, analyze the text into its main ideas and sub-ideas and control his/her learning strategies. Researchers such as Wenden and Rubin (1987) stated that the ability of students to generate questions on the reading text is considered a basic cognitive strategy that characterizes successful readers. Paterno (2000) proposed other critical reading strategies. They included questioning about the context for understanding and remembering, outlining, identifying, and summarizing the main ideas and restating them in one's own words. Roberts and Erdos (1993) emphasized the idea that metacognitive strategies may overlap in that the same strategy, such as questioning, could be regarded as either a cognitive or a metacognitive strategy depending on what the purpose for using that strategy may be.

Grabe and Stoller (2001) reported that strategic readers make use of wide repertoire of strategies in combination rather than in separated applications. They are previewing a text, predicting what will come later in a text, summarizing, learning new words through the analysis of word stems and affixes, using context to maintain comprehension, recognizing text...
organization, generating appropriate questions about the text, clarifying text meaning, and repairing miscomprehension.

**Question-generation reading strategy**

One of the reading strategies that is said to be a combination of cognitive and metacognitive skills is Question Generation. It is a crucial comprehension-fostering and self-regulatory cognitive strategy (Palincsar & Brown, 1985). The act of composing questions focuses the students’ attention on content. It involves concentrating on main ideas while checking to see if the content is understood. Garcia and Pearson (1990) suggested that ‘question generation’ is one component of teaching students to carry out higher-level cognitive functions for themselves. When students generate questions about what they have read, they are actively processing text information and monitoring their understanding of that information. As a result, their text comprehension improves. Question-Generation reading strategy has roots in the interactive generative model of processing a written text. Wittrock (1991) stated that the generative model of teaching reading comprehension and the learning of the types of relations that learners must construct between stored knowledge and new information for comprehension are essential for understanding to occur.

Wittrock (1991) concluded that successful teaching of the generative processes attends to three factors: preconceptions, knowledge, and student perceptions. He added that it is essential to change students’ perceptions of their roles in learning from recording and memorizing information to generating understanding by relating concepts to their experiences and their knowledge base. Wittrock (1991) also stated the practical ways to stimulate Generation. They include discussing the titles and headings, predicting information after analyzing them, writing summaries, stating objectives, creating own questions, drawing graphs, preparing tables, and constructing main ideas. What Wittrock (1991) stressed is the idea that an interactive approach recognizes the importance of both the text and reader in the reading process. According to Brisk and Harrington (2000), the question-generation strategy will "facilitate reading comprehension and foster recall by walking students through the steps of the reading process: stimulating background knowledge, predicting, actual reading, and synthesizing” p.62. First, the subject matter of the reading is presented to the students to provide information, teach essential vocabulary explicitly, and allow students to make connections to what they already know.

The students then write questions about the subject matter. Students can brainstorm the questions as a class, in pairs, or independently. The next step of the strategy involves the students guessing the answers to the questions. After completing these pre-reading activities, students receive the text to read. The actual reading may occur in a variety of ways. Students may read the text alone, with a partner, in a small group, aloud with the whole class, or even at home. Since this strategy focuses on comprehension, the student may also read the text without the teacher’s assistance. After reading, the students need to check their guessed answers. Students change incorrect answers and expand on answers that need more information. When the learners ask suitable questions, they can then find relevant information to answer questions, monitor their comprehension, and help other learners answer questions they raised. To conclude, students complete a writing assignment to show what they have learned about the subject from reading (Brisk & Harrington, 2000).
When questioning, the learner is exploring the meaning of the text in depth. Self-generated questioning allows the learner to identify the kind of information that provides the substance for an appropriate question and to frame questions - before, during, and after the reading.

Several researchers talked about prompts used to help students generate questions. Muskingum (2003) considered the title, the paragraph headings, pictures, and italics as prompts to help students create predicting questions. These are mostly visual. Another procedural prompt is based on the work of Pearson (1985), who divided all questions into three types; each type is based on a particular kind of relationship between a question and its answer and the cognitive processes required to move from the former to the latter. The three types of questions are a question whose answer can be found in a single sentence, a question that requires integrating two or more sentences of the text, and a question whose answer can’t be found in the text but rather requires that readers use their schemata or background knowledge. Discussing the same area, AL-Debes (2004) differentiated among three types of questions. Referential questions are questions whose answers are directly and explicitly shown in the passage. Inferential questions are questions whose answers are not explicitly shown in the text. They need some manipulation of the text to find the answers. The researcher needs to depend on certain syntactic, semantic, and situational clues. Main idea questions are questions whose answers show the intentions and the main idea of the paragraph.

The self-questioning strategy for use during a reading task should be described by the teacher first in some detail, followed by descriptions of how the strategy is used before and after reading. There are three phases in the reading lesson where students can generate questions provided that they are trained on formong questions (Robinson, Smith, & Richman, 2005).

- The Before Reading Self-Questioning Strategy: Here, the teacher helps his students to preview the reading text by asking themselves questions using the title or available pictures as hints.
- The During Reading Self-Questioning Strategy: Here the teacher train students to create questions as they are reading the sections in the text.
- The After Reading Self-Questioning Strategy: Here, the teacher trains the students on answering the questions and applying self-testing and peer-testing information that should have been gained from the text.

**Semantic Mapping**

In addition to question-generation reading strategy, the cognitive theory has given way to a new strategy that can be used not only in teaching English but also in all educational subjects. That strategy is ‘Semantic Mapping’. Semantic mapping relates to four theories and areas: graphic organizers of Ausubel, schema theory, the educational significance of visual learning and communication, and Piaget’s Theory.

The idea of a graphic organizer stemmed from Ausbel’s view of meaningful learning (Novak, 2004). Ausbel stated that meaningful learning results when a person consciously and explicitly ties new knowledge to relevant concepts and experience he/she already possesses. This is why meaningful learning is lasting and powerful, whereas rote learning is quickly forgotten and
not easily applied in new learning or problem-solving situations. Its use showed significant results in improving comprehension.

Schema theory, which refers to way knowledge of concept is organized and stored in memory in the form of categories or slots, is frequently used to explain and test the effectiveness of organizers. Stott (2001) talked about another type of schema theory. He stated that this theory describes the process through which readers combine their background knowledge with the information in the text. The information within the existing schemata is known as prior knowledge and is believed to perform a crucial function in the learning process (Harp & Brewer, 1996).

Avegerinou & Ericson (1997) related graphic organizer to sensory learning stating that “the way one learns bears a strong relationship to the way his/ her senses operate” and “a very high proportion of all sensory learning is visual” (p.287). According to Ellis (2000), graphic organizers make reading content easier, to understand and learn as they make information more precise and less fuzzy. Then, graphic organizers reduce information-processing demands, as learners do not need to process as semantic information to understand the text because its structure is readily apparent.

Zaid (1995) suggested five phases to implement the Semantic Mapping Strategy. These are introducing the topic, brainstorming, categorization, personalizing the map, post-assignment synthesis. As Olson and Gee (1991) note that the use of various colored chalk or markers at each step of semantic mapping tends to promote student conceptualization and structuring of the topic and helps them recognize the different sources of information. Zaid (1995) suggested certain steps for teaching reading using Semantic Mapping. These steps are introducing the topic, brainstorming, categorization, personalizing the map, and post-assignment synthesis.

Empirical studies
Saft (2003) conducted a case study on a Fourth-Grade Ethiopian ESL student called Kiara. She experienced difficulty in the areas of reading and writing. She has difficulty comprehending text. Throughout one semester, graphic organizers were used in reading and writing to help organize her thoughts and to improve her comprehension. Kiara had begun to make progress in both reading comprehension and writing because of these two approaches.

Chularut and DeBacker (2004) investigated the effectiveness of concept mapping used as a learning strategy with students in English as a second language classroom. The findings showed a statistically significant interaction of time, method of instruction, and level of English proficiency for self-monitoring, self-efficacy, and achievement for all four-outcome variables, the concept mapping group showed significantly greater gains than the individual study group.

El-Koumy (1999) conducted a study, the purpose of which was to compare the effects of the semantic mapping strategies on the reading comprehension of learners of English as a foreign language. The subjects of the study were 187 freshmen enrolled in the department of French at the faculty of Arts, Menoufia University, Egypt. (1) teacher-initiated semantic mapping, (2) student-mediated semantic mapping, and (3) teacher-student interactive semantic mapping. The results showed no significant differences in the mean scores on the pre-test among the three groups of the
The Effect of Semantic Mapping and Question Generation Teaching Strategies

Sabbah

The post-test results revealed that students in the teacher-interactive semantic mapping group scored significantly higher than the teacher-initiated.

Therrien, Wickstrom, and Kevin (2006) conducted a research to ascertain if a combined Repeated Reading and Question-Generation intervention was effective at improving the reading achievement of fourth through eighth-grade students with learning disabilities. Students receiving the intervention i.e., those who were taught by question Generation strategy and Repeated Reading significantly improved their reading speed and ability to answer inferential comprehension questions on passages that were reread.

Kawabata (2007) proposed a program that could be used for EFL classes to teach reading strategies. The objectives of the program are 1. to enable students to understand the text structure of a particular genre, find the main idea of the text, learn new vocabulary, and learn effective learning strategies to develop reading comprehension. Kawabata suggested using articles from the newspaper. Among suggested strategies was students’ generating questions.

The previously-mentioned literature review reveals the following points:

1. Learners exposed to reading strategy instruction will reap good gains in reading achievement tests.
2. There is scarcity, if not unavailability in experimental studies, which investigated the effects of Semantic Mapping and Question Generation Strategies.
3. Studies that were conducted on using reading strategies, especially Semantic Mapping, in teaching Expository reading texts, were rare.

The current study tried to find that kind of relation between semantic mapping strategy and question generation strategy with expository texts.

Statement of the Problem

Foundation Program students in the Community College of Qatar find it challenging to comprehend reading passages as measured in their low grades in the reading comprehension tests. Analyzing students’ results, one can quickly realize that a high number of them will try to look for a keyword in the question, which appears in the text and will write down all the words before and after that keyword as an expected answer to the target question regardless of the meaning. When coming to questions with higher thinking levels as inference, analysis, synthesis, or evaluation, they will get lost. Thus, the students seem to lack the appropriate strategies to foster their abilities in reading comprehension. This situation might be attributed to many reasons, one of which is the lack of specific training on the best strategies of dealing with texts. It is hoped that this study might help to find solutions to this dilemma by applying two reading strategies, namely the ‘Question-Generation Strategy’ and the ‘Semantic Mapping’ aiming at investigating whether these two strategies have a positive impact on students’ achievement in reading comprehension or not.

Significance of the Study

The study is significant for teachers and students, as well. It came to show whether or not students will benefit from a training course on different strategies especially those that relate to cognitive and metacognitive ones such as how to plan, to analyze and then classify ideas into categories or
semantic slots, to generate one’s own questions, to utilize one’s schematic experience when necessary, to synthesize the ideas in a meaningful summary and monitor their understanding. In this way, teachers can fulfill the two main principles of modern trends in teaching English, namely training students in learning how to learn and enhancing their long-life learning.

**Purpose of the Study**
This study aims to explore the possible effects of two strategies, namely students’ self-generated comprehension questions and semantic mapping on the reading achievement of ESL female students enrolling in Level 2 in the Foundation Program at the Community College of Qatar.

**Study Hypothesis.**
The study aims to verify the following null hypothesis

There are statistically significant differences at \( \alpha \leq 0.05 \) between the achievement mean scores attained by the experimental group who was taught reading via Semantic Mapping and the mean scores achieved by the experimental group who was taught reading via the Question Generation strategy.

**Definitions of Terms**

**Semantic mapping**: Al-Debes (1995) defines a semantic map as “A reading strategy that uses a diagram to depict the interrelationships and hierarchies of the content of reading texts” (p.9). It has the central idea in an oval or any geometric shape in the middle of the diagram, while the supporting details having another geometric shape in a second layer.

**Question-Generation Reading Strategy**: Robinson, Smith & Richman (2005) define the question-generation reading strategy as “A self-questioning strategy is a set of steps that a student follows to generate, think about, predict, investigate, and answer questions that satisfy curiosity about what is being read (p.101). As one of the meta-cognitive strategies, ‘question-generation’ refers to writing post-reading questions using students’ generated questions to develop an understanding of the important information in the text. By deciding what to ask, students think about what is important in the text.

**Expository text**: It is one type of discourse genre. It refers to the texts that expose ideas and information in style similar to the scientific way where cause-effect relationships, contrastive ideas, discourse markers as those expressing addition, condition, purpose, concession, and sequence are used to join sentences together.

**Limitations of the Study**
1. The findings of this study will depend on the validity and reliability of the tests conducted by the researcher.
2. The study will be restricted to the population of the female students in the Foundation Program, studying English as a second language.
3. The study will be restricted to the expository genre of texts.
4. The study will be restricted to the following cognitive reading strategies: Semantic Mapping and Question Generation.
Design of the Study
The researcher used the quasi-experimental pre-posttests design comparing the results of two experimental groups on a post-test: one was taught by question-generation strategy, and the other was taught by semantic mapping strategy.

Population of the Study
The population of the study consisted of all Level 2 female students enrolling in the Foundation program at the Community College of Qatar in the second semester of the academic year 2018-2019.

Sample of the Study
This study followed the quasi-experimental design. The researcher used convenient sampling to select the two Level 2 classes available to the researcher as she was assigned to teach two Level 2 female classes. The total sample consisted of 40 students, 20 in each class. One class was selected randomly to constitute the first experimental group that was taught reading texts using the semantic mapping, and the other experimental group was taught by question-generation.

Period of the Intervention
The intervention lasted for four weeks of 12-class periods, one hour each.

Instrument of the Study
One instrument was used for the study: Reading Achievement Test. This was used as Pre- and Post-test. It consisted of an unseen expository reading text. The title of the text is “How to preserve food.” The text consisted of five paragraphs; each one explains one method of food preservation. It is generally compatible with the average level of the students according to the readability equation of the CEFR-the Common European Framework of Reference. The whole test was out of 100.

The Instructional Material
To implement the study, the researcher chose four expository texts from the AMRA-EFL textbook. The titles of the reading comprehension texts are:
1. Stress and Pressure
2. Make it meaningful; make it active.
3. Data on the Fast Lane
4. Wedding in Britain versus wedding in Japan

The Reliability of the Test
In order to establish the reliability of the reading comprehension test, it was administered to a pilot group of 30 students chosen randomly from the population of the study and not included in the sample of the study. The students were tested and retested after 15 days. By using Pearson Formula, the reliability coefficient of stability was 85%.
The validity of the test and the instructional material
In order to establish the validity of the research instrument and the instructional program, a jury of TEFL specialists were consulted for the appropriateness of the reading achievement test in terms of the number of the questions, the appropriateness of the reading texts, the general production of the test, the marks allotted for each question, pertinence of question category and the clarity of the questions and the suitability of the font by which the exam was typed. The jury consisted of four university professors. The instrument and the instructional material were modified in response to their comments.

Study Procedures
This study was conducted in the 2nd semester of the academic year 2018-2019. The researcher herself taught the two experimental classes. The researcher followed the stages mentioned in Walker (1996) to teach reading comprehension by Question Generation Strategy, but with some adaptation. The researcher told the students in both experimental groups about the problem she had noticed in their reading practices and explained that the following activity might help them. Thus they knew the rationale for the implementation of the activity.

Steps of teaching by ‘question-generation strategy.’
This procedure was implemented at three stages of the lesson: before, during, and after reading the allotted texts.

Pre-reading stage
1. The researcher applied brainstorming to utilize students' prior knowledge of the topics of the texts. She made use of the titles of the texts. She discussed the meanings of the main vocabulary items. Students were encouraged to ask each other questions to know each other’s prior knowledge. At this stage, no attention was given to the structure of the questions as long as the class understood them. Then, the researcher led students to apply the different skills to understand the allotted texts. Students applied skimming, scanning, discussions.
2. Then, the researcher discussed how to write questions:
   - A question has an answer.
   - A good question begins with a question word like who, what, when, where, or why.
   - A good question can be answered using the information in the text.
   - A good question asked about critical information in the text.

During-assignment stage
1. The researcher selected a short paragraph from the instructional material and modeled writing questions about the important information in the text.
2. The students wrote questions after they read a short paragraph.
3. The students answered their questions.
4. The students were divided into heterogeneous groups. They were asked to form questions on the other paragraphs and to compare their questions and answers with the teacher’s questions and answers.
5. The researcher asked individual students, one by one, to create her questions.
6. The researcher gives feedback about the importance of the questions.
7. The students write questions about the important information in their assigned text.
Post-reading stage

8. Photocopies of a grid that contains three columns were distributed to each student. Each student had to write some questions in the first column. Then, the answers were in the second column. In the third column, another student will answer the same questions. Finally, they can compare their answers.

9. Students were given homework: to write three wh-questions on the text they had read on that particular day.

Steps of teaching by semantic mapping strategy

For teaching reading using the Semantic Mapping Strategy, the researcher followed the stages mentioned by Zaid (1995). This strategy was used at three stages of the lesson: before, during, and after the text explanation.

Pre-reading stage

1. Introducing the topic: After determining the texts to be taught by a semantic mapping strategy, the researcher announced the topic of the unit by drawing a large oval on the chalkboard writing the topic inside it.

2. Brainstorming: The researcher asked the students to think of ideas that might be related to this topic. This brainstorming phase allowed students to make use of their previous knowledge or experiences. At this stage, the researcher drew some of their prior knowledge categorizations using links and arrows from the central oval she drew in the middle of the blackboard. These ideas were just experimental, and they needed correction or elaboration at the second stage. During this categorization, the researcher introduced vocabulary words that students might need during the next phase of the activity. Once the pre-assignment semantic map (representing what the students know before doing the assignment) had been drawn on the chalkboard, the researcher had the students make their copies on their notebooks.

During-reading stage

3. Categorization: Students skimmed and scanned the text. The overall discussion was allowed. The researcher asked wh-questions (Who, What, When, Where, How) to prompt them to think of categories. Then, the researcher encouraged the students to see relationships among their suggestions as "category clusters" (Antonacci, 1991, p.174) were formed. The researcher urged students to draw the before-lesson semantic map. Then the researcher erased it from the blackboard. Then, using the same colored chalk employed in brainstorming, the researcher recorded the elicited ideas in nodes connected by spoke-like straight lines leading from the central node different shapes from that at the primary level.

The map was modified as the class began to organize and integrate the individual suggestions. This "pulling together" phase allowed students, as they began to relate ideas, to see the connections between the ideas. In this phase, the students gained experience in practicing some valuable cognitive skills, particularly categorization and exemplifying, but also (depending on the topic) comparing and contrasting, cause and effect, inference making, and forming judgments.

4. Personalizing the map: Students were asked to draw the during-assignment semantic map in their notebooks and then to compare it with the pre-assignment map. Each student was allowed
to add one or two sub-ideas that they felt important but not written in the text. New information was thereby integrated with prior knowledge.

**Post-reading stage**

5. **Post-assignment synthesis:** The last part of the class period was used to implement discussion centered on the amount of information acquired from the reading and how it had modified the original map. The researcher stated that all personal versions had validity and that even when a suggestion for modifying the chalkboard version of the map is rejected by the class, this does not mean the suggestion is without merit. The class as a whole decided the final shape that the map would take. The new version, with its different colors and shapes, highlighted what they knew before they did the assignment from what they started to know. It served as a visual representation of the knowledge they had gained from the assignment.

Finally, the map—either in its final chalkboard form or the personalized version made by each student—served as a springboard for other language activities. The map was used as an outline for the writing of a short essay on the topic. Sometimes, one segment of the map was used in the writing of a paragraph.

**Findings of the Study**

To analyze the data obtained from the pre-post tests in both experimental groups, the researcher used the following statistical analysis.

1. In order to ensure the equivalence of the two groups on the pre-test, the paired sample T-Test was used. The result showed that the two groups were equivalent before starting the intervention. Table 1 shows that.

**Equivalency between the two groups**

Table 1: *Paired Sample T-test to show the Equivalency between the two experimental groups*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Paired Differences (Pre-Post)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Question-Generation</td>
<td>72.70</td>
<td>9.92</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-1.30</td>
<td>-1.242</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.229</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic Maps</td>
<td>74.00</td>
<td>9.17</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*:Significance at the level of (0.05)

Not Significant

2. The paired sample T-Test was used on the pre-post-tests in the first group, which was taught reading by ‘Question-Generation strategy’ to find out if students’ mean scores on the pre-post tests were significant. The results showed that the mean scores were significant. This means that the Question-Generation strategy had a significant impact on students’ achievement. Table (2) reveals the results.
Table 2: *paired Sample T-test students’ pre-posttests mean scores in the experimental group taught by Question-Generation Strategy*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Paired Differences (Pre-Post)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre- test</td>
<td>71.65</td>
<td>10.82</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-10.80</td>
<td>-7.743</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Test</td>
<td>82.45</td>
<td>7.36</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant**

3. The paired sample T-Test was used on the pre-posttests in the second experimental group that was taught reading by Semantic-Mapping strategy to find out if students’ mean scores on the pre-posttests were significant. The results showed that the mean scores were significant. This means that the Semantic mapping strategy had a significant impact on students’ achievement. Table (2) reveals the results.

Table (3): *paired Sample T-test on the students’ pre-posttests mean scores in the experimental group taught by Semantic Mapping strategy.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Paired Differences (Pre-Post)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre- test</td>
<td>74.50</td>
<td>11.43</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-12.90</td>
<td>-7.743</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.000*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post Test</td>
<td>87.40</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant**

The previously-mentioned tables show that there was a significant difference between the mean scores attained by students in the pre-and posttest in favor of the two experimental groups who were taught via the Semantic Mapping Strategy and the Question-Generation strategy. In other words, the two strategies proved to be significantly effective, each in its experimental group.

4. To compare between the two experimental groups and to find out whether one strategy is more significant than the other, The Paired Sample T-Test was used on the mean scores of the posttests attained by students in both experimental groups: the Question-generation group and the Semantic mapping group to find out which mean scores of the post-tests were significant.

Table 4: *paired Sample T-test on the post-tests according to the teaching strategy*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Paired Differences (Pre-Post)</th>
<th>T value</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Generation</td>
<td>82.45</td>
<td>7.36</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>-4.950</td>
<td>-2.266</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>0.035*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semantic Maps</td>
<td>87.40</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significant**

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The Effect of Semantic Mapping and Question Generation Teaching Strategies

Sabbah

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Table 4 shows that the mean scores of the post-test of students who were taught by Semantic Mapping strategy were significant. This means that there was a significant difference between the mean scores attained by students in the posttest in favor of the Semantic Mapping Strategy over the Question-Generation Strategy.

**Discussion of the results**

Both strategies: the Question-Generation and the Semantic mapping proved to be significantly effective in teaching. However, when comparing the mean scores of students’ post-tests in both groups, the Semantic Mapping group proved to be more significantly effective than the Question-Generation Strategy. This might be attributed to the idea that using visuals to facilitate learning was pedagogically effective. This is consistent with Olson’s and Gee’s study (1991), which revealed that the use of different colored chalk or markers at each step of semantic mapping tends to promote student conceptualization and structuring of the topic and helps them recognize the different sources of information. The results of the current study are also compatible with those obtained by the studies conducted by Darayseh (2003), Al-Debes (2004), Hammash (2005), Zaghlool (2003), Harper et al., (2003), and Kawabata (2007). They all used the experimental approach in which they compared the effectiveness of teaching via semantic mapping and the control groups via the traditional way. They found out that those students in the experimental groups gained better marks than those in the traditional group on a post-reading comprehension test.

**Recommendations**

In light of the findings of this study, the researcher suggests the following recommendations to ESL instructors, curriculum designers, and researchers:

1. The tertiary-level curriculum designers should include such strategies as Semantic Mapping and Question Generation and many others in the curriculum, in the teachers’ curriculum manuals and in teacher professional development in-service training programs, as many instructors are not acquainted with such strategies.
2. Researchers are invited to conduct similar studies to the current one. Besides, they are called upon to investigate the effectiveness of using other strategies in reading and other language skills.
3. Instructors should be eclectic in selecting the pedagogical approach, strategies, and techniques they utilize in the classroom.

**Conclusion**

Reading comprehension is a skill that embodies constructing meaning. This cannot be achieved except through involving students in analyzing the text by relating the text topic to their prior knowledge, by knowing the relationships and links among its ideas, by asking their questions on the text, and by synthesizing its separate ideas again and transferring them into a meaningful discourse or a semantic map. As both reading strategies, namely the semantic maps and the question generation, have proved efficacy with more significance to the semantic mapping, it would be advisable that teachers need to be eclectic in their pedagogical strategies so that they can satisfy all students’ needs in mixed ability classes.
The Effect of Semantic Mapping and Question Generation Teaching Strategies

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Discourse Markers in Arabic and English Newspaper Articles: The Case of the Arabic Lakin and its English equivalent But

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Abstract
Discourse markers, as words or phrases, play a significant role in promoting coherent segments of discourse. This paper investigates the use of discourse markers (DMs) in newspaper articles. By applying Fraser’s framework, this study aims at investigating the functions and positions of DM but (English) and its equivalent lakin (Arabic) in newspaper articles written by native and non-native speakers of English and Saudi and Egyptian speakers of Arabic. It also highlights the similarities and differences in the functions and positions of DMs but and lakin. This quantitative study adopts a corpus-based approach. The data consist of articles collected from 12 newspapers categorized as: Arabic language newspapers published in Saudi Arabia (Alriyadh, Al Jazirah, Al-Hayat) and Egypt (Al-Ahram, Al-Gomhuria, Eltahrir) and English language newspapers published in Saudi Arabia (Arab News, Saudi Gazette, Asharq Al-Awsat) and the USA (Washington Post, The New York Times, USA TODAY). Findings demonstrate, first, that DM but is used frequently as a confirmation or addition marker by both native and non-native speakers. However, second, lakin, functions as the primary correction DM in standard Arabic. Moreover, third, the native Arabic speakers mostly share the same functions of using lakin despite different dialects they have. This study also reveals that lakin can be found only in the medial position, whereas, but is found in the initial and medial position. It concludes that DMs but and lakin evidence that functions of DMs proposed by Fraser are universal and they could be generalized.

Keywords: Arabic and English newspaper articles, but, discourse markers, functions and positions, lakin

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Introduction

Discourse markers “are items in spoken discourse which act as signposts of discourse coherence” (Paltridge, 2012, p. 102) and include interjections, *oh*, conjunctions, *but*, adverbs, *now* and lexical choices, for instance, *y’know*. In an utterance, DMs can exit at the beginning, middle or end as anaphoric (pointing back) and cataphoric (pointing forward) types of references. A DM has different functions, for instance, *oh* acts as a marker of information management and signposts an emotional state, and initiates a self-repair. The DM *but* is used to preface a unit of an idea, *now* can be used to indicate a forthcoming idea or a comparison and *y’know* is implanted to attain involvement and consensus of hearers. DMs also establish a relationship between different discourse segments and carry a core meaning. However, their specific interpretation depends on a linguistic and conceptual context in which an item occurs. Some speakers of English may use DMs for a variety of pragmatic functions, while others may use them in a restricted way. Typically functional DMs are and, but, OK (Paltridge, 2012). DMs “signal relations between discourse units… play an important role in the parsing of natural language discourse and their correspondence with discourse relations can be exploited for the unsupervised learning of discourse relations” (Hutchinson, 2004, p. 684).

Schiffrin’s (1987) initial work defined DMs as “sequentially dependent elements that bracket units of talk” (p. 31). By this, DMs are named as “utterance-initial items” (Schiffrin, 2001, p. 57) which are non-obligatory and function in the context of an in-progress talk and text. According to Schiffrin, DMs are a set of linguistic expressions that include varied words classes such as conjunctions (*and*, *but*, *or*) interjections (*oh*), adverbs (*now*, *then*) and lexicalized phrases such as *y’know*, *I mean*, etc. There are three different perspectives on DMs: semantic perspective, discourse perspective and pragmatic approach (Schiffrin, 2001). DMs are separate from other function words; they frequently occur at the beginning to continue the conversation. Discourse markers “ALL have the latter, pragmatic functions rather than the former, narrowly semantic, ones” (Zwicky, 1985, p. 304).

Fraser (1999) defined DMs are lexical expressions, that relate various discourse segments. They are drawn from syntactic classes of adverbs, conjunctions and prepositional phrase. With their interpretation negotiated by both linguistic and conceptual context, DMs have a core meaning, which is procedural rather than conceptual. Fraser’s classification has three types. First, contrastive markers (e.g., *but*, contrary to this, in contrast to, nevertheless) signal that interpretation of the second sentence contrast with that of the first one. Second, elaborative markers (e.g., *above all*, *also*, *besides*, *I mean*, similarly, moreover) signal a quasi-parallel relationship between the second and the first sentence. Third, inferential markers (e.g., *thus*, *so*, *as a result*, *of course*, *therefore*, *hence*, *then*) signal that the second sentence should be taken a conclusion based on the first one (Fraser, 1999).

Since the study of DMs is of great theoretical and practical significance, we try to find out discourse functions of the most frequently used DMs *but* and *lakin* by analyzing 12 Arabic and English language newspapers. Through examining some examples, we can get a better understanding of the functions of DMs and also how they are used. By applying Fraser’s framework, this study aims at investigating the functions and positions of the DM *but* (English) and its equivalent *lakin* (Arabic) in newspaper articles written by native and non-native speakers.
of English and Saudi and Egyptian speakers of Arabic. It also highlights the similarities and differences in the functions and positions of DMs but and lakin. The first section of the study, introduction, presents some scholarly definitions of DMs. The second section presents a review of previous studies about DMs in general and the DM but and its equivalent in Arabic (lakin). The third section unfolds methodology, sampling, and the framework which we are using and discussing and defining the corpus, which is our data collector. The fifth section analyzes the data, obtained from the corpus, under Fraser’s framework. Finally, in section five, we conclude by summarizing Fraser’s framework on lakin in Arabic and its dialects (the Saudi and Egyptian Arabic), and on but in English.

Uses and Functions of Discourse Markers: An Overview
In the 1970s, different studies have been conducted on DMs (Fraser 1999; Schiffrin 1987). Research on DMs constitutes an essential step in the study of natural language discourse. As a common linguistic means of communication, DMs make the communication smooth and successful as well as improve the coherence of the discourse. Fraser (1999) classified DMs as lexical expressions that are drawn mostly from “the syntactic classes of conjunctions, adverbs, and prepositional phrases” (p. 931) and they demonstrate a “relationship between the interpretation of the segment they introduce, S2, and the prior segment, S1” (p. 931). They possess a core meaning, which is procedural rather than conceptual. Their specific interpretation is dependent on the context that is both linguistic and conceptual (Fraser, 1999).

Al Mughrabi (2017) acknowledged that discourse makers are cohesive devices and linking words of different types that exist in oral or written discourse. Their function is to stick words and sentences together. This study analysed the development level of Arab EFL learners in using DMs in writing through analyzing their errors. It was argued that the quality of students’ writing depends on the usage of DMs. It relied on two types of questions related to the use of DMs, which included additive (and, furthermore, besides, in addition – adding/explaining ideas), causative (because, so, therefore, as a result, thus – signaling results and reason), adversative (but, yet, instead, on the other hand, although – showing contrast) and temporal (first, firstly, second, next, finally – marking a chronological order). The questions were divided on 40 undergraduate students (20 males & 20 females) belonging to the first, second, third, and fourth year English-major. The study concluded that the use of DMs improved with the evolution of their academic background.

Hussein (2008) investigated the use of DM but in English and in standard Arabic (The Holy Quran). The study refuted previously held notions that but is an ambiguous linguistic expression in English. Instead, supported by the data from standard Arabic, it provided a unitary account of the meanings encoded by but and argues that there is a standard procedure that can be followed in four different ways to derive such meanings. Further, it put forward that but is a sense-general linguistic expression rather than an ambiguous one. It revealed different linguistic expressions that are non-synonymous and translate but in standard Arabic as lakinna, bainama, bal, and lakin representing four meanings: denial of expectation, contrast, correction, and cancellation.

Alhuqbani (2013) examined discourse functions of the primary contrastive DM but in English with its equivalent, lakin, in standard Arabic. For this purpose, 10 informants (five Arabic-
English speaking and five native English informants) were presented a judgment test of 48 examples. The study demonstrated that *lakin* in standard Arabic functions as the primary contrastive DM similar to *but* in English. It also showed that English contrastive DM *but* can have several translations in Arabic, *bal, bianama,* and *lakinna.* However, none of these functions as a primary contrastive DM equivalent to *but* since they do not examine the semantic meanings of the English *but.* It was claimed that only the DM *lakin* denotes most of the semantic meanings of *but.* The study concluded that *lakin* and *but* despite sharing many of discourse functions differ in terms of non-discourse marker functions/sequences where the former does not capture the same semantic meanings of the latter.

Oda and Abdullah (2018) explored DMs used by some Arab news channel and what was their purpose. This study adopted Hyland’s (2005) model that subdivides DMs into transitional (logical) and frame markers, reminders (endophorics), and code gloss markers. It witnessed that under the first category Arabic news items used four types of transitional markers: additive DMs (link syntactic units such as clauses, phrases or verbs, e.g., *in addition, and, also*), adversative DMs (compare and contrast an argument, e.g., *but, while, however*), causative DM (establish a relation of cause and result or a premise and conclusion, e.g., *because*), and conclusive DMs (summarise preceding proposition or present conclusions, e.g., *in order to, the reason for*). Under the second category, the Arabic news items used the following two types of frame markers: sequencer DMs (sequence parts of speech and arrange events, e.g., *next, first, second*), and topicalisers DMs (signal the coming modifications in a talk, e.g., *immediately, today*). Under the third and fourth categories, the Arabic news items also used reminder DMs (refer to other parts of the previous text e.g., *it*), and code gloss markers (explains the writers’ perspectives e.g., *including, especially about*). Findings revealed that Arabic news items used interpersonal DMs (hedges, certainty markers, attitude markers etc.).

Al Kohlani (2010) argued that DMs are not just connecting words; instead, they serve as crucial tools for achieving commutative acts in a text – essential elements in the production and perception of a text. They function across sentence boundaries to link textual units beyond the sentence and influence text-receivers’ interpretation. Al Kohlani explored the use of DMs in Arabic newspaper opinion articles and studied their function at two levels of text structures: the sentence and the paragraph. Taking a semantic-pragmatic relation based approach, the study analyzed 50 texts as data. It adopted a three-step analytical model to identify DMs and suggests functional classifications for DMs at the sentence, and paragraph levels. It claimed that at sentence boundaries, classification of DMs include additive, contrastive, explanatory, inferential, sequential, alternative, exceptive, background, subjective, and interactive, and at paragraph boundaries DMs performed three functions: continuity, refocus, and change of topic.

Kurdi (2008) probed the use of three English DMs *so, you know,* and *I mean* by Syrian Arabic learners of English as a foreign language. The data consisted of recorded interviews with 18 Syrian informants/learners of English in both English and Arabic. This study investigated the influence of the first language on the production of DMs in English. Findings indicated that the learners used DMs for a variety of functions without any influence from Arabic.
Discourse Markers in Arabic and English Newspaper Articles

DMs have different uses and varied functions at different levels of discourses. Al-Khawaldeh (2018) pointed out the functions of DM *wallahi* in Jordanian Spoken Arabic under pragma-discourse perspective. This study employed 26 participants different in gender, age, education, and job. The data consist of a corpus of 8 hours of spoken discourse that included face to face as well as cell phone conversations. It exemplified that DM *wallahi* acted as multifunctional. It served the following ten functions in the corpus (26 conversations): introduced as an acceptance, apology, threat and a complaint, and served as a request softener, marker of elaboration, container, marker of confirmation, marker to comply with a request, and a filler marker.

The use of DMs also varies across speakers/learners of English in different settings (native and non-native). Algouzi (2015) examined the two corpora, the Saudi learners’, and British native speakers’ for the use of DMs. The data consisted of 50 interviews conducted by the teaching staff at four different colleges, and universities. The interviewees were Saudi male and female undergraduates (learners belonging to the third and fourth years of study). This study explored the use of English DMs in the speech of Saudi learners (non-native), and compared it to those used by native speakers of English. By focussing on *so*, *you know*, and *like* as the most frequent DMs in two corpora, it advocated that native speakers of English used *so*, and *like* more regularly and, comparatively, Saudi learners used *you know* more frequently with a variety of discourse functions. Findings demonstrated that out of the three DMs used by Saudi learners, only *so* was introduced in the textbooks, and other two markers were acquired by the students probably through exposure to media or through their peer interactions.

DMs play significant role in organizing, interpreting Arabic text. Al-Khawaldeh, Awal, and Zainudin (2014) presented a corpus-based placement of Arabic DM used in the journalistic discourse of sports news. This study examined a corpus of 80 articles from the online versions of Arab news websites: *Aljazeera.net* and *Alarabia.net*. Based on Fraser's model, this study addressed four issues identification, classification, frequency, syntactic classes, and position. It identified 73 DMs and categorized them into: elaborative (*wa, kama, khasatan-khususan, idhan, ay, haithu*), contrastive (*fima, bianama, rghma, biada anna, lakin*), inferential (*li, bisabab, mimma, liana, idha, ithra, hatta*), and temporal (*baad, qabl, indama, thumma, iqiba, hinama*). The study advocates that DMs such as conjunctions (*baimma "while", adha "if", lianna "because"*), adverbs (*aydhan "also", hiina " when", haithu "where"*), prepositions (*li "in order to, for"*), nouns (*jarraa "because", bughyata "for, raghm "despite", baida "but"*) unify different text units and explicitly signal semantic relationship between them.

By surveying the literature on DMs studies, it is established that previous studies mostly focused on non-news/newspaper discourses to analyze the uses and functions of different types of DMs (e.g., Algouzi 2015; Alhuqbani, 2013; Al-Khawaldeh, 2018; Al Mughrabi, 2017; Hussein, 2008; Kurdi, 2008). In contrast, less attention has been paid to how DMs functions in English and Arabic newspaper articles. This study aims to investigate the functions and positions of DMs *lakin* in Arabic newspaper articles and its equivalent *but* in English language newspaper articles.
Research Objectives
This study aims to explore:
1- the functions and positions of DM but in newspaper articles written by native and non-native speakers of English;
2- the functions and positions of DM lakin in newspaper articles written by Saudi and Egyptian speakers of Arabic;
3- the similarities and differences in the functions of DMs lakin and but in Arabic and English language newspaper articles.

Research Questions
This study answers the following research questions:
1- What are the functions and positions of DM but used in newspaper articles written by native and non-native speakers of English?
2- What are the functions and positions of DM lakin used in newspaper articles written by the Saudi and Egyptian speakers of Arabic?
3- To what extent do DMs lakin and but share any discourse functions under Fraser’s framework?

Method
Under the quantitative analysis, this study probes the functions and positions of the English DM but and its Arabic equivalent lakin. The study uses a corpus-based approach and draws on a collection of newspaper articles randomly chosen from 12 different Arabic (six) and English (six) newspapers. The newspaper data are classified into four groups illustrated in Table 1. The first one is Saudi newspapers, published in Arabic language, which are: Alriyadh, Al Jazirah and Al-Hayat. The second is Egyptian newspapers, published in the Arabic language, that are: Al-Ahram, Al-Gomhuria, and Eltahrir. The third group represents the English language newspapers (non-native), Arab news, Saudi Gazette, and Asharq Al-Awsat, published in Saudi Arabia. The last group consists of the English language newspapers (native) such as The Washington Post, The New York Times and USA TODAY.

Table 1
Newspapers used in the study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1st Group</th>
<th>2nd Group</th>
<th>3rd Group</th>
<th>4th Group</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saudi newspapers (Arabic)</td>
<td>Egyptian newspapers (Arabic)</td>
<td>English language newspapers (non-native/Saudi)</td>
<td>English language newspapers (native/American)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alriyadh</td>
<td>Al-Ahram</td>
<td>Arab News</td>
<td>Washington Post</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al Jazirah</td>
<td>Al-Gomhuria</td>
<td>Saudi Gazette</td>
<td>The New York Times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Hayat</td>
<td>Eltahrir</td>
<td>Asharq Al-Awsat</td>
<td>USA TODAY</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The theoretical framework of this study is based on Fraser’s (2006, 2009) model that distinguishes six functions of the DM but: simple contrast, confirmation with elaborative DM, denied of the content, correction, but with relative degree form (even more/less etc.) and exception. Moreover, Fraser (2006) illustrates the positions of the DM but that it can only appear in the initial and medial positions and cannot be found in the final position. Therefore, the study focused only on the
functions and the positions of *but* and *lakin*. According to Fraser (2006), “the class of DMs is defined functionally as those lexical expressions which signal a relationship between adjacent messages, all are members of one of five syntactic categories: coordinate conjunction; subordinate conjunction; preposition; prepositional phrase; adverb” (p. 194)

This paper uses a corpus-based approach as its tool in data collection. In the field of linguistics, corpus/corpora mean the body of language. McEnery and Wilson (1996) discussed the corpus analysis and agreed that corpora are a new approach/method(ology) in studying and investigating linguistic phenomena. Tognini-Bonelli (2001) also noted that there are two types of corpus analysis, which are the corpus-based approach and the corpus-driven approach. The corpus-based approach uses corpora/corpus as a source of examples to check the frequency of a linguistic feature in a small set of data. In contrast, the corpus-driven approach uses all the data in the selected corpus, and, from that, the research would build and show the linguistic pattern the researcher found in this corpus. Following Tognini-Bonelli, Partington (2006) added one more type in the corpus analysis, which is the corpus-assisted approach. This approach uses corpora/corpus as one of the data sources in investigating linguistic phenomena. To sum up, there are three types of approaches in adopting a corpus: the corpus-based approach, the corpus-driven approach, and the corpus-assisted approach. In this study, we adopt the corpus-based approach as our data collector.

**Analysis and Discussion**

The present study aims to investigate the use of English DM *but* and its Arabic equivalent *lakin*. For this purpose, the data were analyzed in four groups for an accurate comparison between the English DM *but* and the Arabic *lakin* in three stages. First, a comparison was drawn between native English speakers (American newspapers) and non-native English speakers (Saudi newspapers) in the use of *but*. In this sense, the third and fourth groups of the data were used. Secondly, the comparison was drawn between the use of English *but* by native speakers and Arabic *Lakin* in Saudi newspapers i.e., taking the fourth and the first groups in the sake of analysis. The third stage intended to discover, by taking the first and second groups of data, whether there was a difference between the two dialects of the Arabic language, Saudi and Egyptian, in the use of *Lakin*. For each comparison level, there are approximate equivalent numbers of samples. For the native and non-native stage, there are 112 occurrences for *lakin* and *but*. For the Arabic and English comparison, there are 224 tokens for *but* and 209 tokens for *lakin*. Finally, for the third level of comparison is between the Saudi and Egyptian Arabic; there are 102 tokens for the Egyptian sample while 107 for the Saudi Arabic.

This section presents the main results and findings of this research paper. The findings prove that *lakin* and *but* share some socio-pragmatic functions. The findings display that Confirmation, Denied of the Content, and Correction are universal in these languages (i.e., English, Arabic, Saudi Arabic, and Egyptian Arabic). Other Fraser’s functions such as Cancellation, Relative Degree Form, and Exception are not well-known in Arabic or its dialects. However, Arab speakers of English (non-native speakers of English) provide some examples of *but* in the Relative Degree Form which is not common based on Tables 3 and 4. This might be a result of the influence and impact of English culture. This section provides a statistical evidence of the sampling distribution.
Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Simple contrast</th>
<th>Confirmation (addition)</th>
<th>Denied Correction of the content</th>
<th>But with relative degree form</th>
<th>Exception</th>
<th>Cancellation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Native but</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-native but</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The main purpose of this study is to reveal the functions of the DM lakin and its equivalent but in English using Fraser’s framework. It is interesting to find out that the quantitative analysis of the collected data from the newspapers from these two societies has shown that they are almost the same. But has been used highly as a confirmation or addition marker, and has not been only used to reject old information as analysed in the following examples from native and non-native English language newspapers:

1. a. Crises are now looming, not just with Iran but also in the heart of Africa. [US Today]
   b. They met resistance from Democrat leadership but as the report added the “surprising thing” about that committee [The New York Times]
   c. They have no choice but to retrain their own workers. [The New York Times]
2. a. This technology will be promising not only in making video games more realistic but also in making virtual scientific experiments more informative. [Asharq Al-Awsat]
   b. The Kingdom is not only seeking to achieve its own interests but also those of its partners. [Asharq Al-Awsat]
   c. Aleppo are home not only to buildings that are UNESCO world heritage sites but also to important intangible cultural heritage. [Arab News]

From those examples, we can see that both native and non-native speakers of English have shown that they used but as a confirmative or additive marker and not simply reject old information with the new one. Furthermore, but as a denied of the content from both the data have been found that it is the second frequent function while exception and cancellation functions are the least used. Syntactically speaking, the data from English newspapers have displayed that noun phrases (i.e. pronouns, wh-words, names, relative pronouns) are the most phrases used following the discourse maker but. In contrast, the data from the non-native speakers of English have no such indications. In fact, verb phrases, prepositional phrases, and noun phrases following but have been witnessed. Also, it is hard to find out but in the initial position in the non-native English newspapers while it is quite common to find but at the beginning of a sentence in the English newspapers data.
Table 3
The difference between the use of English DM but and Arabic lakin

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple contrast</th>
<th>Confirmation</th>
<th>Denied of the content</th>
<th>Correction</th>
<th>But with relative degree form</th>
<th>Exception</th>
<th>Cancellation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English but</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arabic lakin</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>97</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

From Table 3, we can observe that lakin in standard Arabic has some similar functions to English but in the newspapers. Both lakin and but have the functions of simple contrast, confirmation, denied of the content, correction, and exception but we cannot find the functions of cancellation, and but with relative degree form in standard Arabic lakin. Lakin, as a correction, has been used as the most frequent discourse function in Arabic newspapers. Native Arabic speakers used lakin highly to correct previous assumptions in discourse as analyzed in the following examples:

3.a. Wa Mushklatu-hu kant Idman almokhadarat allati lam yastdie an yanju mn qabthateha, lakin lays wahda-hu, Idman la yagtasir ala al-mokhadarat [Alriyadh]

b. His problem was drug addiction which he cannot escape from it, but addiction is not only drug…. [Alriyadh]

This example shows that lakin in standard Arabic is used not to deny any contextual expectation. However, it is used to correct the judgment that addiction is not only to the drug, but it can be to the Internet, etc. Hussein (2008) argues that bal, which has the same meaning of lakin used mostly to mean a correction and replacement of the content mentioned in the previous clause. On the other hand, confirmation is the most regular function of but used by native English and non-native speakers. Fraser (2009) illustrates that but does not only refer to contrast, but it may provide a reason for confirmation. Moreover, lakin can be found out mostly in the medial positions in Arabic newspapers while but can be seen habitually in the initial and medial position.

Table 4
Difference between the use of DM lakin in Saudi and Egyptian newspaper articles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Simple contrast</th>
<th>Confirmation</th>
<th>Denied of the content</th>
<th>Correction</th>
<th>But with relative degree form</th>
<th>Exception</th>
<th>Cancellation</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Saudi lakin</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Egyptian lakin</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As we have two different societies, we might have some differences in the use of the DM lakin. Regarding Table 4, we can find that Saudi and Egyptian speakers share four significant functions of lakin which are simple contrast, confirmation, denied of the content, and correction. As
observed, exception is the function that is only used by Saudi speakers. The table shows that the most common function used by Saudi speakers is denied of the content whereas correction is the most regular function used by Egyptian speakers. In sum, native Arabic speakers have the same functions of using *lakin* in journalistic newspapers. Different dialects have not shown a significant effect on using *lakin* differently in Arabic society.

**Conclusion**

This study presents a comparison between the functions and positions of DM *lakin* in standard Arabic and its dialects (Saudi and Egyptian Arabic), and it is equivalent *but* in English. In this paper, we adopted Fraser’s framework. Fraser (1999, 2006, 2009) clustered and grouped the DM *but* in English into seven main discourse functions as simple contrast, confirmation, relative degree form, correction, exception, cancellation. The analysis of the results has shown that *but* has been used primarily by native English and non-native speakers as a confirmation or addition marker not to deny the previous information. In contrast, *lakin* has been used widely as a correction, confirmation, or denied of the content marker by native Arabic speakers; they have not shown any examples of cancellation, relative degree form, and exception marker. Although there are different dialects among Arabic society, all native speakers use the same functions of *lakin*. This study puts forth that DMs *but* and *lakin* evidence that functions of DMs under Fraser’s framework are universal and they could be generalized.

Finally, the study of Arabic and English DMs is not only beneficial to discourse understanding and generating, but also has a great influence on practice, such as second language education, translation of DMs, contrastive studies of DMs in various languages, etc. The findings of this paper have implications on teaching and learning English and/or Arabic as a second or foreign language. Therefore, it might provide a new perspective for Arabic and/or English learners.

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Discourse Markers in Arabic and English Newspaper Articles

References


Investigating the Use of Language in Islam-related News: Evidence from Selected Non-Western Online Newspapers

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Abstract
The manner in which language is utilized in reporting Islam is disheartening. This is because sensationalized language, especially in the news media, could reinforce negative stereotypes. As such, those who rely on the media to understand Islam are likely to develop negative preconceptions about the religion. This study aims to investigate how the non-western online newspapers use language in news coverage of Islam. Content analysis was used to collect and analyze the data. Using purposive sampling, Punch and Vanguard were selected from Nigeria while The Star and New Straits Times were selected from Malaysia. A total of 599 Islam-related news articles were collected from the selected newspapers using internet-based search from November 2015 until September 2016. The findings showed that almost half of the overall Islam-related articles conveyed negative tone toward Islam while very few conveyed positive tone. This shows that the language used in news coverage of Islam is inappropriate and sensational. Hence, there is a need to enhance the reporters’ knowledge and writing skills through inter-media exchange program, exposure to different religious, social and cultural lives, workshops, seminars, conferences, as well as sensitivity training and retraining on reporting religions.

Keywords: media language, news articles, newspapers, non-western media, sensationalism

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1. Introduction
The power of language can never be overemphasized, and therefore how it is used particularly in
the written communication matters greatly. Nevertheless, the media are blamed for using biased
language to stigmatize, dehumanize Muslims and associate them with sentimentalism, terrorism,
and intolerance. The media contents are unjustifiably dominated by expressions creating negative
impressions that all violent acts and terrorist attacks are committed by Muslims. Research shows
that news content is often associated with misinformation, which can trigger human emotions
(Ibrahim, Mustaffa, Kee, & Ahmad, 2011). Despite the requirement for a series of editing
processes in newspapers, at times, copies pass through almost unchanged and finally published.
News is the primary content of newspapers, and therefore its formation is of great importance.
Journalists bear a great responsibility to ensure that religion is depicted fairly and accurately
(Pearson et al., 2001).

The media, particularly newspapers, are now paying much attention to news on religion, and
the number of editors and writers on religion topics is increasing gradually. However, meeting the
quality of standards in reporting the region is of great concern. Allen (2014) states that one of the
major factors that contribute to the media’s negative portrayal of Islam is their selection of words
to describe Muslims. In addition, sensationalized stories on Muslims in the media could intensify
tension and distort the relationships between Muslims and non-Muslims. This is because, at times,
reporters accentuate exotic and sensational news in order to catch the audience’s attention. This
emphasis on violence, which is reinforced through language, could influence societal action,
interaction and attitudes of the social consensus.

News stories can be misleading, exaggerated and then repeated, generating collective anxiety
and fear which may contribute, in extreme circumstances, to negative actions such as violence
(Wright, 1997). In fact, research shows that the language used in reporting Islam is alarmist,
especially those containing emotive, and at times, even abusive expressions (Jacobsen et al., 2012;
Allen (2014). There has been an increased interest in the media’s portrayal of Islam and Muslims,
but there are a limited number of studies on the use of language in reporting Islam. Although some
studies have been carried out on how the media report Islam (Ahmad, 2006; Moore et al., 2008;
Thompson, 2013; Allen, 2014), this study attempts to add on to this knowledge by solely focusing
on how language is used in Islam-related news particularly in online newspapers. This could be
useful especially in the field of language and communication.

2. The Use of Language in Islam-related News
The media cannot escape criticism from various researchers in relation to their use of language.
The newspaper industry responds to information needs from readers. Nevertheless, the news
content is constructed by news writers who may hold on to a certain opinion regarding the topic
being reported. Eltantawy (2007) employed discourse analysis to investigate the U.S. newspaper
representation of Muslim-Arab women after the 9/11 attacks. Most of the stories analyzed by
Eltantawy associated Muslim culture with problems, injustices, and oppression. Muslim culture is
indirectly presented as conflicting with itself. An opinionated part of media content could instigate
tension by depicting Islam as a religion of violence, either consciously or unconsciously. Most of
newspaper headlines depict negative images of Islam and Muslims.
Rupar (2012) notes that the unfortunate instances of media reportage of Islam typically involve negative labeling, designated use of figures, generalizing events, portraying one side of story, using pejorative words, combining truths and opinions, lack of facts, as well as mis-matching of headlines, news content, imageries and sound. Furthermore, Schneider (2011) employed critical discourse analysis, focusing on the influence of the use of language in newspaper articles in relation to Muslims. The study found that there is a strong evidence of framing and construction of moral panics in the articles of newspapers. This shows how the newspapers use framing to manipulate information against Islam and Muslims.

In addition, labels and bias are noticeable in several media reports in which Muslims are labeled as radicals, irrational, intolerant, aggressive, and enemies of the western civilization. The argument lies in the particular ways of reporting the stories, especially how the language is used. At times, mere ignorance could be considered as a factor in this regard, which could raise fear and hatred in the society. According to Kumar (2011), lack of trained writers on religious topics is one of the major factors causing the inappropriate use of language. News about Muslims is mostly distorted by means of language so that readers can recognize the reproduction of their own visions and opinions. Newspapers eventually beguile the tolerances of their readers and institute the belief that Muslims generate the problem.

The language used in reporting Islam is mostly disparaging to Muslims. Moore et al. (2008) found that the language used in reporting Muslims reflects the negative context in which they tend to appear. The most commonly used nouns in relation to British Muslims were terrorism, extremism, Islamism, suicide bombing and militancy, while the most commonly used adjectives were radical, fanatical, fundamentalist, extremist, and militant. Even prior to 9/11 attacks, Muslims were already frustrated with the media’s persistent usage of sensationalist terms such as ‘Islamic terrorists’ and ‘Muslim fundamentalists’. The observed ‘double standards’ in relation to western foreign policy intended for Muslims were perceived to be facilitated through language. Terms such as ‘democracy’ and ‘freedom fighters’ hold highly political and subjective meanings, but are infrequently used in circumstances that support the interests of Muslims (Ahmad, 2006).

The media language that results in the negative image of Islam and Muslims is related to ‘news value’ – the extent to which the messages are made more attractive and different from what is presently prevalent in the society. This is done by highlighting messages of strong ‘social weight’, or even more common, exaggerating the scale of the phenomenon depicted. For example, in order to render a higher ‘news value’ to messages so as to catch the audience’s attention, reporters are inclined to highlight the differences between Islam and Muslims. Meanwhile, the depiction of Muslims in the media as a personification of evil has been exaggerated mostly by stressing that they incline towards violence and aggressiveness (Pędziwiatr, 2010).

Furthermore, the media portray negative image of Islam and Muslims by the choice of content, especially by revealing the religious affiliation of those who are involved in violent acts, or by categorizing regional and ethnic conflicts as religious. Eltantawy (2007) notes that news values and journalistic style can at times lead to bias. This issue of media bias needs serious attention. Therefore, journalists learn how to select what makes news through professional training, peer pressure and newsroom discipline. In addition, the newspaper editorial practices and writing styles
also significantly shape the type of language and images that form the portrayals of Muslims and Islam as well as the type of information provided (Akbarzadeh & Smith, 2005).

The preceding review suggests that negative depiction of Islam using language could contribute to moral panics, but this does not mean the newspapers should not report issues involving Muslims. This does not also claim offering special treatment to Muslims or overlooking the problems in some Muslim societies, but issues should be clarified in context and cultural roots acknowledged. The media’s failure to accurately report the news means that the complete picture is distorted. This situation does not help to promote the readers’ knowledge and understanding; it highlights the problem rather than provides solutions (Allen, 2014).

3. Theoretical Approach
This study is based on Framing theory which considers meaning as existing mainly in the news content (Potter, 2012). It describes the media's possible influence on the public understanding of issues covered considering their frames and prominence (Arthur, 2012). Framing theory has recently taken over from agenda-setting and cultivation theory as the most universally practical approach in the field of communication. The development of Framing theory is attributed to Goffman (1974). This theory considers meaning as existing particularly in the media messages. It focuses on the influence of news viewpoints used by journalists on the audiences. Journalists construct the frame of news stories in the manner they choose certain bits of information and disregard others and in the manner they construct their news stories to focus on certain issues. The frame refers to the way the news is presented, meaning, it is the opinion from which the news is reported. It is the news angle or the context for the story. A news angle refers to the explanatory and ideological framework from which the media report about certain topic and the conceptualization of stories within a particular framework. The manner in which news events are reported by the media might influence the audience’s understanding of the issues. Recipients of media messages develop their attitude based on the manner in which the news story is framed in addition to their own individual frames (Potter, 2012; Freyenberger, 2013). Framing is an inevitable part of human communication. It occurs when the production and dissemination of the media messages come to highlight, emphasize or obscure some aspects of the message over others. This is mostly done through language, particularly how the information is organized and structured. The use of language in framing is not limited to either spoken or written language. It encompasses any coherent symbolic system measured in a linguistic system (Walljet, 2013). Fairhurst and Sarr (1996) describe the various framing devices as follows.

1. Metaphor: This refers to framing a conceptual idea by comparing it with something else.
2. Stories, myths, or legends: This is a situation whereby the media frame a topic through narrative in a vivid and memorable way.
3. Slogan, jargon, or catchphrase: The media may frame an issue using slogans, jargons, or catchy phrases to make such issue more memorable and relate-able.
4. Artifact: This refers to framing of an issue using intrinsic symbolic values such as visual or cultural phenomenon that holds more meaning than the issue itself.
5. Contrast: This refers to a situation whereby an event is described in terms of what it is not.
6. **Spin:** This occurs when the media present an issue in such a way as to convey a value judgement (positive or negative) that might not be directly obvious. This could be done to create an inherent bias by definition.

Media content is a combination of textual and visual elements. These visual elements consist of images, photos, and videos. Gamson and Modigliani (1989) also suggest five framing devices: metaphors, exemplars, catchphrases, depictions, and visual images. News frames are much more than just verbal or textual story topics, and they cannot be reduced or substituted for mere story topics because they do much more organizing and structuring work.

4. **Method**

This study used content analysis to investigate the use of language in Islam-related news, particularly in selected Nigerian and Malaysian online newspapers. Content analysis focuses on media message characteristics and provides specific media content that can be categorically analyzed to provide useful information. Only Islam-related articles published in the selected newspapers between November 2015 and September 2016 were analyzed. The articles were identified using ‘Islam’ and ‘Muslims’ as keywords. Nigerian newspapers (Punch and Vanguard) have 3.00m and 2.43m site visitors while Malaysian newspapers (The Star and New Straits Times) have 3.34m and 1.99m site visitors respectively. A total of 599 news articles focusing on Islam were collected from the selected newspapers using internet-based search from November 2015 until September 2016. The units of content analysis in the present study are news articles – straight news and feature stories from the selected newspapers.

In this study, the tone of articles used in reporting Islam are analyzed. The context and circumstance of coverage were studied from articles tone toward Islam. The articles were analyzed based on headlines and texts. At the preliminary stage of coding the data in the present study, all the selected articles were summarized and a database was generated. In analyzing print news stories, one has to study every single detail from the choice of words to the metaphors, descriptors to the characters the story focuses on. The criteria for categorization of articles tone in this study was based on gestalts of phrases, terms and adjectives used out of quotation, sentence relevance based on coherence, and generalization. The data were coded using multiple code system (List, 2005).

Considering its valence, a news frame might inherently stress positive, negative or neutral aspects of a given issue or person. This study measured valence to specify the overall tone of the news toward Islam. The articles tone was categorized into three: negative tone, neutral tone, and positive tone. Positive and negative tones imply that the article could evoke positive or negative impression while neutral tone suggests that the article neither evoke positive nor negative impression (de Kok, 2006; Hamilton & Lewis, 2014). Articles with negative tone toward Islam were coded as conveying negative tone. Articles with positive tone toward Islam were coded as conveying positive tone, while articles that do not convey clearly positive or negative tone were coded as neutral. Articles tone could influence people’s opinion about the issues being reported (Akbarzadeh & Smith, 2005; Anuar, 2007; Moore et al., 2008; Freyenger, 2013). The articles tone of Islam-related news stories determines how people perceive Islam.
5. Findings

Only Islam-related articles published in the selected newspapers between November 2015 and September 2016 were analyzed. The newspapers produced 247 and 352 Islam-related articles from each country within the aforementioned period respectively. The overall 599 articles were analyzed. The aim was to explore the use of language in the selected newspapers. The articles were considered carefully in-context using thorough qualitative analysis. The following table presents the tone of articles used in the selected newspapers.

Table 1. Articles tone toward Islam in the selected newspapers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Articles tone</th>
<th>Nigerian newspapers</th>
<th>Malaysian newspapers</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Frequency</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conveying negative tone</td>
<td>0.34</td>
<td>33.6</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conveying neutral tone</td>
<td>0.61</td>
<td>61.1</td>
<td>0.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conveying positive tone</td>
<td>0.05</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>0.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>1.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 clearly indicates that 33.6% and 33.5% of Islam-related news articles in the selected Nigerian and Malaysian newspapers conveyed negative tones toward Islam respectively. This implies that the newspapers conveyed almost the same amount of negative tone toward Islam in the Islam-related news articles they published. However, 61.1% of the articles in Nigerian newspapers conveyed neutral tone while 58.2% in Malaysian newspapers conveyed neutral tone toward Islam. Only 5.3% and 8.2% of the Islam-related news articles published by Nigerian and Malaysian newspapers conveyed positive tone toward Islam respectively. Of all the Islam-related news articles published by the newspapers, 33.6% conveyed negative tones toward Islam, 59.4% conveyed neutral tone while 7.0% conveyed positive tone. Therefore, overall number of the articles is more of neutral tone than negative or positive.

It can be seen that the newspapers published almost the same amount of Islam-related articles with negative tones toward Islam. The articles conveyed negative tones toward Islam to a moderate extent since they are more neutral than negative or positive, and more of negative than positive. Meaning that, the news articles contained more than twice as many negative tones toward Islam as positive. Allen (2014) asserts that the tone used in many reports is alarmist, especially those containing emotive, and at times, even abusive expressions. Almost half of the overall Islam-related articles (33.6%) published in the selected newspapers conveyed negative tone toward Islam while very few (7.0%) conveyed positive tone. This shows that the newspapers tend to use negative tone in reporting Islam.

In some instances, the newspapers identify terrorists by their religion with great emphasis. Punch newspaper reported on 22nd December 2015 that “A group of Muslim jihadist attackers who stormed a bus in Kenya were prevented from attacking Christian passengers on board” (p. 1). This report has been framed as ‘Muslims attacking Christians’. Also, The Star newspaper also reported on 4th December 2015 that “California’s Muslim community expressed its horror at the mass shooting that killed at least 14 in San Bernardino, after a local Muslim man was widely identified as a suspect” (p. 1). Apart from identifying terrorists by their religion as exemplified, several instances in which negative behaviors are attributed to either Muslims or Islam were found in the
newspapers. For example, *Punch* newspaper reported on August 30, 2016 that “a traditional Islamic wife has sued her domineering husband and his family for making her to kiss her mother-in-law’s feet” (p. 1). The question here is why has the woman been identified as Islamic wife and why the husband has been identified as domineering? Perhaps the writer’s intention is to reveal the insolence of Muslim’s matrimonial life.

In determining article stone, quotations, evidences, and word choice play a crucial role. For example, *The Star’s* report on December 4, 2015 “California shooter Syed Rizwan Farook was a devout Muslim” (p. 1) suggests that even pious Muslims involve in violent act by choosing to use the adjective ‘devote’ and the noun ‘Muslim’. Readers interpret news according to their understanding, knowledge and judgment, but the word choice that complements the news is the responsibility of reporters and editors. In this case, the final decision of selecting the suitable words, text, and headlines before being finally published is the editors’ duty. Misinterpretation of news content is mostly associated with misinformation, which can trigger human emotions, negative perception, and conflict (Ibrahim et al., 2011). Lacasse and Forster (2012) note that people rely seriously on the media to obtain information and understand issues across the globe, but the media might not disseminate the actual and complete picture of the issues.

Another instance is evident in the news writers’ emotion which is reflected in their write ups. This emotion can convey negative or positive tone toward the situation. For example, statements found in *Punch* newspaper on February 25, 2016, which shows that several non-Muslims are jailed for insulting Islam, might indicate the writer’s worry about the punishment of non-Muslims for insulting Islam. Another statement in the newspaper on December 8, 2015 was “Trump has been increasingly virulent in his remarks targeting Muslim Americans” (p. 7). This statement might indicate the writer’s involvement in the incident by describing Donald Trump as ‘virulent’, thereby taking side with Muslims. Journalists, especially while reporting violence, often show their involvement in the situation. In this case, readers could be skeptical or develop the same attitude shown by the writer.

Another instance found in the newspapers is exaggeration. There are several exaggerated statements in the newspapers, such as *Punch*’s “Strict Indonesian province canes non-Muslim” (p. 1), which describes Indonesian Muslim community as imposing strict rules on the non-Muslims. Sometimes, additional statements are provided to indicate inherent views or opinion of the writer. For example, in 2016, Nigeria’s president registered Nigeria as a member of the Saudi’s Islamic Coalition against Terrorism. *Vanguard* newspaper reported the story on March 7, 2016 before confirming the country’s membership of the coalition, saying “President Muhammadu Buhari said that Nigeria would join the coalition of Muslim countries against terrorism” (p. 1). The statement continued “On whether or not his decision would go well with Nigerian Christians, who make up about half of the country’s population, he denies seeking to change Nigeria’s multi-religious nature by his action” (p. 2).

In addition, the newspapers also use trigger words such as extremist, suicide bomber, and hijab in wrong context. These words themselves portray Islam negatively and profile the negative context of the news. The newspapers also used sensational headlines, creating false hopes and superfluous fears. Sensationalism may discredit good reporting of the story (Ransohoff &
Ransohoff, 2001). Lack of being conflict sensitive might be one of the several reasons why journalists distort the reality and convey negative tone in their news reporting. The kind of stories published by the newspapers, in their negative tone, are likely to accentuate tension and create conflict between media outlets, governments, and the Muslim community. For example, in early 2007 a front-page story of Malaysia’s The Star created tension that resulted in consequences beyond the news media’s control. Based on the news tone and the readers’ responses posted on the newspaper’s website, the story generated much anxiety and outstretched the readers’ emotional feelings. Later, the newspaper apologized and stated that it should have been more sensitive to the emotional feelings of its Muslim readers.

The findings of this study indicated that newspapers in Muslim countries might not employ the same approach in reporting Islam. Inquisitively, the newspapers are likely to incorporate different though arguably consequential approach to reporting Islam (Anuar, 2007; Wariboko, 2015). Hence, it can be argued that the newspaper’s tendency to portray the negative image of Islam depends largely on the manner in which the news story is constructed. This is in conformity with the assumption of Framing theory, that when a particular media outlet decides to cover a topic about a particular person or group in a negative way, the society will have negative perceptions of such a person or group, since they are exposed only to the negative aspect in such news reportage (Fourie, 2001).

The newspapers also changed the meaning of several words. For examples, the word ‘jihad’ should not be synonymous with ‘violence’ because in Islam, it refers to struggle to move closer to God or to adopt Islam’s complete way of life. It is a primarily non-violent, positive and individual act performed by a devoted Muslim (Wariboko, 2015). The headlines in Table 2, which were found in the selected newspapers, are examples of the repetitive use of ‘Jihad’ in place of terrorism or violence.

Table 2. Change of word’s meaning

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Headline</th>
<th>Newspaper</th>
<th>Date</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Turkey nabs French IS jihadists after hair transplant</td>
<td>Punch</td>
<td>Nov. 12, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 French jihadist cell members to face trial</td>
<td>Punch</td>
<td>Nov. 13, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UK Muslims seek own path in countering Jihadism</td>
<td>Punch</td>
<td>Nov. 15, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jihadist thriller pulled from cinemas after Paris attacks</td>
<td>Punch</td>
<td>Nov. 17, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jihadists in Europe stir visa debate in US</td>
<td>Punch</td>
<td>Nov. 20, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Security fears mount as rival jihadists claim Mali hotel attack</td>
<td>Punch</td>
<td>Nov. 24, 2015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Islamic jihadists kill police officers, civilians in Mogadishu attacks</td>
<td>Punch</td>
<td>May 9, 2016</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Investigating the Use of Language in Islam-related News

Hassan, Azmi & Abdullahi

| Iranian ex-general killed fighting jihadists in Syria | Punch | Aug. 31, 2016 | 31 |
| US designates leading French jihadist as terrorist | Punch | Sept. 17, 2016 | 17 |
| ‘IS’ jihadist blows himself up, injuring four police in southern Turkey | Vanguard | Nov. 15, 2015 | 15 |
| World leaders at G20 raise alarm over foreign jihadists after Paris attack | Vanguard | Nov. 15, 2015 | 15 |
| Obama vows to ‘redouble’ fight against Islamic State Jihadists | Vanguard | Nov. 15, 2015 | 15 |
| Mali jihadist leader calls for more attacks on France | Vanguard | Nov. 17, 2015 | 17 |
| Russia gives France puppy to replace police dog killed by jihadists | Vanguard | Nov. 21, 2015 | 21 |
| Seven IS jihadists in four hours of terror in Paris | Vanguard | Dec. 15, 2015 | 15 |
| Emirati gets death sentence for joining jihadists | Vanguard | Jan. 10, 2016 | 10 |
| At least 22 dead in Burkina jihadist attacks | Vanguard | Jan. 16, 2016 | 16 |
| IS jihadists will be ‘very seriously dented’ by end of 2016 – Kerry | Vanguard | Jan. 21, 2016 | 21 |
| Leader of Ansaru jihadist, Boko Haram splinter group arrested in Lokoja | Vanguard | Apr. 3, 2016 | 14 |
| Court jails top jihadist recruiter Zerkani for 15 years | Vanguard | Apr. 14, 2016 | 14 |
| Rich kids who grew up to be jihadists | Vanguard | Jul. 4, 2016 | 14 |
| Mali defence minister fired after jihadists seize town | Vanguard | Sept. 3, 2016 | 3 |
| Mali defence minister fired after jihadists seize town | Vanguard | Sept. 3, 2016 | 3 |
| World needs to unite against jihadists: Hillary Clinton | NST | Nov. 15, 2016 | 15 |
| Clashes between jihadists, Yemeni forces kill 19 | NST | Nov. 15, 2016 | 15 |
| Australia stop five from 'taking boat to Indonesia to join jihad' | NST | May 11, 2016 | 11 |
| Bangladeshi rich kids who grew up to be jihadists | NST | Jul. 4, 2016 | 10 |
| Foiled Paris plot highlights new role of female jihadists | NST | Sept. 10, 2016 | 10 |

Note: NST = New Strait Times

Sometimes, the headlines envisage the newspaper’s consciousness in using ‘Jihad’ in place of ‘terrorism’. For example, headline number seven from Table 4.9 reported by Punch newspaper on May 9, 2016 states “Islamic jihadists kill police officers, civilians in Mogadishu attacks” (p. 1). In this headline, the word ‘Jihadists’ is synonymous to ‘terrorists’ and the terrorism act is Islamic in
nature. The term ‘Islamic jihadist’ means there are un-Islamic jihadists as well. So, the word ‘jihadists’ means ‘terrorists’ and the intended meaning of ‘Islamic jihadist’ in the headline is ‘Islamic terrorist’. However, on September 17, 2016 the same newspaper reported “US designates leading French jihadist as terrorist” (p. 1). This headline indicates that the jihadist becomes a terrorist only after the US designation. Then how is this jihadist different from those used in the previous headline? This creates confusion on why these two words are interchangeably used.

If journalists find it necessary to use such terms, they must make an effort to understand their proper definitions and use them appropriately. Journalists should also explain that words such as ‘fundamentalist’ and ‘extremist’ are not unique to Islam (Allen, 2014). Newspapers should mind the use of terms in reporting Islam to avoid negative perception of the religion (Ameli, Marandi, Ahmed, Kara, & Merali, 2007). In this study, differences among the newspapers in using Islam-related terms might be due to differences in the writers’ perception or perhaps in-house policy of the newspapers. In the media coverage of any event, some terms may be neutral while others may be controversial (“Terminology Guide”, 2007). For example, the term ‘terrorist attack’ is neutral while ‘Islamist terrorist’ is certainly controversial. Each media system may perceive a ‘terrorism’ event in a different way. For some, it may be a perversity; for others it may be killing. The journalists, in their reportage of perpetrators of violence, may reflect their political or ideological interests that are likely to drive the media somewhere (Ammar, 2009).

6. Discussion
Researchers argued that news content could have great influences on the reader’s opinion, since audiences rely on interpreted selections from the media and a form of reality constructed from individual experience (Bryant & Miron, 2004; Kempf, 2006; Potter, 2012; Arthur, 2012). The Global War on Terrorism (GWOT), which refers to the international military campaign launched by the US government in 2011 after the September 11 attacks, has generated a serious discourse on the degree to which news reporting can fulfill the journalistic criteria of balance, accuracy, and fairness. The media’s depiction of the perpetrators of violence reflects their ideological interests that are likely to drive the media elsewhere (Ammar, 2009). Dart and Allen (2000) asserted that there are too few full-time religion reporters to provide the kind of in-depth coverage that religion deserves. Recent studies confirmed the implication of inappropriate and sensationalized language in news reporting (Dart & Allen, 2000; Pearson et al., 2001; Ahmad, 2006).

The findings of this study indicated that that almost half of the articles that referred to Islam and Muslims were negative. The formation of words used in news articles can create a means of manipulation that has the tendency to form anti-Muslim bias and bigotry in the audience’s minds (Cissel, 2012). Framing theory suggests that the media tend to present issues in such a way as to convey positive or negative value judgement. This is similar to the western media reporting of Islam revealed in various studies on the western media and Islamophobia. These studies suggest that the overall depiction of Islam in the media indicates that Islam is significantly different from and a threat to the West (Ahmad, 2006; Ameli et al., 2007; Moore, et al., 2008; Asmal, 2008; Thompson, 2013; Hassan et al., 2013; Rane et al., 2014). Considering this situation, newspapers in Muslim-majority nations, such as Nigeria and Malaysia, continue to replicate the western media content. A study by Project for Excellence in Journalism that measured news-gathering as an
instance of general trends revealed that about 83% of the instances merely repackaged or repeated previously published news stories (Fritz, 2010).

While articles conveying neutral tone in this study were the most dominant in all the newspapers, positive tone was insignificant. Meanwhile, more than one-third of the overall articles conveyed negative tone toward Islam. This confirms that the media in developing nations are also guilty of negative portrayal of Islam. In news reporting, articles tone should be given much concern. Media reportage of Muslims and Islam-related issues is mostly opinionated through framing, and the way language is used has a great influence in the society. McQuail (2000) describes mass media as an organized means of communicating openly and at a distance to several audiences in a short space of time. Technology has developed the level of language to a common language by making it possible for any language to be understood by anyone, regardless of the person’s mother tongue.

Framing theory suggests that the media may present issues in such a way as to create an inherent bias by description. Therefore, the media are blamed for using biased language to stigmatize and dehumanize Muslims (Asmal, 2008; Haque, 2012). It was found that the use of language in Islam-related news constitute either conscious or unconscious bias. According to Ammar (2009), the public should be conscious of the inherent biases in various media organizations. In the contemporary media environment, news consumers have the opportunity to follow news on several forms of media and compare the reportage of the same incidents. This might include sensationalist headlines such as The Star’s “France dissolves Muslim groups linked to radical Paris mosque” on 13, January 2016. Newspapers commonly do more than report of the events. Ameli et al. (2007) also argued that “only when language shifts away from dominant narratives appealing to the majority – innately marginalizing minorities – can there be communication on an open and equal basis”.

According to Framing theory, an issue can be framed through language to make it more memorable and relate-able. Based on the assumption of Framing theory, using negative expressions words on a daily basis may create negative perception of Islam and may influence the people’s perception of reality regarding the religion. Some studies (Allen, 2001; Haque, 2012) also demonstrated that inappropriate use of terms is prevalent in newspaper reports. This surreptitiously orchestrated media content has been perpetually disseminated for decades. There has been a tendency among journalists over the decades, especially Malaysian journalists, to resort to self-censorship. The act of self-censorship gives certain flexibility for reporters and editors to choose, write and edit news stories before being published. While the selection of news permits particular forms of press freedom, the question of ethical objectivity arises, particularly by journalists and editors in their choice of words during the process of news writing and editing (Ibrahim et al., 2011).

News coverage has taken on a different angle. In recent times, Islam has received global attention especially subsequent to the 9/11 incident, the Afghanistan war in 2002, the Iraq war in 2003, the Danish cartoon row and the London bombings in 2005, Israel-Palestine conflict, Paris attacks, and recently the Mosque shootings in New Zealand (Haque, 2012). During this period, we have witnessed an increase in the use of terms by journalists all over the world in their struggle to make “sense” of what occurs either locally, nationally or globally. The most disturbing issue is
that journalists use various terms regardless of whether they are objective or accurate (Ibrahim et al., 2011).

In most cases, when the so-called Islamic State claims an attack, people will be bombarded with a series of reports in the media, using terms such as ‘Islamic terrorism’. However, in the event that Muslims are massacred, such as in the case of Burmese government’s killing of Muslims (Independent Newspaper, 2017), hardly you see or hear the media use ‘terrorism’ to describe such unjust government, considering the definition of the term. El-Najjar (2004) argued that the term should be used to describe individuals, groups, and governments that are involved in terrorizing the civilian populations (state terrorism). The media never use the term to describe the governments that target the civilian population by killing them.

7. Conclusion
This study investigated the use of language in Islam-related news, particularly in selected Nigerian and Malaysian newspapers. It is proven that not only newspapers in Muslim-minority nations portray negative image of Islam through the use of language. It is unfortunate that the news reporting of Islam has been called to questions in relation to article tone, which could result in acrimony and antagonism. Objective, fair, and balanced reporting has been sacrificed in favor of personal or group interest. The study provided insights into how newspapers in Muslim-majority nations such as Nigeria and Malaysia use language in Islam-related news. The findings have also provided additional understanding of the current situation of Muslims in the print media.

The negative tone of articles published in the selected newspapers could be a potent means of generating prejudices in the audience mindsets. Generally, newspapers can help to mitigate the negative perception of Islam if they stick to journalism ethics, focus on public enlightenment on religious issues, and if other forms of media contribute in the process. There is a need to enhance the reporters’ knowledge and writing skills through inter-media exchange program, exposure to different religious, social and cultural lives, workshops, seminars, conferences, as well as sensitivity training and retraining on reporting religions. This can be achieved through collective effort of journalists, editors, corporate ownership of the media.

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References


Investigating Teachers’ Perceptions of the Influence of Professional Development on Teachers’ Performance and Career Progression

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Abstract
Understanding a process is the key to maximizing the outcomes of such a process; teachers’ professional development (PD) can be further facilitated through fully apprehending the process by which they grow professionally and the factors that contribute to such growth. In this study, the author intends to explore the relationship between a school environment and teachers’ readiness for PD as well as how they perceive of the impact of PD on their professional and personal qualities, students’ performance, teachers’ career progression, and commitment to the job and workplace. The author administered semi-structured interviews with three English as a Second Language (ESL) teachers who are in their mid-career stage and work for private, American curriculum-based schools in Dubai. The results show that all three interviewees admit the positive influence of PD on their professional performance, personal qualities, students’ outcomes, career progression and commitment to the profession. How a progressive school culture would impact teachers’ inclination towards PD has also been brought to attention by the interviewees as a critical aspect. As potential areas of research on PD, it is recommended that students’ academic performance is to be looked into closely through examining their assessment results in order to muster tangible evidence on the significance of teachers’ PD. Also, a conversation analysis of classroom discourse following a number of classroom observations of teachers in different career stages would be another informative research method to investigate the impact of PD on teachers’ performance and on classroom dynamics.

Keywords: professional development, differentiated professional development, school culture, teacher’s commitment, career progression

Introduction
A holistic view of professionalism based on the external and internal processes a teacher undertakes was offered by Evans and Waring (2014). They considered professionalism as a combination between interactive and people-centered methods where professional standards are maintained, knowledge is enhanced, and expertise is achieved. They went on to say that professionalism could be interpreted differently depending on the individual’s occupation, status, expertise, and purpose. Teacher professionalism is said to be deeply intertwined with their professional identity and beliefs about the requirements of being a good teacher. They also suggested a dichotomy between professionalism and professionality. For them, professionalism is a functional aspect that is related to a teacher’s status, while professionality has more to do with a teacher’s skills, knowledge, and conduct. Describing a professional as a trained, qualified expert who demonstrates practical competence was induced by Leung (2009).

Teaching is a professional job; teachers are supposed to develop and improve their skills continually. By tenacious learning, teachers’ professional degree and performance can be enhanced; professional qualifications are socially and politically viewed as powerful indicators of teacher professionalism (Leung, 2009). Teachers’ PD refers to the re-establishment, development, and expansion of teachers’ knowledge and skills. Innovation in teachers’ professional development involves teachers’ practical experience and the formation of instructional strategies that allow students to gain autonomous, reflective, and critical thinking skills. PD is said to be a cognitive and personal attempt that requires engagement with new ideas, trying new approaches, improving pedagogy as well as emotional involvement (Girvan, Conneely & Tangney, 2016).

Thus, exploring teachers’ insights into the impact of PD on their teaching abilities, knowledge, and career advancement is pivotal to gaining a comprehensive understanding of the existent as well as the potential obstacles teachers might face. As the head of the English department, the author feels compelled to find out how the teaching faculty feel towards PD sessions organized by the school and the speculated impact on them and their students; thus, the present study is meant to seek answers for the following question:

1. How does school culture influence teachers’ inclination to PD?
2. What is the impact, if any, of PD on teachers’ performance and students’ outcomes?
3. Is there any relationship between PD and teachers’ commitment and career progression?

Through answering the research questions, the study in hand will add some empirical knowledge on PD to the existent body of literature; examining how PD systems work at some private schools and whether they accomplish their purposes as intended or not from a more practical viewpoint is still needed in order to illuminate the issues at stake.

Literature Review
Mizell (2010) defined professional development as any educational experience related to a practitioner’s work. Individuals in a wide range of professions take part in professional development to learn and apply new skills and knowledge that would enhance their professional performance. In the educational field, research has shown that school leadership and teaching quality are the main contributing factors in boosting student achievement. School leaders continually strive to bring about and implement the best educational practices and professional
development is the main strategy through which school systems bolster teachers’ performance levels. McIntyre, Hobson, and Mitchell (2009) claimed that successful PD tends to take place in schools with a culture focused on the learning of staff as well as students.

**Formal, Informal, and Differentiated PD**

In literature, PD refers to both formal and informal learning activities specifically designed to enhance teachers’ professional knowledge, capabilities, competence, motivation, self-efficacy, and beliefs (Coldwell, 2017). Richter, Kunter, Klusmann, Lüdtke, and Baumert (2011) defined formal PD as structured learning environments where experts impart knowledge to teachers to help them sharpen their skills, e.g., training courses, workshops, and conferences. They referred to informal PD as those activities that comprise no specific curriculum, nor they mandate a particular environment. Informal PD includes individual activities on the part of the teachers, e.g., reading narratives of colleagues, observing classes, contributing to joint activities such as teachers’ networks, blogs, and study groups. More to the point, empirical studies showed that novice teachers tend to use observations and informal discussions with peers to improve their practices, while more experienced teachers tend to participate in more formal meetings for their professional learning. Avalos’ study (2011) pointed out that teachers in their early “survival and discovery” (p. 118) years usually report problems with class management and effective teaching approaches; such issues can be resolved through mentoring and peer observation as well as other informal means of exchanging practical knowledge. In contrast, teachers pursue more formal learning opportunities as they grow towards their mid-career phase. Mid-career teachers tend to gain more professional knowledge in the areas of subject content, pedagogy, teaching methods, and performance standards through formal activities such as conferences, workshops, and training courses. Generally, teachers seem to have different preferences for their learning opportunities across their career cycle.

Taylor, Yates, Meyer, and Kinsella (2011) mentioned that teachers’ PD does not necessarily acknowledge the fact that teachers are not a homogeneous population and that they rather represent diverse perspectives, experience, expertise, receptiveness to new ideas, as well as the potential for leadership roles. PD cannot be considered a generic or a one-size-fits-all model; teachers’ needs, experience, career stage, beliefs, students, and school context should be taken into consideration. Professional learning should begin with instigating reflection on teachers’ needs and demands instead of imposing unified PD opportunities (Tait-McCutcheon & Drake, 2016). Taylor et al. (2011) advocated differentiated PD for teachers based on their level of experience and expertise; it was noticed that granting teachers the chance to choose the type of PD they need enhances their self-efficacy and pedagogical knowledge. It was also mentioned in the related body of literature that providing that type of differentiated and responsive support to meet teachers’ learning needs could lend a helping hand to enhancing teachers’ professional commitment (Day & Gu, 2007).

**Professional Development and School Culture**

Avalos (2011) contended that professional development is not only about how teachers learn, but also how they transform their knowledge into practice for the maximum benefit of their students. Teachers’ PD is a complex process that entails cognitive and emotional involvement of teachers, and the capacity and readiness to examine one’s convictions and beliefs and to explore
the available alternatives for improvement; this necessitates particular educational environments or school cultures that are permissive and conducive to learning. Different studies referred to school culture as an indicator of the school’s philosophy and attitude. This notion implies how the administrative and organizational structures operate and interact to enhance or restrict teachers’ workplace learning. School traditions, mission, vision, and administrative arrangements influence how teachers appreciate their work and how they interact professionally among themselves. Various subject departments that are seen as forms of the school organization can have positive effects on teacher professional growth and active pedagogic leadership (Avalos, 2011). The impact of a supportive and development-focused organizational culture on teachers’ dedication to PD was further stressed in Chang, Yeh, Chen, and Hsiao’s study (2011). The study suggested that teachers who actively participate in PD “would benefit from pleasant and harmonious workplaces” (p. 169), varied learning opportunities, and motivation to learn from peer experiences which all contribute to workplace learning. Workplace learning is defined as all formal, informal, individual, and collaborative PD that takes place in schools. A supportive organizational learning environment can enhance teachers’ intelligence, self-confidence, and self-efficacy (Avalos, 2011). Desimone (2009) also pinpointed school leadership as a contextual factor and supportive school culture as particularly central to organizational learning.

**The Impact of PD on Teachers’ Performance and Students’ Outcomes**

Teacher professional development often involves reciprocal sharing of ideas, experiences, and active participation in problem-solving activities. Many study results demonstrated the positive impact of PD on teachers’ knowledge and practices. Professional development was said to have improved teachers’ curricular knowledge and understanding in academic areas like reading comprehension, and in some social areas such as fostering students’ learning. Improvement in teachers’ knowledge contributed to their increased self-satisfaction and self-efficacy (Avalos, 2011). Coldwell (2017) argued that international research linked teacher PD with higher teacher efficacy. He added that teachers’ increased knowledge as a result of PD enabled them to feel more confident and motivated as effective educators. Coldwell’s participants contended that PD had also helped them demonstrate their distinctive skills and attributes. Knowledge, confidence, and motivation were seen to be closely related to self-efficacy. Furthermore, some of the teachers who participated in Coldwell’s study asserted that taking part in PD increased their confidence which in turn led to the validation of their content knowledge. Other teachers claimed to have become so confident that they started applying for promotions. Many of Coldwell’s subjects discussed other ‘mediating outcomes’ such as improved classroom practices and increased job satisfaction. Desimone, Porter, Garet, Yoon, and Birman (2002) averred that PD and ongoing learning opportunities were found to have enhanced teachers’ instruction and classroom practices. They confirmed that PD is a cornerstone in deepening teachers’ subject knowledge and increasing their “capacity to teach to high standards” (p. 81).

Moreover, a number of studies asserted that quality PD increased teachers’ content knowledge and improved their enacted instructional practices which had a positive impact on their students’ attainment (Polly et al., 2015; Pehmer, Groschner, & Seidel, 2015). In Avalos’s (2011) review of publications on teacher professional development, he highlighted the effects of PD on student outcomes as teachers tend to adapt their teaching methods to individual student needs. Chang et al. (2011) claimed that it is the teachers’ practical experience and instructional approaches that
promote students’ reflective, critical thinking, and autonomous skills. Pehmer, Groschner, and Seidel (2015) discussed the potential relationship between classroom dialogue-focused PD and students’ higher-order learning abilities. They argued that PD is meant to enhance teachers’ knowledge of different classroom aspects, which would foster deeper understanding on the part of the students. In their study, Polly et al. (2015) propounded that teachers’ content, practical, and personal knowledge had statistically significant effects on student learning outcomes. Generally, it is believed that teachers’ enhanced knowledge is significant to fostering and scaffolding students’ profound understanding through students’ engagement in a productive classroom discourse that develops their higher-order thinking skills. According to Vygotsky’s theory of Zone of Proximal Development, social interaction with adults and more knowledgeable partners was seen to strongly influence the learning progress on the part of the learners; thus, teachers were found to contribute much to such interactions (Bransford, Brown, & Cocking, 2000). With a special focus on more knowledgeable individuals who offer apprenticeships to students while learning, “the teacher has a vital role in employing a variety of tools and scaffolds to support the development of literacy knowledge” (Mariage, Englert, & Garmon, 2000, p. 302).

Professional Development, Career Progression, and Teachers’ Commitment

Career progression is defined by Li, Tong and Wong (2012) as the “systems of training, development programs, promotion, incentives and salary of an organization” (p. 55). Career progression can be also described as the changes in job roles that often lead to greater status, responsibilities, and sometimes pay (Coldwell, 2017). According to Taylor et al. (2011, p. 85), the profession of teaching “offers a relatively flat career trajectory” that lacks satisfactory leadership roles for experienced teachers who demonstrate expertise in the field. Therefore, the extent to which teaching career paths offer continued progression and opportunities to contribute to the quality of education is essential for recruiting and retaining highly qualified and motivated teachers. Besides, teachers usually seek enhanced career paths to promote new learning and maintain motivation about their teaching; without such opportunities, teachers who pursue professional advancement are forced to move into educational management roles. The relationship between PD and career progression was further supported by Coldwell’s study findings (2017) where the respondents associated PD with promotion. Within the literature discussing the impacts of PD, evidence of career outcomes is mostly related to those characteristics that are seen as precursors to career progression but may not automatically lead to promotion -namely teacher expertise, confidence, and self-efficacy (Coldwell, 2017). Based on the Kirkpatrick model, Coldwell (2017) suggested that PD could shift from reaction to the administered training to learning from the training. Then it might possibly cause changes in participants’ behavior to achieve desired results. This framework indicated that PD interventions could influence the ultimate outcomes of career progression, particularly professional and content knowledge, increased job satisfaction, and refined classroom practice.

Teachers who were highly engaged in PD were found to have observed positive impact on their career progression, promotion chances, retention, and commitment. As per Coldwell’s study (2017), PD can have constructive effects on teachers’ commitment to the job and their intentions to stay in the field. He argued that teaching is an “emotional work” (p. 190) that entails support and access to learning opportunities in order to sustain commitment on the part of the teachers. The quality of PD and professional stagnation were also reported by Taylor et al. (2011) as
relevant to teachers’ commitment to their jobs. Li, Tong and Wong (2012) confirmed that among the predisposing factors of professional commitment is the opportunity for knowledge and skill development. They concluded that the perception of career progression opportunities is a significant indicator of professional commitment. In the same vein, Day and Gu (2007) stated that teachers’ professional development is a self-regulated, emotional, and cognitive process that is meant to enrich teachers’ knowledge and practices as well as enhance their self-efficacy and commitment. Another study by Day and Gu (2009) defined veteran teachers “as those with substantial (24+ years) experience” (p. 454); Day and Gu’s study linked veteran teachers’ commitment, resilience, and effectiveness in the profession to adequate school support and quality retention.

Methodology

Research Paradigm

The paradigmatic nature of the current study is an interpretative one. The study is concerned with the human understanding and interpretations of a specific phenomenon like teachers’ perception of PD and its impact on their performance, students’ performance, and career progression (Ernest, 1994).

As a result, the ontological and epistemological stances of this study have to do with subjectivity or subjective reality. The research design, or the overall structural design that helps to construct the current study efficiently and to attempt the research questions (Perry, 2011) is qualitative interpretive. Qualitative research lays emphasis on observing the social world from the “actor’s” viewpoint. Actors are the informants or respondents; what these informants say or do is an important element of qualitative research. Qualitative research also stresses bringing understanding to the public eye through interviews (Grix, 2004). Generally, interpretive research on teaching scrutinizes contextual meanings established by students and teachers in order to achieve a comprehensive understanding of the problem(s). Moreover, it is believed that the earlier research methodology is considered, the more feasible the process of research which would probably reflect on the kind of mustered evidence and the type of reality to be represented.

Participants and Sampling

The participants in the current study are three English Language teachers who work for private schools in Dubai, UAE. Nadia is a female teacher who has been teaching in the same school for nine years; she started as an elementary school teacher until she has become a middle school one. Nadia is currently pursuing a post-graduate degree in Education. Amjad is a high school, male teacher who has been working as a coordinator in the Department of English Language for five years. Amjad is a veteran teacher who has been in the field of education for fifteen years. Mourad is an elementary school, male teacher who has spent ten years in the teaching profession. Generalisation “which is an act of reasoning that involves drawing broad inferences from particular observations,” is debatable in qualitative research. The aim of many qualitative studies “is not to generalize but rather to provide a rich, contextualized understanding of some aspects of human experience through the intensive study of particular cases.” Hence, the results of this study are not meant to be generalized, but to present practical knowledge to the existent body of literature. (Polit & Beck, 2010, p. 1451).
Data Collection Method

Instrumentation or the research regulating factor is the process of selecting and designing the research instruments as well as considering the underlying conditions of administering those instruments. The tools a researcher utilizes in observing, measuring and making sense of the surrounding world determine their productivity (Fraenkel, Wallen, & Hyun, 2012). Semi-structured interviews were chosen as the only data collection methods for the study in hand. Kvale (2008) defines a semi-structured interview as a purposeful everyday conversation that involves a certain technique; in general, interviews provide high quality data and adaptability is one of their major strengths (Drever, 2003).

Procedures

Informal, individual, face-to-face semi-structured interviews were conducted with all three interviewees. The interviews took place in an informal setting for its adjustability to the individual context and situation to help the interviewees give their true feelings without having to bear any consequences (Christensen, 1980). Informality is prioritized when personal, complex, or sensitive issues such as disagreement with organizational policy are tackled (Hannabuss, 1996). The interviews were individually administered to allow the researcher to lead the discussion easily in the desired direction and create an atmosphere of discretion that helped the respondents to discuss their personal views openly. Face-to-face interviews were considered more convenient in terms of observing the teachers’ non-verbal responses, e.g., body language, tone, hesitation, and facial expressions (Bell, 2005).

Data Analysis and Discussion

All interviews were transcribed, color-coded, and manually analyzed. Transcribing qualitative data granted the author the initial reduction opportunity to settle on information relevant to the study. A thematic color-coding, manual analysis then took place based on discussed themes. Interviewees were given pseudonyms to reach confidentiality of identities.

Preferred PD Types (Formal vs. Informal)

All three interviewed teachers highly value PD as an effective tool that contributes to raising the level of teachers’ performance and confidence, content knowledge, awareness of trendy classroom strategies and teaching methodologies, classroom management skills, and students’ outcomes.

As for the teachers’ preferred PD types, Nadia claims that at the beginning of her teaching career, she used to be more inclined to informal means of PD such as “observing colleagues’ classes and having discussions with them during parallel meetings in order to get practical experience of in-class effective teaching strategies.” She adds that as she becomes more experienced in the field, she tends to “search for formal workshops and courses” that would equip her with updated knowledge of teaching and learning. As veteran educators, Mourad and Amjad also show preference for formal PD activities; Amjad states that he “can target a specific area of growth to enhance through choosing a suitable PD session,” which “saves time and is more interesting.” Teachers’ work engagement and additional responsibilities are investigated in relation to PD by Richter et al. (2011); results demonstrate that teachers with management
responsibilities pursue more formal PD, a finding that correlates with Amjad’s situation as a coordinator of the English department at his school.

Interviewees’ arguments can also be attributed to the assumption made by Tamir (1991) that a novice teacher “brings in a relatively high load of life experience and very little, if any, professional experience.” Teachers thus tend to prioritize practical classroom-related knowledge, usually provided via informal PD, over theoretical, professional knowledge offered in teacher education courses that seem to student teachers “irrelevant and hard to internalize” (p.265). Moreover, Nadia cites narratives as representations of practice that she used to rely on as a novice teacher. According to Pulvermacher and Lefstein (2016), utilizing narratives is not unusual in pre-service teacher preparation; teacher educators consider narratives as an auspicious method of adding more practical repertoire to student teachers’ knowledge.

**Differentiated Professional Development**

Though unplanned, differentiated PD is a theme that emerged during the interviews which indicates its fundamentality to all three participants. The notion that teachers’ professional development should be differentiated is adopted by all three teacher interviewees. Nadia believes that “an experienced teacher’s needs are completely different from what a fresh graduate might need.” She adds, “I still remember when I was a fresh graduate; I attended advanced PD workshops that made me think teaching is hard. PD workshops must be offered in stages that suit both novice and expert teachers and meet their different needs. Teachers’ knowledge varies depending on their years of experience and background.” Amjad holds a similar opinion to Nadia’s; he says that, “For professional development to be effective and interesting, teachers’ actual needs should be addressed. A certain teacher who needs to improve his teaching methodologies is better directed to pedagogy-related PD rather than to a class management one. Differentiated PD makes it more convenient for both teachers and teacher trainers.”

Mourad agrees with the other teachers’ thoughts about differentiated PD; he confirms that “offering PD based on teachers’ needs would improve their performance.” He thinks that “PD can easily be turned from performance-improving sessions to time-wasting ones.” Differentiation should extend beyond how learners learn to who the learners are, which should, in turn, dictate the course of learning. To put it differently, teachers must build on the learners’ prior knowledge taking their level of readiness into consideration. Students come to learning settings with a number of personalized characteristics, likes and dislikes, and life experiences. As a result, deep learning takes place when teachers become cognizant of each student’s values and needs. Bowgen and Sever (2009) argued that responsive teaching happens when we consider whom, what, where, and how we teach; this thought contradicts the pervasive notion that one-size-fits-all PD is a successful practice. Readiness, motivation, learning style, interest, needs, content, and situation are among the factors to be attended to by PD experts when offering learning for teachers. Student teachers, in turn, deserve to gain knowledge of particular areas as per their specific teaching situations. To sum up, PD experts should not regard teachers as a homogeneous group but rather a diverse one in terms of experience, background, knowledge, and potential for leadership roles.
The Impact of School Culture and Career Stage on Teachers’ Inclination to PD

Two of the three interviewees admit that their school culture is supportive and conductive to various forms and types of PD; they even have a feeling of belonging to their schools and never think about finding another job. Mourad describes his workplace as a “good place” for veteran teachers, like himself, who can gain new skills and knowledge that would help them improve professionally. However, he refers to the same workplace as being “not the most suitable place for fresh graduates” who are in need of professional guidance in order to be identified with the experienced teaching community. Amjad adds another aspect where he mentions stress as a by-product that comes along with different job responsibilities. On the other hand, Nadia holds a different opinion; she contends that the school she works for is unsupportive to teachers who tend to improve their abilities. She goes on to say that the school administrative people are unappreciative to her attempt at obtaining a post-graduate degree.

The schools where Amjad and Mourad work administer regular PD sessions; some are done by internal parties, e.g., heads of departments, administrative personnel, or even other teachers. Other PD sessions are done by external experts in the field. Additionally, both schools tend to send some of their teachers to attend workshops sponsored by other organizations, e.g., MENA Teacher Summit, which is seen by both teachers as an added value and credit to their workplaces. However, Nadia believes that it is the school’s reluctant attitude towards PD that limits teachers’ chances of participating in beneficial PD sessions as the school tends to hold teachers responsible for administering such workshops, “while many of them lack the adequate experience to.” Nadia’s viewpoint was discussed in Pulvermacher and Lefstein’s study (2016) on how novice teachers need to observe proficient practitioners and even “perform new tasks under their supervision;” since the teaching profession is one that largely situates its training in practice, it is essential to socialize “novice teachers into expert ways of seeing and understanding classroom practice” and to represent such practice in an adequate depth (p.256).

Teacher respondents ascribe their inclination to PD to their conscious and deliberate awareness of the pivotal role PD plays in sharpening their capabilities and updating their knowledge. This eagerness to PD on the part of the three participants asserts the point raised by Coldwell (2017) that to some teachers, the desire to develop their careers and to see positive outcomes are the motivation to engage in PD. This is also referred to by Avalos (2011) as teachers’ self-directedness and as teacher’s autonomy in Chang et al. (2011).

Based on the Huberman Model, all three participants are considered to be in the middle stage of their career; in this career stage, teachers are believed to be very experienced, but they remain largely interested in enhancing their professional knowledge and skills. This prediction made by Huberman (1989) is in line with the interviewed teachers’ response when asked whether their current career stage has affected their inclination to PD as they all denied being less committed to PD than they were in the earlier stages (Richter et al., 2011).

The Impact of PD on Teachers’ Performance and Students’ Outcomes

All three interviewees mention the positive effects of PD on their professional and personal qualities, and consequently on students’ academic performance. Nadia affirms that PD has augmented her self-confidence and motivation “to always search for effective and enjoyable
teaching approaches” which results in improved students’ outcome as “they started enjoying learning English even if the topic was hard.” Moreover, she acknowledges the strong relation between PD and her perception of second language learners’ needs, her ability to predict their errors, and her competence in adapting the curriculum accordingly.

Amjad mentions self-efficacy and classroom management skills as the two areas of improvement mostly influenced by PD:
“I owe my success as a teacher to professional development…my classroom management skills have greatly evolved due to the shared experiences I gained through professional development.”

Mourad highly appreciates the impact of PD on his content knowledge and teaching methodologies:
“PD sessions have widened my perception of the effectiveness of various teaching methodologies. They helped me identify the different strategies of teaching…my subject knowledge also increased and so did my students’.”

**Relationship Between PD, Career Progression, and Teachers’ Commitment**

All three interviewees admit that they look forward to being in leadership positions; they believe they have gained the required experience and knowledge which would enable them to perform in such a leading place competently. Amjad declares that it is quite normal for any professional to look for opportunities to improve their abilities. Amjad, as the teacher coordinator in the English department, believes that PD has made him eligible for the position he is currently occupying. Additionally, he asserts that “professional development is the only way that can lead” him to the position he is still aspiring to.

Mourad states that he is “looking for a good time and opportunity to apply for a leadership role” to implement what he believes “is more useful, practical, and effective with students.” He holds the belief that PD would help him “get the knowledge and build the solid background” required for leadership roles. According to Mourad, a teacher’s job description needs to be revised in order to “take him back to his main role in the classroom and help him stay focused on this role and to play it effectively.”

Nadia, a master’s degree student, thinks that PD would augment her “opportunities of getting a leadership position,” but not in her current school. As per Taylor et al. (2011), advanced certification generally prepares teachers for leadership roles as teachers at this stage are expected to demonstrate expertise. Nadia also plans to find a job in a different workplace that appreciates her initiative to sharpen her teaching skills. Commitment to the job has been argued by Pfitzner-Eden (2016) to be affected by a number of factors, among which are the beliefs about the expectations about the future job which justifies Nadia’s noncommittal attitude towards her workplace.

**Conclusion**

The aim of the study has been achieved and the research questions have been thoroughly answered through the administered interviews that probed into the interviewees’ speculations and perceptions of PD. All three respondents realize the value of professional development and how a positive and supportive school culture can promote teachers’ inclination to PD; their proclivity
for attending PD sessions can be attributed to their deliberate cognizance of the significance of PD in teachers’ professional life. However, they invalidate any relation to their current career stage; all participants confirm that their career stage has no negative effect on their commitment to PD. The interviewees have also shown preference for more formal PD types, e.g., conferences, workshops, and courses, compared to informal or tentative ones such as peer observations and narratives by colleagues. The three participants cite a number of professional and personal qualities they have gained as a result of PD among which are a sense of self-efficacy, motivation, classroom management skills, developed content knowledge, confidence, and enhanced teaching methodologies. Students’ outcomes, as per teachers’ words, are positively influenced by teachers’ inclination and commitment to PD. According to the interviews, teachers in the current study assume that PD increases their chances of obtaining leadership roles and thus enhances their committal attitudes towards PD and the workplace. Additionally, the three teachers are advocates of differentiated PD based on teachers’ needs and experience.

For future studies on PD, employing a quantitative tool such as a survey to explore the multifaceted topic of PD from teachers’ perspectives would add value to the existing body of research. Developing a longitudinal study and mustering data about students’ academic performance through following up on their academic progress over time would provide literature with firmly established evidence on the significance of teachers’ PD. Additionally, classroom observation of teachers in different career stages followed by conversation analysis of classroom discourse would be another informative research method to investigate the impact of PD on teachers’ performance.

Limitations of the Study
All private schools in Dubai follow the standards set by The Knowledge and Human Development Authority (KHDA) which is the educational regulatory and quality assurance authority of Dubai Government. The KHDA pays regular inspection visits to Dubai schools to ensure their commitment to KHDA standards. Among the KHDA requirements from schools is a specific number of PD sessions to be administered for teachers. Since all Dubai schools seek KHDA recognition, they need to achieve the target number of PD conferences by any means which might explain the interviewees’ viewpoints. In a different context where schools have the deliberate choice of PD related decisions, such a study would yield different results.

Generalization is referred to by Allen (2017) as “the extent to which findings of an empirical investigation hold for a variation of populations and settings” (p. 618). The number of participants is another limitation of the study; the sample of participants are not seen to be representative of the target population. Interviewing more teachers of a range of different subjects, not only English language teachers, would have brought more themes to the spotlight. Hence, the study results cannot be generalized to other populations that do not share the same features of the current research context.

In addition, data triangulation or the strategy used by researchers to improve the validity and reliability of research findings is another shortcoming; reliability or consistency of data results is achievable when the data collection method produces the same results about the observed phenomenon regardless of who makes the observations (Golafshani, 2003).
the light of the adopted paradigm in this study, the reliability and trustworthiness of the research findings could have been increased upon employing an additional data collection method.

**About the Author**

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**References**


The Detective and Sensation Fiction of Wilkie Collins:
A Computational Lexical-Semantic Analysis

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Abstract
Theme and genre classifications in the works of Wilkie Collins (1824-89) have been extensively investigated using different literary approaches; these are usually based on textual content and biographical considerations. Different critics place Collins’ works under the two main headings of detective fiction and sensation fiction. Such analyses have been generated by what is referred to as the ‘philological method’; that is, by an individual critic’s reading of the relevant material and their intuitive abstraction of generalizations from that reading. A problem with such an approach is that it is not objective, and it is therefore unreliable. The research question is thus asked in response to the subjectivity of previous genre classifications of the novels of Wilkie Collins and the lack of agreement among literary critics and researchers about such classifications. As such, I ask whether an objective and conceptually useful reading of the themes and subjects of Wilkie Collins’ prose fiction texts can be developed. As thus, computational lexical-semantics is suggested to understand the issues of thematic classification. For this purpose, vector space clustering (VSC) was used for capturing the lexical-semantic features of his novels and linking them explicitly to the relevant themes and genres. It is suggested that through this method, an objective, replicable, and reliable genre classification of Collins’ novels is possible. The results of this study can serve as a basis for future studies and criticisms of Wilkie Collins’ fiction.

Keywords: computational lexical-semantics; detective fiction; genre classification; sensation fiction; theme analysis; vector space clustering (VSC); Wilkie Collins

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1. Introduction

Theme and subject in the works of Wilkie Collins (1824-89) have been extensively investigated using different literary approaches; these are usually based on textual content and biographical considerations. Different critics place Collins’ works under the two main headings of detective fiction and sensation fiction. Such analyses have been generated by what is referred to as the ‘philological method’; that is, by an individual critic’s reading of the relevant material and their intuitive abstraction of generalizations from that reading. A problem with such an approach is that it is not objective, and it is therefore unreliable. The idea of objectivity has long been a central issue in the discussion of literary works. Different critics have concerned themselves with identifying new approaches and have suggested new grounds and methodologies for dealing with literary texts. A number of them have found new avenues for addressing problems of traditional literary criticism in the methods of computational linguistic, especially with the development of electronic text formats that permit the application of computational data analysis concepts and procedures. Work of this kind is often classified under the broad heading of digital humanities: researchers use computational methods to either answer existing research questions or to challenge existing theoretical paradigms; in doing so, they generate new questions and pioneer new approaches (Berry, 2012). The purpose of this study thus is to see if such concepts and procedures, and more specifically those which constitute the class of computational lexical-semantic methods, can usefully supplement philological methods in the thematic analysis of the prose fiction writings of Wilkie Collins.

Despite the effectiveness of computational methods in literary studies, including work on thematic analysis, genre classification, authorship attribution, and stylistics, a search of the literature reveals that there has been no computer-aided thematic analysis or classification of the works of Wilkie Collins. This is the case with many writers in English whose review through computational methods is very limited. One reason for this may be due to the opaque language of computational methods for researchers in literature. Ramsay (2003) suggests that “the inability of computing humanists to break into the mainstream of literary critical scholarship may be attributed to the prevalence of scientific methodologies and metaphors in humanities computing research” (167). In light of this limitation, this study seeks to address the gap between literary research and computational analysis by generating an automated classification of Collins’ prose fiction works with the purpose of providing an objective analysis of the themes and subjects in his novels. The research question is asked in response to the subjectivity of previous genre classifications of the novels of Wilkie Collins and the lack of agreement among literary critics and researchers about such classifications. As such, I ask whether an objective and conceptually useful reading of the themes and subjects of Wilkie Collins’ prose fiction texts can be developed.

The goal of this study is to see if the concepts and procedures of computational linguistics, and more specifically computational lexical semantics, being the process of decoding meanings within texts, can usefully supplement philological methods in the genre classification of the prose fiction of Wilkie Collins. To do this, lexical-semantic analysis using vector space clustering (VSC) methods has been applied to find the similarities and/or dissimilarities within the texts; the purpose is to capture the lexical-semantic features of his novels and link them explicitly to the relevant themes and genres.
2. Statement of the problem
The established literature on Collins is saturated with stereotypical criticisms and patterns that are not grounded in empirical criteria. One major problem of such a tendency is that thematic discussions about Collins are mostly confined to a few major themes, such as detective fiction and sensation fiction, paying little attention to other thematic concepts. It has been a commonplace of thematic reviews of Collins to consider that he is the pioneer of detective and sensation fiction (Gasson & Peters, 1998; Mangham, 2008; Page, 2002; Pykett, 2005; Taylor, 2006). Different critics assert that detective and sensation elements are the most dominant themes of his novels and short stories. Others, however, have reflected on his novels and short stories as being a product of nineteenth-century social, economic, and cultural life. The problem with such analyses is that they are not based on empirical grounds. The majority of these criticisms are, to a great extent, stereotypical and have no objective grounds.

Another problem with previous thematic classifications of Collins’ fiction is that they are selective. That is to say, many critics select only the novels and short stories that support their arguments and classification. So far, there is no single work that has taken the full measure of the themes of Collins’ total corpus of novels and short stories. This may be due to the idea that many classifications of Collins have built on the earlier classification of his work into detective and sensation fiction. The result of this is that many discussions based on philological methods show significant bias. Very often, they are based on certain concepts within the school of the critic or on their personal evaluation. In many cases, the data that critical approaches use is not representative. Rommel (2004) argues that problems and limitations of selectivity and exclusion are integral aspects of traditional approaches to analyzing literary texts. He adds that such approaches lack any empirical evidence, and this is why the main bulk of traditional literary criticisms are located in mainstream literary scholarship, which accepts such problems and limitations as givens. Rettberg (2016) indicates that one way to address such issues and limitations is the integration of computational approaches into critical literary studies. He adds that computational approaches help researchers and critics employ empirical methods and explore much larger amounts of data in systematic ways than traditional approaches.

3. Literature Review
Computational lexical semantics has been used in a number of different applications, including information retrieval, text documentation, and authorship detection (Pustejovsky, 2012; Saint-Dizier et al., 1995; Storjohann, 2010). In spite of its effectiveness in addressing various problems, applications of computational lexical semantics are still very limited. This may be attributed to the unfamiliarity of the field of computational theory and its methodologies to literary critics. This unfamiliarity has led many literary scholars and critics to consider them somehow alien to literary studies. This can explain the gap we see between critical literary theory, on one hand, and computer-based text analysis and quantitative approaches on the other: the majority of critical theory researchers have never argued for the need of computational approaches to supplement widely used critical approaches (Finneran, 1996; Potter, 1989; Schreibman, Simens, & Unsworth, 2013). With increasing access to e-texts and greater availability and power of computational tools, however, there has been growing interest in literary computing studies for text analysis and interpretation with methods of computational lexical semantics being widely used. There have been a number of different applications, including authorship attribution, stylometric analysis,
Thematic analysis, genre classification, characterization, and textual analysis. The focus of this study is thematic analysis.

Thematic analysis is a fundamental discipline in literary criticism studies. Nevertheless, the definition and practice of thematic analysis are not yet settled. There is no agreement on the definition of the term ‘theme’ itself. Some think of the theme as the moral or lesson of a literary work. Others hold to the idea that the theme represents the main idea in a literary work. While a variety of definitions of the term have been suggested, this study considers the theme as a pattern of meaning or threads of ideas giving an overall picture of a literary work. Thematic reviews have previously been done using non-computational methods. With the development of computational approaches, scholars have come to think about how effective computational approaches are in identifying meanings within texts and, it is suggested by literary computing researchers that computational lexical-semantic approaches have proved effective in improving the understanding of literary texts (Rockwell, 2003). Despite the relative success of studies of this kind, they have been met with strong objections from a number of critics and scholars. Some think that such methods of interpreting texts are still far from successful at detecting what a text is about exactly (Corns, 1991; Rommel, 2004).

The literature suggests that computational lexical-semantic methods of analyzing texts are central to computer-based applications on thematic analysis (Argamon & Olsen, 2006; Yu, 2008). The main assumption is that methods of computational lexical-semantic analysis are effective at identifying what a text is about. Consequently, thematic hypotheses can be based on clustering results. Two good examples supporting this position are Plaisant et al. (2006) and Horton et al. (2006). Plaisant et al. offer a thematic analysis of eroticism in Emily Dickinson’s correspondence. The discussion on eroticism in the author’s correspondence has been one of the most controversial and important debates about Dickinson of the twentieth century. The study analyzed a corpus of about 300 XML-encoded letters comprising nearly all the correspondence between Emily Dickinson and her sister-in-law Susan Huntington. The authors conclude that computational techniques were effective in generating new insights and ideas. This study, above all, offers a system to support humanities scholars in their interpretation of literary works (Plaisant, Rose, & Yu, 2006). Horton et al. (2006) undertake a thematic review of sentimentalism in early American novels. The researchers looked at how a collection of texts can exhibit certain thematic features using five American novels in the case study, including Stowe’s Uncle Tom’s Cabin (1897) and The Minister’s wooing (1859); Jacobs Incidents in the Life of a Slave Girl (1861); and Rowson’s Charlotte: a Tale of Truth (1794) and Charlotte’s Daughter (1828). The novels were divided into 184 chapters and the level of sentimentality evident was assessed in each. The authors concluded that 95 chapters were highly sentimental while 89 showed low sentimentality.

Similarly, a number of studies have adopted computational lexical-semantic methods for investigating thematic interrelationships in Shakespearean texts (Jockers, 2009; Ramsay, 2005, 2007). Ramsay (2005) holds that computational tools provide objective criteria that can serve to adjudicate some of the problems of thematic analysis and objectively assign appropriate themes to literary texts. He used computational lexical-semantic methods to generate hypotheses about the thematic interrelationships in Shakespeare’s plays. The plays were grouped into four distinct clusters: comedy, tragedy, history, and romance. He reported that comedies and histories clustered
together very well, but it was hard to distinguish romance from tragedy. Ramsay admitted that the results were not wholly convincing. However, he also stressed the importance of thinking about objective criteria in the thematic analysis of literature.

The main problem with such applications relates to feature selection—the use of distinctive lexicons that can express the meanings of texts. In the face of this limitation, this study proposes the use of a hybrid complex of statistical measures, including frequency analysis, variance analysis, term frequency-inverse-document frequency (TF-IDF), and principal component analysis (PCA) in sequence to selecting the most distinctive features for generating reliable document clustering, which can be usefully used in thematic analysis tasks.

4. Methodology
4.1. Methods
There are several approaches that have already been explored in computational lexical-semantic analysis, particularly in the study of fictional and prose literary works. These include non-negative matrix factorization, vector space clustering, latent semantic analysis, self-organizing maps, and locality-preserving projection. In this study, the vector space clustering (VSC) model was used. The rationale for using VSC is that it is one of the most popular methods for data representation in document clustering applications and is still suitable for the majority of clustering purposes.

In VSC applications, a vector space model (VSM) is usually built. This is a technique whereby documents are compared to each other then indexed or classified in terms of their similarity or distance based on the words they contain. The underlying procedure in VSM involves the initial extraction of all useful information within a document collection and its recording in an index known as a vector space. A proximity measurement is then used to compute the semantic similarity among the documents with the purpose of grouping similar documents together. This is done by measuring the relative distances between the row vectors. The distance between any two vectors in a space is jointly determined by the size of the angle between the lines joining them to the origin of the space’s coordinate system and by the lengths of those lines.

4.2. Data collection
To support reliable generalization about the thematic content of the novels of Collins, the corpus has to be both large and representative. As such, this study is based on a corpus comprising all the novels of Wilkie Collins. Thirty texts were downloaded from two online sources: (1) the Gutenberg Project and (2) the Wilkie Collins Pages Website. Prior to data processing, the texts were subjected to four processes: cleaning up, removing function words, executing stop word lists, and stemming. The texts were first cleaned of all punctuation marks and non-alphabetic characters. All function words were then removed because the focus is on keywords, which are lexical items. Thirdly, the texts were stemmed, i.e. suffixes were removed from the ends of words. Finally, stop word lists were generated and executed. The lists included many recurring lexical items, with little to add to thematic categorization such as proper names, titles, and reporting verbs.

4.3. Procedures
A data matrix, M, is abstracted from the corpus: the rows, i, represent texts; the columns, j, represent lexical types occurring across all the texts; and the value at Mij is the frequency of
occurrence of lexical type \( j \) in text \( i \). Each matrix row vector, therefore, represents a lexical frequency profile for the corresponding text. Because each lexical variable in the profile has semantic content, the profile gives a representation of what a text is about, what it is not about, and gradations in between. The matrix, \( M \), consists of 30 rows and 22,801 columns. At this stage, the matrix suffers from two problems. First, some texts are very long, while others are very short. Second, the dimensions are so big that it is impossible for any cluster analysis to produce meaningful results. As such, \( M \) needs to be transformed.

4.3.1. Compensation for variation in text length
In clustering applications, document length plays an important role in grouping similar texts together. Measuring the similarity within texts can be greatly influenced by vectors that have the largest values. It is expected that the proximity measurements will be dominated by longer documents. In a VSM, the distance between any two documents is determined by their length and the magnitude of the angle between the vectors. This means that if the length of the document increases, the number of times a particular term occurs in the document will also increase. Consequently, length becomes an increasingly important determinant of vector clustering in the space and, vice versa—if the documents are short, the angles between the vectors become smaller and short documents will be clustered together.

One way to resolve this problem is through the normalization of text length: the length of shorter texts is compensated for by means of standardizing the vectors, so that all documents in a matrix are represented equally. This is a way of penalizing the term weights for a document in accordance with its length (Amati & Rijsbergen, 2002; Robertson & Walker, 1994; Singhal, Chris, & Mandar, 1996). For the purposes of this study, the cosine normalization method and Pearson’s correlation analysis were used. Cosine normalization is one of the most commonly applied techniques in the vector space model (Rijsbergen, 1979; Salton & Buckley, 1987; Singhal, Chris, et al., 1996; Singhal, Salton, Mitra, & Buckley, 1996). The underlying principle of cosine normalization is that all documents in a given collection are represented equally. In this process, all row vectors of the matrix are transformed so that they have unit length and are made to lie on a hypersphere of radius 1 around the origin, ensuring that all vectors are equal in length. Accordingly, variation in the length of documents and, correspondingly, of the vectors that represent them is no longer a factor (Moisl, 2009).

Pearson’s correlations analysis of words sampled from the 30 texts was undertaken to develop the results as shown in Table One.

Table 1. Results of Pearson’s Correlation Coefficient Analysis

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The correlation analysis used vectorised measurements of words chosen from 30 texts; it also represents each text’s uniqueness against its word count, in terms of length and frequency. As such, Pearson’s method of correlation provides an approximate word measure for Wilkie Collins’ novels in each category. This measure can then be correlated to the length of each text: the longer the text, the lower the relative occurrence of a particular set of words. This phenomenon is explained further in the next section on clustering validation.

4.3.2. Dimensionality Reduction

In VSM, the high dimensionality of text data is a major issue and has a negative impact on the reliability and accuracy of almost all document clustering applications. The larger the data dimensionality, the more difficult it becomes to define the manifold sufficiently well to achieve reliable analytical results. A good clustering should be based only on the most important terms “because irrelevant and redundant words often degrade the performance of classification algorithms both in speed and classification accuracy” (Novovičová, Malík, & Pudil, 2004, p. 1010). The analysis is concerned only with the distinctive lexicons that can represent the texts on semantic grounds. This means that if a word is used frequently, even for more than a thousand times in one text, it cannot be taken into account in the analysis. In order to select only the distinctive lexical features that can help in generating hypotheses about the theme and subject of the selected texts, a hybrid approach of reductive methods is used. These include frequency analysis, variance analysis, term frequency-inverse-document frequency (TF-IDF), and principal component analysis (PCA).

A frequency analysis was carried out. The hypothesis was that very infrequent words are of little importance in making generalizations about the selected texts. It was decided, therefore, that words with frequencies of less than ten should be removed. This reduced the number of vectors from 22,801 to 13,450. This was followed by a variance test. It was revealed that the first 1,000 columns were the most varied. As such, the vectors from 1-2,000 were retained and the other vectors were deleted, as is shown in Figure One.

![Figure 1. Variance Analysis of the Matrix Collins 30, 13450](image_url)

Next, a TF-IDF test was carried out. This is the most common method of calculating term frequency. In our case, it was decided that only the highest TF-IDF values should be retained, allowing us to reduce the original matrix to 400 variables. This is shown in Figure Two.
Finally, PCA was applied. PCA is a basic geometric tool used to produce a lower-dimensional description of the rows and columns of a multivariate data matrix (Härdle & Simar, 2003; Jackson, 1991). The main function of PCA is to find the most informative vectors within a data matrix. As Jolliffe (2002) explains: “The central idea of PCA is to reduce the dimensionality of a dataset consisting of a large number of interrelated variables, while retaining as much as possible of the variation present in the data sets” (p. 1). It can be described as a technique for data quality (Jackson, 1991). Using a scree plot representation of the highest TF-IDF values (as shown in Figure Three), it may be agreed that components 1-70 are probably meaningful and components 71-400 are probably trivial. As such, variables 1-70 were retained and 71-400 deleted.

5. Analysis and Discussions
VSC methods were used to group the 30 texts according to the most distinctive lexicons generated above. Figure Four presents a tree with the document titles corresponding to the row vectors and its leaves uniting into large clusters containing subordinate clusters. The large clusters are blended
into a single category containing all or some part of one or more row vectors. The lengths of each horizontal line presented in each category are related to the text clusters or the number of words—the longer the line, the greater the dissimilarity. The hierarchical clustering shown in Figure Four gives the assumption that texts in each group or cluster will have something in common that makes them similar to each other and different from other texts in other groups. Hierarchical cluster analysis is the most common method of generating a model of clusters; this method works successfully even with variables in opposition. This method can cluster variables together just like factor analysis.

**Figure 4. VSC of Collins’ Novels Using Hierarchical Cluster Analysis Methods**

The validity of any type of cluster analysis depends primarily on the methodology adopted. In literary cluster analysis, varied clustering methods may generate different structures potentially affecting the reliability of the results. To ensure validity of the clustering, cross-validation or relative comparison methods are used. In a cross-validation approach, the texts are randomly
divided into subsets or groups and the cluster analysis is carried out separately on each group. The results of such cluster analysis can indicate its validity (Rencher, 2002) if the relative approach is based on comparing the clustering structure, generated by the same algorithms, but using an alternative representation of the data. Cross-validation shows a close fit between the clustering structures. Specifically, there is a total correspondence between the structures based on the data matrix composed of all the 30 rows and the structures based on the random distribution of these 30 rows into four groups, as shown in Table Two.

The hierarchical clusters are shown in Table Two as four sub-clusters, labeled as Group 1, Group 2, Group 3, and Group 4.

Table 2. Cluster Analysis of Wilkie Collins’ Fictional Prose Texts

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cluster</th>
<th>Members</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lexicon Group 1</td>
<td>Collins 12, Collins 08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexicon Group 2</td>
<td>Collins 1, Collins 23, Collins 27, Collins 02, Collins 05, Collins 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collins 04, Collins 09, Collins 17, Collins 13, Collins 03, Collins 15,</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collins 19, Collins 06, Collins 22, Collins 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexicon Group 3</td>
<td>Collins 10, Collins 25, Collins 29, Collins 18</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lexicon Group 4</td>
<td>Collins 7, Collins 30, Collins 16, Collins 21, Collins 20, Collins 24,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Collins 26, Collins 28</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Table Two illustrates the thematic features of each group. These thematic features are broad categories or clusters that are the focus of this study and can be considered predictors of Collins’s thematic structure. Using the semantics of these lexical features, it becomes easy to assign labels to the groups, such as love, detective, romance, etc.

Table 3. Lexical-semantic Clusters of Groups Identified for Thematic Cluster Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lexicon Group 1</th>
<th>Emotions and pathos</th>
<th>Anguish, sorrow, pity, love, despair, passion, excitement anger contempt apathy pretty fury.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collins 12, Collins 08</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexicon Group 2</td>
<td>Family relationships</td>
<td>Daughter, family, son, juvenile wife, mother, widow, senile, grandson, niece, paternity, young, acquaintance, maternal, brother, parent, sibling, husband, wife, nephew, lineage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collins 1, Collins 23, Collins 27, Collins 02, Collins 05, Collins 14, Collins 04, Collins 09, Collins 17, Collins 13, Collins 03, Collins 15, Collins 19, Collins 06, Collins 22, Collins 11</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexicon Group 3</td>
<td>Detective</td>
<td>Mystery, secret, anonymous, unknown, covert, clandestine detection.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Collins 10, Collins 25, Collins 29, Collins 18</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table Three presents content words with lexical variety from across Collins’ prose writings. For instance, words like infidel, asylum or eccentricity appear very frequently in the context of human character; epithets like affectionate, anxiety reflects the author’s emotional patterns; narrow banks barren of verdure shows his versatile imagery, much emphasized repeatedly in words such as jagged, waves, rays and dusky. These examples reveal a great deal of linguistic variation in Collins’ fictional prose works that cannot be attributed to a limited number of variables of time using linguistic measures. These findings reveal that Collins’s prose fictional texts use linguistic features that can be clustered in lexical-semantic fields frequently appearing in his texts.

Table Two and Table Three along with their descriptions are thus sufficient to determine thematic similarity among the words occurring in the same text. This is described as ‘topical similarity’ due to its linkages with the context (Clark, 2015), it is often a challenge to determine which words appear in the same text owing to its length. The solution offered is to reduce the context to a single sentence or only to a few words so that similar words do not appear in the same contextual window (Clark, 2015). In the context of the sampled texts for this study, this suggestion would not work since almost synonymous words, such as dark, stagnant or barren, occur in the same sentence and in the same context.

Sahlgren (2006) makes a distinction between two alternatives: one uses “syntagmatic” relations to the context while the other uses “paradigmatic” relations. The syntagmatic words are those that co-occur in the same text region, whereas paradigmatically related words are surrounding words that are often not the same (Sahlgren, 2006). Theoretically, it is recommended that each word is considered as a single context and the number of times such a context word occurs in a text is counted. The matrix may not require a target word used to calculate the context vectors in this study, but such words provide the context. For instance, Collins frequently uses the terms secret and mystery together, which are sometimes similar in meaning. Hence, there are many words surrounding other groups of words, including human emotions, imagery, and family relationships, sampled for this study. The clustering structure shown in Figure Four exemplifies that the row corresponding to detective novels (mystery, detection, secret) in the term-term matrix displays a frequent numerical overlap with its corresponding vector. In other words, words surrounding the context of secret are the same as those surrounding mystery. A similar pattern is seen for passion and love; or pathos and pity. Such a pairing of target words also hints at the syntagmatic and paradigmatic relations of terms to their context.

Based on the hierarchical clustering shown in Figure Four of Collins’ 30 novels, a lexical-semantic analysis can be suggested to identify the dominant themes. The thematic categorization
of Willkie Collins’ novels on the basis of the semantic content using vector space clustering methods was, however, a big challenge. Firstly, the clustering required semantic intuition and splitting of the cluster into similar or contrasting words. In order to distinguish them thematically, a centroid vector for each of the four groups was constructed by quantifying the means of the vectors constituting them. Having calculated the mean, the differentiating variables between all groups were investigated in order to suggest a thematic categorization for each group. The codes or themes were emphasized in making the lexical and semantic selection. This process is similar to that used by structuralist researchers such as Moretti (2011), Bakhtin (1981) and Propp (1968) who reduced the clustering to variables like plot, characters, and setting. For example, Moretti (2011) carried out a structural analysis of William Shakespeare’s *Hamlet* where plot and characters were seen as nodes and these nodes were isolated and then reconnected together again in order to show how the plot changes with the structural transformation of the characters. Elson, Dames, and McKeown (2010) justified the approach of structural analysis by making use of plot and characters to build clusters. Jayannavar, Agarwal, Ju, and Rambow (2015) revisited the hypotheses of Elson et al. (2010) and validated them by recommending dialogic interactions and semantic orientation to formulate clusters. Though these approaches succeeded in producing static networks or clusters for a piece of literature, they failed to recommend a thematic analysis or to build a similar static network to examine the themes of a novel or prose works, as is presented in this study.

Secondly, the process of clustering revealed that some words that were close to each other semantically created a challenge in how to suggest a dominant theme that can include all the texts within the same group and distinguish them from texts in other groups. This observation suggests that collocation analysis may be used for building thematic clustering. The commonality between words and their semantic values can also be seen as intrinsic properties. This suggestion is confirmed by concept mapping for each thematic category, presenting a network analysis of the co-occurrence patterns for each of the four groups. Each cluster represents one group consisting of words used as nodes. The concept mapping of similar words joined as nodes hints at their uniqueness in a particular corpus. This further illustrates the lexical-semantic qualities of Collins’ texts. For the purpose of quantifying different categories of words in Collins’ texts, it was necessary to make a word-by-word textual analysis.

As indicated in the clustering structure, it seems that the majority of Collins’ work falls into two categories. The first category includes texts, such as *The Woman in White*, of sensation and detective fiction. The results are, therefore, broadly in agreement with the existing, philologically-based critical opinion on the thematic structure of Collins’ work. The contribution of this study, however, is that it gives that critical opinion a scientific, that is an objective and replicable, basis. The methodology used in this study has been shown to be effective in the literary analysis of Collins’ work and is thus potentially applicable to literary scholarship more generally. Computational analysis methods have been used here to empirically derive taxonomies of thematic concepts in the novels of Wilkie Collins. The implication is that the computational element in literary criticism provides what Hockey (2000) describes as “concrete evidence to support or refute hypotheses or interpretations which have in the past been based on human reading and the somewhat serendipitous noting of interesting features” (p. 66).
The essence of the proposed methodology is the use of the lexical-semantic content of texts in terms of frequency to categorize them. This method is mathematically-based, clearly understood, objective, and replicable. The human interpretation of texts is based on both lexical content and on higher levels. Still, it is, as pointed out previously, non-objective, non-replicable, and highly subjective. This study aimed to see whether applying computational-based methods to literary texts may constrain a subjective human interpretation by injecting elements of objectivity and replicability. The findings in most cases support the non-computational interpretation of the selected texts. However, in certain cases, the findings of the computational methods are at variance with the human interpretation and classification of texts.

For example, the two texts *Jude* and *Tess* were grouped together, although they are traditionally perceived as thematically different in that they depict two different realms. The two texts are computationally clustered together since they share the most distinctive lexical variables. In such a case, the question is: which is correct? The answer is: neither. Computational methods provide an objective clustering that gives us insight into an alternative interpretation based on criteria that can definitely be found in the texts and which constrain our subjective interpretations. This is the point of the study: not to claim that this method is better than or replaces all human interpretations of literary texts, but rather that it constrains subjective human interpretations by presenting classification criteria that are objective and replicable.

In spite of its success in grouping semantically-related texts together, text clustering based on word-level representation suffers from some limitations. Features like metaphor, irony, and humor still represent real challenges to text clustering applications. The reason for this is that there is nothing intrinsic to individual words to characterize or suggest any form of metaphor, irony, or sarcasm. At this final stage of this research, a number of limitations need to be considered.

First, the analysis was limited to word-level representations. These are lexical frequencies within documents. For analysis, the study depended on what is called the ‘bag of words’ method. Vector representation did not consider the ordering of words in a document. While many researchers accept that word-level representation is very effective in IR and text categorization applications, it is thought, however, that through the combination of word-level and phrase-level representations, a higher level of representation can be achieved leading to better and more accurate results. Furthermore, this can reduce the number of inaccuracies resulting from polysemy. As a result, it is recommended that data representation is based on both word and phrase levels for future automated thematic classification applications of literary texts.

Second, whereas this study has suggested some unifying themes that could well accommodate the texts of each group, it was not concerned with text summarization. It is recommended that computer-based studies of Wilkie Collins are focused on developing methods for text summarization. All the work done concerning providing summaries of Collins’ novels relies heavily on a critic’s own understanding and impressions of the text. In the face of this, it is becoming imperative to make use of effective algorithms available for extracting information and understanding discourse structure so that reliable summaries of Collins, and literary production in general, are generated.
Third, this study is concerned with identifying the thematic relationships within texts. This opens up some discussions on the ideas of the historical, tragic, etc. elements in the works of Collins. Nevertheless, the analysis was not concerned with providing a full charting of the genre classification of the prose fiction works of Collins. It is recommended that we create a genre classification of Collins’ novels by means of exploratory multivariate analysis. With this, we could identify tragedies, comedies, and histories, etc. within the literary corpus of Collins.

7. Conclusion
Based on the preceding vector space analysis of Wilkie Collins texts, conclusions can be drawn by looking at the clusters and their lexical-semantic features. It is not a complete analysis as the contents of each cluster and the role of each feature may lead to further thematic classifications. A logical next step to be taken is to analyze all clusters and their features, both content-based and cluster-based, to see whether any new results can be formulated. A similar approach can be taken of another suitable corpus by including Collins’ short stories as well or by choosing a different author. This study also notes the challenge of classifying a literary canon that broke with literary traditions making a quantitative literary analysis difficult. This study has attempted to build clusters from Collins’ novels to represent their thematic categories. The main objective of this study was to understand the approach that a cluster analysis should rightly take in determining themes and key subjects in this kind of writing. A secondary objective was to understand how this clustering presented an indication of the author’s style. Vector analysis was done for 30 texts of Collins’ prose to understand the issues of thematic classification. The results of this study can serve as a basis for future studies and criticisms of Wilkie Collins’ fiction. The study has gone some way towards resolving issues of authorship attribution and genre classification. Computational lexical-semantic methods can be used to identifying authors and characterizing texts by genre. As such, they are recommended as effective methods for authorship problems and genre classification applications.

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Difficulties Encountering Multileveled Classes Teachers' in Teaching Reading Comprehension  
(A case study of Cambridge Training Centers and British Educational Institutes in Khartoum State, Sudan)

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Abstract  
The study aims at investigating the difficulties encountered by English centers teachers of multileveled classes in teaching reading comprehension, and suggests some suitable strategies that can alleviate the problems. To run the study, thirty-four language center teachers' from Khartoum State are the sample of the study. A questionnaire, supported by classroom observation, was the collecting data tool. The quantitative method matches this type of research. The findings of the study reveal that the difficulties encountered by multileveled classes teachers' attributed to the students' limited vocabulary, poor background knowledge, annoying reading materials, lack of teachers' training, and adverse selection of suitable strategies. The findings of this study are of high value for syllables designers as well as multileveled classes’ teachers. Teachers have to adopt adequate strategies, choosing attractive reading materials, and they should be equipped with the required training.

Keywords: Center teachers, EFL students, multileveled classes, reading comprehension, reading difficulties

Introduction
The language centers teachers' in this study are MA. Holders in the English language and they are teaching university students and university graduates who finished their bachelor programs in different specializations, including economics, management, engineering, etc. The subject taught in these centers is the English language, focusing mainly on language skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing). The students enroll in this program to upgrade their standard to pursue profitable jobs.

In teaching fields, many challenges and difficulties face teachers and learners equally. Teaching a multileveled class is one of the problems that face teachers. Working as an English teacher, affords challenges every day. The teacher has to deal with many students at a time with different levels of ability, motivation, special interests, and experiences.

According to Jones (2007) very class is a multileveled, and even students who have studied together all the time will have varied mastery of the language. They bring their personalities, strengths, weaknesses, and learning style to the class. Ainslie (1994) sees that multileveled/mixed-ability types are classes where students differ significantly in ability, motivation for learning English, needs, interests, educational background, styles of learning, anxiety, experiences, and so on.

According to Bremner, (2008) multileveled classes is a universal phenomenon. Students generally are grouped in categories due to their age and other different considerations. They are classified randomly regardless of their accomplishment and levels of capability. In our real situation, all the students are equal in treatment, and no special attention for specific type of student.

Ur, P. (1996) lists nineteen factors that stand behind the differentiation of students' abilities. They are language learning ability, language knowledge, cultural background, learning style, attitude to the language, mother tongue, intelligence, world knowledge, learning experience, knowledge of other words, age or maturity, gender, personality, confidence, motivation, interest, independence, self-discipline, and educational level.

Language centers teachers' in Khartoum state noticed that they are facing difficulties in teaching reading comprehension classes for multileveled classes. To solve the problem, the researcher is motivated to conduct a study in this area.

Rivers (1981) argues that “reading is the most important activity in any language class, not only as a source of information and pleasurable activity but also as a means of consolidating and extending one’s which are knowledge of the language” (p. 147). Reading plays a crucial role in our educational, working, and daily life.

Krashen and Brown (2007) think that reading is the most critical skill among the four language skills as it can improve overall language proficiency. (Wixon, Peters, Weber and Roeber-
Difficulties Encountering Multileveled Classes Teachers' in Teaching Reading
Abualzain

(1987) assure that the reading process constructs meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader, the text, and the context of the reading situation.

Mercer and Mercer (2001) believe that typical reading difficulties of multileveled abilities include problems with vocabulary, word recognition, reading comprehension, and reading rate.

Research Objectives
This study plans to achieve the following objectives:
1- To investigate the difficulties encountered by multileveled classes teachers' in teaching reading comprehension.
2- To introduce some strategies that the multileveled classes teachers can employ.
3- To explore whether the teachers are well trained to meet the needs of the students with different abilities or not.

Research Questions
The study attempts to answer the following questions:
1- What are the difficulties that the multileveled classes teachers face in teaching reading comprehension?
2- What strategies do the teachers adopt to overcome these difficulties?
3- Do the multileveled class's teachers' receive a good training to run the courses?

Literature Review
Multileveled classes took place when groups of students were not adequately fit according to their abilities. Multileveled class groups can be arranged on a random basis, for example, by form group, gender, age, and social relationships. The students will be in the same multi-ability group for all subjects.

Ur, (1996) believes that all classes of more than one learner are, multileveled classes. Since teaching processes face many challenges and obstacles, multileveled levels eventually are one of the crucial tasks that the teachers encounter. Mathews-Aydinli & Van Horne (2006) define multilevel courses as the classes where students with different levels are grouped. They differ in their levels of capability in listening, reading, speaking and writing. Valentic (2005) sees that students all over the world and at all levels differ in their language talent and they even differ in their attitudes towards learning a language, and in self-control.

Hedge (2000) thinks that teaching multileveled classes is a vital issue that teachers experienced daily, and the mixed-ability problem required severe attention from experts in the educational field. Ansari (2013) discusses vital point dealing with teaching multileveled classes; he assures that teachers face difficulties in planning effectively for their lessons to guarantee that all their students gain the required benefits from the experience. This is mainly a challenge for the language teachers who lack the required skills and teaching methods to deal with multileveled classes.
Ellis (1994) points out that language teachers feel disordered when some learners acquire language characteristics quickly while the other learners in the same class show no development. The cause may be the process of second language acquisition. Moreover, many aspects could affect learning outcomes in language classrooms. Learners’ ability and motivation towards learning a new language are the main factors that affect their performance in language classes.

Baines, Blatchford and Kutnick (2003) claim that teachers generally prefer ability grouping to reduce the range of abilities within the course, allowing lessons to be at the right level. Furthermore, Muijs and Dunne (2010) prove that students benefited from working in a lesson surrounded by pupils of a similar ability. Hornby, Witte and Mitchell (2011) state that adverse effects of ability grouping have also been recognized regarding the motivational impact on students and low ability groupings were taught by less experienced or less qualified teachers. Also, Smith and Sutherland (2006) debate that the adverse effects of ability groupings have not been only restricted to the lower student, because studies have revealed that students at high levels have shown the pressure of being at the top.

However, Meijenen and Guldemond (2002) assure that mixed ability groupings benefit lower-achieving students a lot and have no harmful effect on the achievements of high-leveled students. Smith and Sutherland (2006) claim that there are other positive effects of mixed ability grouping including; fewer chances of students with a particular inferior level; it was possibly easier to preserve the motivation of students working at a lower level; it allowed for greater flexibility allowing students to go ahead with their rate; and students got advantages a lot from classmate support and confirm. Hallam and Ireson, (2013) think that students were more pleased with their lessons when they were among the mixed ability.

Reading
Wixon et al., (1987 ) define reading a passage as a process of building meaning through the dynamic interaction among the reader, the text, and the context of the reading situation. (Manzo and Manzo,1993) define reading as the act of reading the tracks, reading between the tracks, and reading beyond the lines. Reading the lines is the way of decoding the words to rebuild the writer's message. Reading between the lines is the process of making inferences to reconstruct the writer's implicit messages. Learning beyond the tracks is the process of judging the implication of the writer's word and usefully relating it to other areas of knowledge and experience.

Gamham, (2011) states that the majority of researchers think that reading comprehension is not merely identifying individual words, or even understanding each separate concept as our eyes pass over it. All models of understanding identify the need for readers to build up a rational representation of text; it requires an integration of information, from lexical features to knowledge concerning events.

Gernsbacher, (1990) sees that mastering reading skills needs contact between the reader and the text. The reader has to interpret the meaning of the written words to be able to understand the writer’s point of view. (Ehri, 1991) claims that there are four different ways to read terms;
decoding, reading by analogy, reading by the prediction made from context, and sight word reading. On the other hand, (Catts, Hogan & Adlof, 2005) confirm that numerous studies have revealed that decoding and linguistic comprehension represent the variance in reading comprehension.

Different types of reading comprehension
There are many different types and models of reading comprehension suggested by experts and linguists that can be employed by readers to achieve reading purposes. These models are used mainly in reading comprehension process and they prove effectiveness in grasping the required information.

1) Mental Models proposed by (Gernsbacher,1990 and Johnson-Laird, 1983).
2) Construction-Integration Model proposed by (Kintsch & Rawson,2005).

Reading difficulties
According to Mercer and Mercer (2001), between 10 and 15 % of students have reading difficulties. (Snow, Burns& Graffins, 1998) believe that students who are not talented with the form, content, and function of language have reading difficulties. The form includes phonologic, morphologic, and syntactic skills. Content refers to semantic, or vocabulary and the relationship among words. Capacity means a student's ability to use a language for practical purposes.

According to and Kolson, (1978), reading problems are attributed to many causes, and is a complex process, as many reading difficulties can occur. Bond, Tinkel and Wasson (1979) suggest the following classifications of the more dominant reading difficulties: faulty word identification and recognition, unsuitable directional habits, deficiencies in basic comprehension abilities, limited special comprehension abilities, weakness inability to adapt to reading needs of content fields, defects in the rate of comprehension and poor oral reading.

Difficulties in teaching multileveled classes
The problems that the multileveled classes teachers' face have two dimensions. Difficulties related to the teachers in running the course, and difficulties that the students themselves face in learning and taking parts in the classroom activities. Teachers struggle to provide effective teaching to multileveled classes. In multileveled classrooms, students with higher ability do not face problems in understanding the lessons and doing the required tasks effectively. On the other hand, the students with lower ability face problems in understanding the experiences and engaging in classroom activities. Therefore, when the lessons or activities are elementary, students with the lower ability find it useful, but the students with the higher knowledge find it jobless and boring. Finally, the two types of the students, being harmed of this situation and lose the motivation to study.
In multileveled classroom, it becomes noticeable that there is a considerable difference among the abilities of students. Consequently, the students of lower ability suffer from little self-esteem problems. On the other hand, students with higher capacity suffer from a lack of enthusiasm. Thus, the students no longer enjoy the learning process. Therefore, a multileveled classroom is most challenging for the teachers because they encounter many problems. The teachers find it difficult to ensure active learning for all the students equally and in a fairway. The higher ability students find it easy to go ahead with the lessons and instructions; whereas, the students with lower ability struggle. If the teachers pay attention to the students of higher ability, the lower ability students will find the tasks difficult and feel demotivated. On the other hand, if the teachers try to satisfy the needs of the lower ability students, the higher ability students will lose interest in the lessons. So, the teacher needs to make sure that the lessons or activities are not difficult for the lower ability students; and enjoyable for the higher ability students.

Tomlinson, (1999) believes that grouping students into different classes according to their abilities were investigated, and results reveal that students do not show enough improvement. On the other hand, (Kelly, 1974) criticizes grouping students into separated classes according to their standard. He claims that this can be harmful to the slow learners socially and emotionally because by placing them in a “slow class” they can think of themselves as different, challenging, inferior or other unfavorable terms.

**Suggested strategies for teaching reading comprehension to multileveled classes**

Since teaching reading comprehension to multileveled classes encountered by many difficulties, researchers and experts in the field started to design suitable strategies that the teachers can follow. These strategies are real contributions to facilitate the teaching process and to push the low-leveled students forward. (Vacca & Vacca,1999) suggest some effective strategies as follows:

1- **Scaffolding**

It allows teachers to help the varied learners and overcome difficulties in the text. Scaffolding is a process where teachers help students to solve a particular problem by a teacher or other person with more ability.

2- **Think-aloud**

It is a strategy that helps students with learning activities, aims to recall important information from the texts given by the teacher, and understands reading texts.

3- **Reciprocal Teaching**

It is a strategy that lets students and teachers exchange the role of a teacher by discussing a given reading. Reciprocal Teaching includes four strategies in the discussion: predicting, question generating, summarizing, and clarifying.

4- **SQ3R**

It is a systematic reading strategy that supports you shape the reading process into manageable units. Students can use it to improve comprehension. It contains surveying, questioning, reading, reciting, and reviewing.

5- **QARs**
It is a reading strategy to understand and analyze questions. It leads students to understand the questions to get information in the reading text.

(Duke & Pearson, 2005) think that it is important to teach the strategies by naming the strategy and how to use it. They suggest these six strategies as follows:

1- Predicting
(Block & Israel, 2005) think that predicting improves comprehension and helps the readers set a purpose for their reading. (Oczkus, 2003) claims that the strategy allows students' interaction, which raises students' interest and improves their understanding of the text.

2- Visualizing
(Adler, 2001) sees that the visualization process requires the students to construct an image of the text. Teachers can ask the student to write about the image after visualizing the text.

3- Making Connections
This strategy takes place when the students connect the ideas in the text to their experiences and the things happening in the outer world (Teele, 2004).

4- Summarizing
(Adler, 2001) illustrates that the procedure of summarization needs the reader to decide what is significant when reading and to shorten the information in the student's words.

5- Questioning
Students use the questioning before, during, and after reading. It requires students to ask questions to get meaning, improve understanding, find answers, solve problems, find information, and discover new information (Harvey & Goudvis, 2000).

6- Inferring
(Serafini, 2004) sees that inferring refers to reading between the lines. Students need to use their knowledge with information from the text to give their conclusions.

(Kelly, 1974) believes that giving clear information and instructions in easy and manageable ways is the most important strategy that can be adapted to deal with multileveled classes. It makes the students feel more interesting. (Dörnyei, 2001) recommends giving the students time to think and discuss with their classmates. Because of the task is not introduced to the students, and they face difficulties about how to go on with the task, it will produce a sad situation (Baker, 2000).

Methodology

Research design
According to the nature of this study and the objectives that the research tries to achieve, the researcher has chosen the quantitative approach.

Participants
The participants of this study are language center teachers who are teaching multileveled classes in Khartoum state, Sudan. The total number of the respondents is thirty-four, distributed into three cities from eight language centers. These language centers and institutes are private ones, and the average of the students in each class is fifteen.
Table 1. Distribution of participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of City</th>
<th>No. of institute/center</th>
<th>No. of teachers</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Khartoum</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>58.82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Khartoum North</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17.64%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Omdurman</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23.52%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Instruments**

To get authentic and reliable data, the researcher has to choose suitable devices. Because of the nature of the research and the expected outcomes of the study, the researcher has adopted the following tools for collecting the data:

1) **Teachers’ questionnaire**

Questionnaires are one of the most sensible ways to collect quantitative data. In this study, the researcher uses the Likert Scale Questionnaire. According to Dornyei (2003), Likert Scale Questionnaire is simple, flexible, and reliable. Likert Scale contains statements all of them are related to a specific goal, and the respondents are asked to respond to what they agree or disagree by marking one of the options ranging from ‘strongly agree’ to ‘strongly disagree’. Then after the process of controlling the scale, each response option is given a number; it is usually 1 to 5 for strongly agree and strongly disagree.

2) **Classroom Observation**

Cooper and Schindler (2006) claim that inspection takes place in the natural environment. It is a scientific method of data collection, and it has high validity in research conducting. The participant’s ideas would not influence the collected data because there is no contact between the observer and the participants; in addition to that, collecting the information in real-time. Collins and Hussey (2003) think that there are some defects of this method such, as the limitation in the use of technology for a large sample.

The researcher as an instrument observed the process of teaching reading comprehension to the multileveled classes and the students’ responses. Allwright (1988) recommends employing classroom observation as a data collecting tool and suggesting that view is the main procedure for many researchers who were not interested a lot in comparing approaches to find the most effective one.

**Data Analysis**

After the process of collecting the required data, manipulation, and analysis of the data will take place in a satisfactory manner using SPSS.

**Teachers’ Questionnaire**

The researcher has introduced the survey to thirty-four teachers as respondents. The teachers are going to to reply to the statements using a Likert- scale ranging from Strongly Disagree (SD) to Strongly Agree (SA). For more clarity of the data, the values will be displayed as follows: five
stands for Strongly Agree, four stands for Agree, three stands for Neutral, two stands for Disagree, and one stands for Strongly Disagree.

Table 2. Teachers’ Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A)</td>
<td><strong>Teachers’ Difficulties in Teaching Reading Comprehension To Multileveled Classes</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>Teaching multileveled class does not enable me to follow all the students.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Many low-leveled students face difficulties in engaging in reading comprehension activities.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>There is a remarkable diversity among students’ learning ability.</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>Reading activities do not fit the diverse levels of all students in multileveled classes.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-</td>
<td>I face difficulties to design a lesson that suits students with different abilities.</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-</td>
<td>I cannot introduce various classroom activities for multileveled students to get the same target.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7-</td>
<td>The existing reading materials do not supply enough effective strategies to help multileveled classes.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-</td>
<td>It is difficult to find suitable reading resources for multileveled types.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(B)</td>
<td><strong>Multileveled Students’ Difficulties in Learning Reading Comprehension</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-</td>
<td>Many of low-leveled students lack the confidence to interact positively in classroom activities.</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-</td>
<td>The majority low-leveled students lack motivation.</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-</td>
<td>Low-leveled students miss an interest in scanning activities.</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12-</td>
<td>There is a difference among multileveled students’ in learning comprehension lessons.</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13-</td>
<td>Facilitating reading comprehension lessons for low-leveled students' affects the higher-leveled students’ interest negatively.</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14-</td>
<td>Low-leveled students think that they are unjustly dealt in reading comprehension classes.</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-</td>
<td>High-leveled students think they are unjustly dealt in reading comprehension classes.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first part of the questionnaire consists of personal information of the respondents, including name, experience, educational qualification, training, if any, and the address of the school. In the second part of the questionnaire, the researcher has divided the inquiry into two sections, including teachers’ difficulties in teaching reading comprehension to multileveled classes and multileveled students’ difficulties in learning reading comprehension.
Tables two and three show two parts of investigations regarding teachers' difficulties in teaching reading comprehension to multileveled classes and multileveled classes students' difficulties in learning reading comprehension.

About 85% of language centers teachers' in Khartoum state declare that it is difficult for them to follow all the students in multileveled classes, and all the teachers agree that there is an evident diversity in their learning abilities. Moreover, 23 of them think that it is challenging to engage the low-leveled students in reading activities. Nearly 85% of the teachers believe that the reading activities do not suit all the students, and at the same time, it is difficult for a teacher to design different activities to meet the needs of all the students. Almost 65% of the teachers see that the existing reading materials do not help to apply effective reading strategies. 32% of the teachers complain about reading resources rareness for multileveled students.

Regarding students' learning difficulties, over 90% of multileveled classes teachers believe that many low-leveled students lack confidence that enables them to take part in classroom activities, and at the same time, they are demotivated. Nearly 80% of the teachers noticed that the low-leveled students miss interest and get bored quickly in reading classes and face difficulties in following with their teachers. On the other hand, about 12% of the teachers think the opposite. Over 95% of the teachers agree that there is an apparent difference in the students' ability in reading comprehension.

Almost 71% of the teachers see that making reading comprehension classes easier to enable low-leveled students' to participate and negatively affects higher-leveled students' interest. Still only only 15% of the teachers think that facilitating reading comprehension lessons does not affect
the higher-leveled students' adversely. Both the low-leveled students and the higher-leveled ones claim that they dealt unfairly in reading comprehension classes.

Classroom Observations
The researcher runs the classroom observation for eight weeks period with the assistance of some colleagues in the same field. The total of the observed classes is 102. To get valid and reliable data, the researcher makes notes and completes checklist observation sheets. In some courses, a tape recording of teaching reading practice in the classrooms and the students' responses go through documentation for further analysis and study. Researcher adapts EFL Reading Comprehension Observation Protocol (ERCOP) and scaffolding instructions derived from Jerome Bruner, 1960. It is a kind of support given to students by their teachers during the learning process. It consists of six sections: instructions, explaining, hints, modeling, feedback, and questioning. Each chapter serves a particular area of our investigation. The teachers are supposed to fulfill these conditions in reading comprehension classes. The observer is going to make a tick to the applied requirement and across to the one that is not used. Every teacher was observed three times in three different classes. That is about one hundred and two classes. The total number of observed teachers are thirty-four secondary school teachers.

Table 4. EFL reading comprehension observation protocol

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>REQUIREMENTS</th>
<th>APPLIED</th>
<th>NOT APPLIED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(A) INSTRUCTIONS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>Introduces a good introduction to building interest.</td>
<td>42 (41.17%)</td>
<td>60 (58.82%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Relates reading material to students' background knowledge.</td>
<td>47 (46.07%)</td>
<td>55 (53.92%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>Uses a flexible method to facilitate student's reading process.</td>
<td>37 (36.27%)</td>
<td>65 (63.72%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>Makes the active students participants in reading lessons.</td>
<td>49 (48.03%)</td>
<td>53 (51.96%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-</td>
<td>It creates a supportive environment.</td>
<td>35 (34.31%)</td>
<td>67 (65.68%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(B) EXPLAINING</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>Trains students to use strategies to infer the meaning of new words.</td>
<td>36 (35.29%)</td>
<td>66 (64.70%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Teaches students to evaluate their reading.</td>
<td>39 (38.23%)</td>
<td>63 (61.76%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>Presents vital words to understand significant ideas.</td>
<td>54 (52.94%)</td>
<td>48 (47.05%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>Introduces useful phrases that related to the text.</td>
<td>46 (45.09%)</td>
<td>56 (54.90%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-</td>
<td>Explains the importance of vocabulary for the students.</td>
<td>41 (40.19%)</td>
<td>61 (59.80)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(C) HINTS</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>It helps students make inferences from the text.</td>
<td>44 (43.13%)</td>
<td>58 (56.86%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Encourages students to get help from a peer.</td>
<td>56 (54.90%)</td>
<td>46 (45.09%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>Encourages students to cooperate with peers.</td>
<td>55 (53.92%)</td>
<td>47 (46.07%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>It helps students to analyze the text.</td>
<td>38 (37.25%)</td>
<td>64 (62.74%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-</td>
<td>It helps students to explain the text.</td>
<td>44 (43.13%)</td>
<td>58 (56.86%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(D) MODELING</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>It helps students to manage reading time.</td>
<td>31 (30.39%)</td>
<td>71 (69.60%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Uses visual materials (e.g., video, pictures, graphic organizers).</td>
<td>39 (38.23%)</td>
<td>63 (61.46%)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>It helps students to give output.</td>
<td>41 (40.19%)</td>
<td>61 (59.80)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 5. Descriptive statistics of classroom observation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>Variance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Introduces a good introduction...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18.00</td>
<td>9.0000</td>
<td>12.72792</td>
<td>162.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relates reading material to...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>5.65685</td>
<td>32.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses a flexible method to...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>14.0000</td>
<td>19.79899</td>
<td>392.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Makes the students active...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>2.0000</td>
<td>2.82843</td>
<td>8.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creates a supportive...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>32.00</td>
<td>16.0000</td>
<td>22.62742</td>
<td>512.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trains students to use......</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30.00</td>
<td>15.0000</td>
<td>21.21320</td>
<td>450.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaches students to evaluate...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>12.0000</td>
<td>16.97056</td>
<td>288.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduces useful phrases......</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.0000</td>
<td>4.24264</td>
<td>18.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Explains the importance of...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>10.0000</td>
<td>14.14214</td>
<td>200.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps students make inference...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>7.0000</td>
<td>9.89949</td>
<td>98.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages students to get...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10.00</td>
<td>5.0000</td>
<td>7.07107</td>
<td>50.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Encourages students to co...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>5.65685</td>
<td>32.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps students to analyze...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>13.0000</td>
<td>18.38478</td>
<td>338.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps students to explain...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>7.0000</td>
<td>9.89949</td>
<td>98.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps students to manage...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>40.00</td>
<td>20.0000</td>
<td>28.28427</td>
<td>800.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses visual materials...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>24.00</td>
<td>12.0000</td>
<td>16.97056</td>
<td>288.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Helps students to give output.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20.00</td>
<td>10.0000</td>
<td>14.14214</td>
<td>200.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses repetition.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>3.0000</td>
<td>4.24264</td>
<td>18.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uses clarification requests...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>36.00</td>
<td>18.0000</td>
<td>25.45584</td>
<td>648.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encourages students to...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22.00</td>
<td>11.0000</td>
<td>15.55635</td>
<td>242.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Withdraws teacher's support...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.00</td>
<td>8.0000</td>
<td>11.31371</td>
<td>128.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gives feedback on the...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>8.00</td>
<td>4.0000</td>
<td>5.65685</td>
<td>32.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encourages students to...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>28.00</td>
<td>14.0000</td>
<td>19.79899</td>
<td>392.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Encourages students' interpretation...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>26.00</td>
<td>13.0000</td>
<td>18.38478</td>
<td>338.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Checks students' understanding...</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td>2.0000</td>
<td>2.82843</td>
<td>8.000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table four displays the classroom observation in percentage, while table 5 presents descriptive statistics of the data focusing on the range, the mean, the standard deviation, and the variance.

Table four shows that only 41.17% of the 102 observed lessons, those teachers present good introductions to the reading comprehension, while 58.82% of the experiences lack good introductions. Around 46.0% of the experiences that the teachers relate background knowledge to the reading material and only 34.0% of the experiences that teachers create a supportive environment. Creating attractive and supportive environment is a crucial element in education, but teachers do not pay attention to this area. In almost 65.0% of the lessons, the teachers do not train the students to infer the meaning of words. Moreover, in only 38.0% of the lessons where teachers teach the students to evaluate their reading. 61.0% of the experiences that teachers do not explain to the students the importance of vocabulary in understanding reading materials.

In only 44 of the observed lessons, teachers help students to infer meaning, while in 58 lessons, nothing has happened. In about 54.0% of lessons, teacher encourages the students to cooperate and work with peers, but only 37.0% of teachers help students analyze the text. In 71.0% of lessons, teachers do not help students manage reading time, and only 38.0% of the experiences where visual aids are present, and this is considered a significant defect in the teaching process. In around 53.0% of the experiences, teachers do not ask the students to perform repetitions, and in 54.0% of the experiences, the students do not give feedback to their learning. Seventy of the observed lessons witness no encouragement to the students to generate questions. In about 52.0% of the experiences, teachers check the students’ understanding of the text.

**Discussions**

Teaching reading comprehension to multileveled classes is a big challenge, not only to teachers but to the students and the syllabus designers as well. Experts designed many strategies and methods to put an end to this dilemma that disturbs all the members in the education society. In this study, the researcher tries to unveil the difficulties encountered by multileveled classes teachers’ at secondary schools in teaching reading comprehension.

According to Webb, Baxter and Thompson (1997), multileveled teachers have to resort to group activities and making heterogeneous groups with the purpose to have the high-leveled students act as guides for the low-leveled students. Surprisingly, Lou (1996), Saleh, Lazonder and De Jong (2005) claim that this technique does not affect the progress of the high-leveled students. On the other hand, (Oakes, 1985; Hallam & Deathe, 2002) think that group activities have adverse effects on the low-leveled students.

The study reveals that the multileveled classes teachers' face real difficulties in teaching comprehension; this finding answers one of the research questions stated earlier. The teachers suffer from the diverse abilities that the students possess. The low-leveled students lack the essential vocabulary that enables them to understand the reading materials. They do not have enough background knowledge allowing them to trace the events and predict the subsequent results.
Employing the appropriate strategies in dealing with multileveled classes is the second research question. From the questionnaire, it appears that the teachers do not choose the adequate strategy in teaching reading comprehension. This is due to the lack of experience and the poor background of teaching methodology.

One of the research questions is whether the teachers receive proper training or not. After analyzing the questionnaire and observing the teacher's performance, the teaching behavior of the teachers reflects an apparent defect of teachers' performance and their incapability of choosing suitable techniques to meet the needs of all the students. Education experts designed training programs to enable secondary school teachers' to run multileveled classes efficiently. According to the findings above, the Ministry of Education should take action to contain the situation through running intensive programs to upgrade the teachers' performance in multileveled classes.

Conclusion
The researcher displays the findings that constitute a real contribution to the existing literature; moreover, the outcomes can be of high value for policy, practice, theory, and subsequent researches. Research implications are the conclusions that you get from your results. However, the effects have to be verified by evidence, and the explanation of the study limitations is crucial to avoid over-generalization of results.

The findings of the study answer the research questions directly. From the questionnaire, the teachers expressed to some extent their incapability in running multileveled classes appropriately. They complain of the low-leveled students, the rareness of suitable reading materials, the poorness of reading comprehension abilities, choosing suitable teaching strategies, engaging all the students in reading comprehension activities, etc. The problems above are attributed mainly to the lack of teachers' training and subsequently failing to employ suitable teaching strategies.

The syllabus designers have to take advantage of these types of studies to promote programs that can push forward the educational process. Attractive reading materials are essential to capture the interest of the students because many of the low-leveled students get bored quickly in reading classes. Furthermore, it is important to insert reading materials that touch students' interests like sports, fashion, and actions.

Choosing the appropriate teaching strategies needs deep thinking and a farsighted look. Education experts should hold brainstorm sessions accompanying the psychological factors of the students. We have to put in our consideration that the students are teenagers and are full of energy and enthusiasm. We can get benefit from these traits and guide the students, especially the low-leveled ones, to be lifelong learners.

Limitations
The study addresses both the language centers teachers and multileveled students in Khartoum state -Sudan. The sample is bilingual teachers, male and female, and they are MA. Degree holders.
Because of the environment of the study and the nature of the participants, it is difficult to generalize the results of the survey to the teachers all over the world. Since the issue of teaching multileveled classes is still a grey area, the researcher sees that for further studies, researchers can investigate similar topics relating to speaking, listening, and writing skills.

Another limitation of the study is that the researcher uses two instruments as collecting data tools. For further education, researchers can add, for example, interviews. The teachers and the students in this study are both from private institutes, so that similar studies can focus on public institutes.

About the Author
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Difficulties Encountering Multileveled Classes Teachers' in Teaching Reading
Abualzain

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Appendix A
Teachers' questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>STATEMENT</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A)</td>
<td><strong>TEACHERS' DIFFICULTIES IN TEACHING READING COMPREHENSION TO MULTILEVELED CLASSES</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>Teaching multileveled class does not enable me to follow all the students.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Many low-leveled students face difficulties in engaging into reading comprehension activities.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>There is a remarkable diversity among students' learning ability.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>Reading activities do not fit the diverse levels of the all students in multileveled classes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5-</td>
<td>I face difficulties to design a lesson that suits students with different abilities.</td>
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<td>6-</td>
<td>I cannot introduce different classroom activities for multileveled students to get the same target.</td>
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<td>7-</td>
<td>The existing reading materials do not supply enough effective strategies to help multileveled classes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>8-</td>
<td>It is difficult to find suitable reading resources for multileveled classes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(B)</td>
<td><strong>MULTILEVELED STUDENTS' DIFFICULTIES IN LEARNING READING COMPREHENSION</strong></td>
<td></td>
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<td>9-</td>
<td>Many of low-leveled students lack confidence to interact positively in classroom activities.</td>
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<td>10-</td>
<td>The majority of low-leveled students are demotivated.</td>
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<tr>
<td>11-</td>
<td>Low-leveled students miss interest in reading activities quickly.</td>
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<tr>
<td>12-</td>
<td>There is a difference among multileveled students' in reading comprehension lessons.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>13-</td>
<td>Facilitating reading comprehension lessons for low-leveled students' affects the higher-leveled students' interest negatively.</td>
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<tr>
<td>14-</td>
<td>Low-leveled students think that they are dealt unfairly in reading comprehension classes.</td>
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<tr>
<td>15-</td>
<td>High-leveled students think they are dealt unfairly in reading comprehension classes.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B
EFL Reading comprehension observation protocol

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NO.</th>
<th>REQUIREMENTS</th>
<th>APPLIED</th>
<th>NOT APPLIED</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(A)</td>
<td><strong>INSTRUCTIONS</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Introduces good introduction to build interest.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Relates reading material to students' background knowledge.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>Uses a flexible method to facilitate student's reading process.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>Makes the students active participants in reading lessons.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5-</td>
<td>Creates a supportive environment.</td>
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<tr>
<td>(B)</td>
<td><strong>EXPLAINING</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-</td>
<td>Trains students to use strategies to infer meaning of new words.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>2-</td>
<td>Teaches students to evaluate their reading.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3-</td>
<td>Presents key words to understand important ideas.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4-</td>
<td>Introduces useful phrases that related to the text.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5-</td>
<td>Explains the importance of vocabulary for the students.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

(C) **HINTS**
1- Helps students make inferences from the text.
2- Encourages students to get help from a peer.
3- Encourages students to cooperate with peers.
4- Helps students to analyze the text.
5- Helps students to explain the text.

(D) **MODELING**
1- Helps students to manage reading time.
2- Uses visual materials (e.g. video, pictures, graphic organizers).
3- Helps students to give output.

(E) **FEEDBACK**
1- Uses repetition.
2- Uses clarification requests in L2.
3- Uses plain correction.
4- Withdraws teacher's support from the reading task.
5- Gives feedback on the students' learning process.

(F) **QUESTIONING**
1- Encourages students to generate questions about the text.
2- Encourages students' interpretations of the text.
3- Asks students for opinions about text content.
4- Checks students' understanding of the text.
A Sociolinguistic Investigation of Compliments and Compliment Responses among Young Saudis

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Abstract
There is a lack of awareness of the use of compliments and compliment responses in the Saudi Arabian context. This research investigates, from a sociolinguistic perspective, the speech acts of compliments and compliment responses as realized by eighty Saudi students who study English as a Foreign Language (EFL). It aims to identify the semantic and structural formulas used by the participants to express compliments and to respond to compliments. The study also examines the roles of the topic of conversation and the participants’ first language in the realisation of compliments. Furthermore, the study investigates gender differences with regard to the use of compliments and compliment responses. A discourse completion test (DCT) consisting of twelve situations was used to collect data from the participants. The analysis of the responses found that the dominant form of compliments used was unbound semantic formulas that were not influenced by the social relationship between the participants. Topics that are socially delicate result in the use of more implicit compliments than explicit compliments. The religious norms require politeness in the interactions between people, and this is reflected in the prevalence of implicit compliments. There is a wide range of compliments used with no fixed pattern of usage. Compliments tend to be given using adjectives rather than verbs. Gender did not appear to affect the nature of usage of compliments and responses. The research suggests that the cultural influences of the English language and western culture may be influencing how young Saudis use compliments.

Keywords: compliments, compliment responses, discourse completion test, gender differences, politeness, pragmatic awareness, sociolinguistics, unbound semantics, young Saudis

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Introduction

Background
Compliments and compliment responses are considered key speech acts that are used in daily life situations in order to praise and congratulate others or to reply to their praise or compliments (Holmes, 1986). They are particularly important because they reflect cultural values and because they are considered as judgments and expressions of appreciation of others’ work (Nelson, Bakary & Al-Batal, 1996). Speakers use different terms and linguistic constructions to express compliments and compliment responses. Speakers also differ in the frequency of their use of compliments and compliment responses (Golato, 2003). That frequency is dependent on the social context in which the compliments are produced, and on the gender and social standing of the persons involved (Cutting, 2002; Levinson, 1983). Using a Discourse Completion Test (DCT), the current research collected data from eighty Saudi EFL learners at Al-Baha University in Al-Baha city in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. The DCT was used for data collection since it is the most common method used to collect natural and spontaneous data in social contexts despite limitations with the DCT approach (Cedar, 2006; Chen, 1993; Urano, 1998; Tang & Zhang, 2009). The DCT used in this research consisted of twelve situations in which the participants were asked to write compliments to a given social situation, and to respond to the compliments given to them.

Statement of the Problem
Compliments in the Saudi context are understudied. Although compliments have been studied in other Arabic-speeching contexts such as Yemen (Qanbar, 2012), Kuwait (Farghal & Haggan, 2006) and Egypt (Nelson et al., 1996), the findings of such studies cannot be generalized to other Arabic-speaking settings. Compliments in Arabic are mainly derived from religious expressions, which are common in all Arab countries. However, lifestyles differ from one Arab country to another. Studies such as Al-Khateeb’s (2009) have asserted that Saudi speakers use more conservative and religion-based social utterances than speakers in other Arab countries. Saudi society is a more conservative society, and the use of compliments is worthy of study in this context. So, the current research provides an understanding of compliments in the Saudi context. In doing so, the research explores a new culture and speech community by studying how compliments are produced by Saudi EFL learners. Therefore, this research fills a research gap by adding a study of Saudi-based compliments to the cross-cultural literature on compliments.

Literature Review

Definition and Functions of Compliments
The term “compliment” has been defined by researchers in many different ways due to differences in the contexts, cultures and perspectives of those researchers. Hyland (2000) defines a compliment as “an act which attributes credit to another for some characteristic, attribute, skill, etc., which is positively valued by the person” (p. 44). Holmes (1986) defines a compliment as “a speech act which explicitly or implicitly attributes credit to someone other than the speaker, usually the person addressed, for some ‘good’ (possession, characteristic, skill etc.) which is positively valued by the speaker and the hearer” (p.485). A compliment can be described as showing approval of the other’s behaviours and efforts (Farghal & Haggan, 2006). Fraser (1990) considered that compliments are positive judgments that attach direct or indirect qualities to the recipients. According to Herbert (1986), compliments are indications of appreciation and good relations with others. This friendly nature of compliments has motivated Herbert (1986) to argue that compliments are considered
phatic expressions which aim to strengthen connections through the exchange of words. This means that a compliment involves praise of the other’s characteristics, and normally springs from the social relations between the interactional parties.

Compliments serve a range of social functions (Leech, 1983). There can be a difference between what is said and what is meant. The nature of an expression is influenced by a wide range of variables including gender, social status and the cultural identity of the participants (Ruhi, 2006). A compliment may be motivated by a desire to maintain a harmonious relationship, maintain face or observe established social protocols, or it may be part of an interactional strategy. This variety in motivations explains the different linguistic forms that speakers use to express compliments. For example, “Congratulations!” , “I am very happy with your success”, and “That is great!” are three different expressions used to compliment people on their success.

According to Yuan (2002), there are two categories of compliments in terms of the semantic formulas used to express them. These categories are unbound semantic formulas and bound semantic formulas, as tabulated in Table One.

Table 1. Compliment strategies framework

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Compliment Strategies</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unbound Semantic Formulas</td>
<td>Explicit Compliment: What a nice cell phone you have.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Implicit Compliment: I wish I could have a cell phone like yours.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bound Semantic Formulas</td>
<td>Explanation: I saw how difficult it was to fix my laptop.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Information: Where did you learn to fix it?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Future Reference: You have a bright future in fixing laptops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Contrast: I think you are more helpful than your brother.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Advice: You’d better open a laptop store.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Request: Can you check my cell phone too?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Compliment Opt Out</td>
<td>Sorry to take your time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>I would say nothing.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 1. Adapted from Yuan (2002, pp. 193-194)

“Unbound semantic formulas” indicate expressions that can work autonomously as compliments. “Bound semantic formulas” indicate expressions that cannot be regarded as compliments by themselves, and they should be used in combination with an unbound semantic formula. The “unbound semantic formulas” can be classified into two sub-categories: “explicit compliments” and “implicit compliments”. An explicit compliment is often a general statement “with at least one positive semantic carrier” (e.g. a great effort). Implicit compliments are compliments “with or without a positive semantic carrier, where the addressee is not directly mentioned but the positive meaning can be inferred from what is said in a particular context” (e.g. “Where did you buy this dress? I want to buy one myself”) (Yuan, 2002, p. 192). On the other hand, “bound semantic formulas” involve “explanations, references to the future, contrasts, advice or requests”. “Non-
complimentary” replies involve “non-compliments” or “opt outs”. “Non-compliments” can be “bound semantic formulas” or other responses that do not have any positive meaning. “Opt outs” are cases where speakers do not say anything in a situation in which a compliment is anticipated (Yuan, 2002, p. 192).

Functions of Compliments
Keeping Social Ties and Solidarity
Compliments perform various functions. One of their main functions is to maintain social ties and connections (Holmes, 1988). Compliments are acts that mainly attempt to increase social solidarity between the speaker and the recipient. Compliments are described as being like the “social lubricants” that establish familiarity between people (Wolfson, 1983, p. 89). Holmes and Brown (1987), when investigating the functions of compliments, reported that compliments are made in order to enhance the positive aspects of an individual in order to establish social solidarity and strengthen social ties. Holmes (1986) argued that compliments are uttered to stress solidarity and heal the gaps that may be caused by offences. In general, compliments aim to make others feel comfortable and pleased. A compliment conveys an affective meaning (Schmidt & Richards, 1980). This shows that a compliment is a speech act that can harm or hurt the listener’s feelings, depending on how it is performed. Compliments can be part of a positive politeness strategy that is designed to increase the solidarity between individuals (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Billmyer (1990) and Zhan (2010) have asserted that compliments often encompass certain socio-cultural functions. Compliments are used in order to perform certain social purposes, that is, to show respect and deference, or to show intimacy and solidarity (Watts, 2003). By attempting to make people feel good about themselves, the complimenter is seeking to consolidate social ties.

Informative Purposes
Johnson and Roen (1992) claim that while compliments are mostly uttered for emotional purposes, some compliments aim to fulfil robust informative purposes. They analysed a number of research writings and found that the compliments in these writings carried both an emotional and a referential meaning. Referential meanings convey information. The conveying of information through a compliment serves the practical purpose of communicating a person’s opinion of another in a positive manner.

Politeness
Complimenting is one of the speech acts that serve the function of yielding pragmatic success (Golato, 2004). In daily life situations, speakers often select the discourse strategies that make them appear polite. Compliment strategies are used to facilitate conversation and maintain the face of the speakers. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), speakers have to consider the face wants of other people and try to satisfy their face desires. In producing compliments, speakers need to take into account the utterances they produce and the language they use.

Compliment Responses
A compliment response is generally described as an expression used by the recipient of a compliment when responding to a complimenter. Herbert (1986) defines a compliment response as the appreciation of the other’s endeavours to praise one’s action or behaviour. This shows that a compliment response is generally seen as a reply that the recipient gives to those who praise their
performance or attributes, and to those who think highly of them. The compliment response depends on the type of the compliment and the social relations between the speech parties.

Compliment responses have been researched extensively in linguistic research. One of the first researchers to discuss compliment responses was Pomerantz (1978), who investigated compliment responses in American English and reported that the speaker is faced with two competing ideas: (a) agreement with the speaker, and (b) evasion of self-praise. Pomerantz proposed that, in any conversation, the recipient is under pressure to accept a compliment from the complimenter. The person receiving a compliment has a choice as to whether they accept the compliment, downplay the importance of the compliment, or seek to respond in a manner that lessens the importance of the compliment. The recipient is faced with a difficult decision as to the response that is required to convey the level of humility that they wish to exhibit. The analysis of American responses showed a widespread disagreement and rejection of compliments. Pomerantz (1978) deduced that compliment respondents use different strategies to resolve the conflict through acceptance or rejection or self-praise avoidance. Those “solutions” or “resolutions” are described as “Praise Downgrades”, “Referent Shifts,” and self-praise avoidance.

There have been a number of significant studies into the nature of compliment responses. The studies that have tackled compliments and compliment responses examined the variations associated with the production of compliments and compliment responses. Holmes (1986) introduced three key types of compliment responses: rejection, acceptance and evasion. Holmes pointed out that the most common form of compliment response produced by speakers in New Zealand is acceptance. It was shown that the recipients tended to accept the compliments given by speakers and to return the compliment to the complimenter. In a study on American and British speakers of English, Herbert (1986) analysed more than one thousand compliment responses gathered at the State University in New York. Herbert concluded that about sixty per cent of compliment responses conveyed acceptance. Herbert found that British speakers tended to accept compliments more often than American speakers. Herbert explained that this variation in compliment acceptance might be due to cultural patterns and to the factors of religion, politics and environment that affect the speakers’ realisation of compliments. Holmes (1986) and Herbert (1986) pointed out that there are different tendencies in the realisation of compliments and compliment responses between male and female speakers.

Herbert (1986) introduced a classification of compliment responses, as summarised in Table Two below, to show the different ways in which people react to compliments.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1. Classification of compliment responses</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Compliment Response Category</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>A- Agreement</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>1- Acceptances</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Appreciation Token</td>
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<tr>
<td>▪ Comment Acceptance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>▪ Praise Upgrade</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>2- Comment History</strong></td>
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Table two reveals that different compliment responses may be chosen by compliment recipients. Firstly, the compliment response can be an agreement. In this category of responses, the addressee can respond either by acceptance such as using appreciation tokens (e.g. Thank you), comment acceptance (e.g. Thanks, I like it also), or praise upgrade (Really makes me more handsome, doesn’t it?). Agreement can also be expressed by using the strategy of comment history (e.g. I purchased it from the UK) or by using transfers. Transfers can be divided into sub-categories: reassignment, giving credit to someone else (e.g. My sister prepared it for me) and return – that is, paying back the first speaker with a similar compliment (e.g. So is yours).

Secondly, a compliment response can be a non-agreement. In this category of responses, the addressee can respond either by a scale down (e.g. It’s somewhat old), a question (e.g. Do you really think so?), or a non-acceptance. A non-acceptance can be expressed by using a disagreement (e.g. I don’t like it) or qualification (e.g. It is okay, but the blue one is better). Furthermore, a compliment response can be expressed by non-acknowledgement (e.g. silence). Thirdly, the addressees can respond to a compliment by using other interpretations such as questions. Rather than take the first speaker’s utterance as a compliment, the addressee may interpret it as an implied request and respond by saying, for example, “You need this one also?”

After Herbert (1986), different studies have compared compliment responses in different languages. These studies revealed clear differences between the various languages in the patterns of compliment responses. Lorenzo-Dus (2001) investigated differences in the patterns of compliment responses between British and Spanish undergraduate students. The study showed that Spanish male speakers were more inclined to upgrade compliments ironically than female speakers, and that this category of compliment response was not found in his corpus of British participants. Furthermore, the studies of Nelson, Al-Batal and Echols (1996) and Herbert and Straight (1989) concluded that Arabic and African speakers commonly respond to compliments by acceptance more often than British and American speakers.

The Linguistic Patterns of Compliments
It has been claimed that compliments are, to a great extent, formulaic utterances (Wolfson & Manes, 1980). Complementors mostly use a limited number of structures and words in order to
express compliments (Kasper, 2000). In this respect, compliments resemble greeting, thanking, and apology speech acts. The limited variations in the patterns of compliments are mainly attributable to the functions of compliments (Wolfson & Manes, 1980). A compliment is mainly intended to establish solidarity with the addressees and to make them feel better. Adjectives such as good, wonderful, beautiful, nice and great are commonly used to express compliments.

**Compliments and Politeness**

In order to communicate successfully, speakers need to pay attention to the pragmatic meaning of the compliment in its cultural and linguistic contexts (Golato, 2002). Compliments are a mix of linguistic and cultural elements. Politeness is one of the ways through which communication becomes effective (Holmes, 1995). Politeness strategies aim to mitigate face-threatening acts by conveying information in a manner that makes the speaker and the listener satisfied and is in line with the social relationship between the two (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory revolves around the idea that both the speaker and the recipient have positive and negative face. Negative face is the need not to be underestimated or imposed on by others, and positive face is the need to be recognised by others. Politeness functions to maintain the interlocutor’s positive and negative face. Positive politeness implies that the discourse fulfils the needs of the two parties involved in the conversation for establishing social bonding. Compliments can be used as an automated social convention that reinforces the positive social relationships between people. They can be instrumental in establishing a positive and respectful relationship between people. The interlocutor selects whether he/she wants to appeal to the recipient’s positive or negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). If the interlocutor wants to connect with the other, he/she will use positive politeness.

**Compliments and Gender**

Several studies have found differences between males and females in the use of compliments. In her study in New Zealand, Holmes (1995) discussed gender differences in the use of compliments. The findings of her study show that females give and receive compliments more than male speakers. Moreover, she found that male speakers rarely make compliments. Qanbar (2012) found that females complimented more often than males in both the English and Yemeni contexts.

**Compliments and Intercultural Competence**

Communicative competence is associated with the ability to use the right language in the right situation. Language is the primary tool for achieving social goals. Language is the key instrument for interaction between people from different cultures, and it is influenced by the socio-cultural setting (Brown, 1963). According to Byram (2008), intercultural competence means the ability to communicate with persons from another culture. Intercultural competence is mainly associated with communication between people from different cultures. For a person to possess intercultural competence they need a wide understanding of how language is used to reflect the different norms and values of different cultures (Witte, 2011).

There are some general social rules for complimenting. The general rule in respect to compliments is the need to praise the other’s good behaviour and actions (Mohammed, 2012). People are encouraged to give compliments in order to enhance the social relationships between them. Garcia (2009) and Golato (2003) emphasised that compliments are central to social
interconnectedness and they encourage social interaction between people. Compliments can be considered as important facilitators of social interaction.

**Compliments and Pragmatic Awareness**

Pragmatic awareness involves the conscious awareness by the individuals participating in communication of the rules and conventions of the social context in which they are communicating, and the appropriate use of language. Research in the area of pragmatic awareness has considered language proficiency (Matsumura, 2001), motivation (Takahashi, 2005), learning environment (Schauer, 2006), and the length of residency in the host country (Bella, 2012; Rafieyan, Sharafi-Nejad, Damavand, Eng, & Mohamed, 2014). Matsumura (2001) investigated the effect of the proficiency of the participants in the target language and the effect that this had on the development of the pragmatic awareness of the learners of a language. Matsumura (2001) found that the higher the level of exposure to the target language, and the higher the level of competence, the greater was the student’s level of pragmatic awareness.

**Compliments and culture**

The practice of giving and responding to compliments is culturally based. Nelson, Bakary and Al-Batal (1996) argue that compliments are especially significant since they imply the cultural values of the speakers and indicate an approval of the other’s endeavours. Studying the complimenting behaviour of American and Egyptian speakers, they found that both American and Egyptian compliments are made by using adjectives, and that the American participants used shorter forms of compliments than the Egyptian participants. The frequency of the use of compliments differs in different cultures. Western speakers have a higher level of usage and response to compliments than Asian cultures (Fujimara-Wilson, 2014). The objects of compliments also differ culturally, with Europeans giving compliments about possessions while Americans compliment people for their personal characteristics (Herbert, 1991). Japanese speakers tend to compliment the work and abilities of acquaintances rather than comment on people close to them (Daikuhara, 1986). American compliments tend to be repetitive, with similar semantic structures, and they are adjectival in nature (Wolfson, 1981). Qu and Wang (2005) compared undergraduate English and Chinese students’ complimenting behaviours in both the first language and the second language. Using the taxonomy of Herbert (1986), the findings of the study showed that the Chinese students tend basically to accept compliments, and to respond to them using shorter forms than the English students. Qu and Wang (2005) also found that English students rejected compliments more than the Chinese students.

**Methodology**

**Research aims**

This study seeks to identify the speech acts which communicate compliments and compliment responses used by Saudi EFL students, and to understand them from a sociolinguistic perspective. In particular, the study aims to:

- Determine the semantic and structural formulas used by the participants (Saudi EFL students) to express compliments in English.
- Investigate gender differences in the use of compliments and compliment responses.
Research Questions

The research questions are:
1. What are the semantic and structural forms used by young Saudis studying English to express compliments and compliment responses in English?
2. How does the topic of a compliment affect the way in which young Saudis studying English express compliments in English?
3. What are the differences between male and female EFL learners regarding compliments and compliment responses in English?

Participants

The subjects of this research were 80 Saudi EFL students studying at the Department of English Language and Literature at Al Baha University in Al Baha city in Saudi Arabia. Forty were men and 40 were women. They were aged between 18 and 25, and their native language was Arabic. The English language proficiency of the students ranged between upper intermediate and advanced, as indicated by their test marks in their admission test for enrolling in the university.

Instrument

In order to achieve the goals of this study, the researcher used a DCT as the primary data collection tool. A DCT is an open-ended statement which replicates a practical situation in which the respondent is required to provide a verbal reaction. This practical situation needs a written answer, similar to what a participant would say in a real-life situation. The researcher designed a DCT based on previous studies that have used DCTs (e.g. Wolfson, 1983; Herbert, 1990; Qanbar, 2012; Farghal & Haggan, 2006). The test consisted of 12 situations that were designed based on different occasions that speakers might face in their daily lives. The cases involved different contexts in order to elicit the possible compliments and compliment responses that the speakers might use.

The test consisted of two parts. The first part was about the demographic data of the research participants, including gender and level of education. In the second part the participants were asked to write the compliments and compliment responses that they would have produced in twelve hypothetical situations. These situations are presented in Appendix One. The participants were invited to read the descriptions of every situation carefully, and to respond by filling in the blanks in English.

Data Collection

The data collection took approximately one month, starting in November 2016. The data was collected at the Department of English Language and Literature at Al Baha University in Al Baha city in Saudi Arabia. At the outset, the research participants were made aware of the research objectives, and their consent to participate in the study was obtained. The participants were then informed that their responses would only be used for research purposes, and would not affect their academic scores. After that, the participants were asked to write their responses to the DCT situations. There was no limit placed on the amount of time the participants could take to complete their responses. The researcher explained details such as the length of the answers and responded to requests for further clarification regarding the DCT situations. To administer the questionnaire to the female students, the researcher collaborated with a female co-researcher. In Saudi Arabia, males are not allowed to communicate with female students in academic institutions. The
researcher trained the female co-researcher in the research objectives and the use of the research tool. The female co-researcher was a student in the fourth grade in the Department of English Language and Literature at the same university. It was easy for her to understand the research topic.

After all the students had completed the DCT, the researcher typed all collected data into an NVivo software program. The compliments were coded and analysed according to Yuan’s (2002) classification of compliment strategies, and the responses to the compliments were coded based on Herbert’s (1986) classification of compliment responses.

**Statistical Analysis**

This study collected qualitative data and coded it for quantitative analysis. The SPSS (Statistical Package for Social Science) was used to examine the data. The SPSS output helped the researcher to access and prepare the data to summarise the results in tables which included the frequencies and percentages of answers in particular categories, and the results of inferential statistics tests. Using the most frequently used statistical tests in the SPSS package, the present study applied descriptive statistics including the frequency of compliments offered by participants, and of their responses to compliments from others. In addition, it was necessary to apply an inferential statistics test to the non-parametric data. In this case the appropriate test was the Chi-square test. The Chi-square test was used to compare the observed frequency of the participants’ responses to compliments across their gender categories (male or female) with the expected frequencies. If the results of a Chi-square test are significant at a probability value of 0.05, this indicates that there is a significant relationship between the independent variable and the dependent variable across the sample group.

**Research Data**

**Semantic formulas of Compliments**

**Compliments**

This section presents the compliments produced by the participants in their responses to the first part of the DCT. Using NVivo software, all the compliments were coded based on Yuan’s (2002) framework of compliment strategies.

**Compliments in total**

Table three tabulates the frequencies and percentages of the types of compliments in all six situations.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bound semantic formulas</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>References</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advice</td>
<td>Giving a recommendation</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>2.65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>Opposing</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>3.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>Providing further information</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>4.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It can be seen that “explicit compliments” were the most frequent type of compliment strategy (53.03% of all strategies), followed by “implicit compliments” (25.95%), subtitles of bound semantic formulas “information question” (5.87%), future reference (4.54%), “explanation” (4.17%), “contrast” (3.03%) and “advice” (2.65%). This result shows that the Saudi EFL speakers are perceived to be most likely to be explicit when expressing their positive feelings in compliments.

Table four is a tabulation of the ten most commonly used words in the compliment strategies, with examples extracted from the corpus data.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Weighted Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Similar Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>7.58</td>
<td>dear, good, healthy, just, well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nice</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>nice, nicely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>look</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>5.12</td>
<td>appearance, expect, feel, feelings, look, looking, looks, see, seems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>congratulations</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>4.39</td>
<td>congratulations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wow</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>3.98</td>
<td>wow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>like</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>3.85</td>
<td>like, liked, wish, wishes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phone</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>3.04</td>
<td>phone, phones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shoes</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2.70</td>
<td>place, shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Great</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>big, expect, great, greatly</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table four shows that in the compliments, the three words most commonly used to convey positive feelings were “good”, “nice” and “look”. Most compliments were surveyed to be expressed in an explicit manner.

**Compliment Responses**

Table five indicates the total frequencies and percentages of compliment responses in all six situations involving a response to a compliment.

Table 5. *Frequencies and percentages of total compliment responses among the participants in situations 7–12*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Agreement</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Sources</th>
<th>References</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acceptances</td>
<td>Appreciation token</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>169</td>
<td>34.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment acceptance</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>21.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Praise upgrade</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>12.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comment history</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.92</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfers</td>
<td>Reassignment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>0.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Return</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>15.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-agreement</td>
<td>No acknowledgement</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Non-acceptance</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Disagreement</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Qualification</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Scale down</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>11.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Other interpretations reveal</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings reveal that the compliment response strategy of “agreement” was the most frequent (used in 88.66% of all responses) in the six situations when considered in an aggregated manner. Among the subcategories in the “agreement” category, “appreciation token” (34.85% of all responses) was the most frequent compliment response, followed by “comment acceptance” (21.03%) and “return” (15.46%). In addition, it was found that non-agreement responses comprised 11.13% of all responses. Of these, “scale down” strategies were the most common. This means that the Saudi EFL speakers were more likely to accept the compliments than refuse them.

Table six is a tabulation of common words which were applied in the compliment response strategies.

Table 6. *The ten most commonly used words in compliment responses*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Length</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage (%)</th>
<th>Similar Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>thank</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>379</td>
<td>30.70</td>
<td>appreciate, grateful, thank, thankful, thanks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>4.21</td>
<td>lot, much</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table six indicates that the word “thank” (used in 30.70% of all responses) was the most commonly used word in compliment responses.

Structural Formulas of Compliments

The data shows that the participants used different structural formulas to express compliments. Table seven presents the structural formulas employed by the research participants.

Table 7. The frequencies and percentages of structural formulas of compliments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Source</th>
<th>References</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. NP is/looks (really) ADJ</td>
<td>Your hair looks nice</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I (really) like/love NP</td>
<td>I love your hair</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>18.74</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. PRO is (really) (a) ADJ NP</td>
<td>That’s a nice piece of work</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>25.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You V NP (really) ADJ NP</td>
<td>You did a great job</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>8.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. You V NP (really) ADV</td>
<td>You really handled that situation well</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>19.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. You have (a) (really) ADJ NP</td>
<td>You have such beautiful hair</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>6.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Sociolinguistic Investigation of Compliments and Compliment Responses

Table seven shows that the pattern “3. PRO is (really) (a) ADJ NP” (used in 25.89% of all responses) was the most frequently used structure. Examples of this pattern include “The cell phone is really nice”, “The dinner is very delicious”, and “The shoes are very expensive”. The pattern “5. You V NP (really) ADV” (19.28%) was the second-most frequently used structure employed by the participants to express compliments. Example of this pattern includes “You did the presentation very well”, The pattern “2. I (really) like/love NP” (18.74%) was the third-most frequently used structure employed by the participants to express compliments. Examples of this pattern include “I love that type of cell phone”, “I like your shoes”, and “I really like the style”. The pattern “8. ADJ NP” (17.08%) was the fourth-most frequently used structure employed by the participants to express compliments. Examples of this pattern include “Amazing presentation”, “Nice shoes” and “Nice house”. The above data reveals that the participants mostly used structures that contained adjectives to compliment their addressees. Also, the data demonstrate that the participants used adjectives such as “nice”, “good”, “happy”, ‘glad” and “delicious” as major adjectives in compliments. Verbs were not used by the participants when giving compliments.

Influence of Topic on Compliments and Compliment Responses

Compliments

When expressing congratulations regarding academic success, the complimenter expresses a general judgment on the quality of the success through the common use of the word “good” in both situations. Explicit comments are dominant in both situations. Complementers express their positive feelings openly to the person. The compliments are not quantified or qualified. The complimenter does not say, for instance, “that was a good presentation because you engaged the audience”. This suggests that the compliment in respect to academic success tends to be positive and of a general nature.

The compliments relating to belongings or objects focus on the object in question, which is qualified by a general judgement such as “nice” or in the case of the house “clean”. Unlike compliments concerning academic success, compliments concerning an individual’s objects show a greater diversity of bound semantic formulas. The dominance of unbound semantic formulas, observed in compliments on academic success, is also dominant in respect to the topic of belongings/objects. This suggests that when an individual is able to view the object physically, as compared to a non-physical referent such as academic success, it is easier for the complimenter to link the compliment to the object. Unbound semantic formulas and explicit comments specifically remain the most common compliment irrespective of the topic.
Compliment Responses

Compliment responses involving the topic of personal achievement demonstrate a high level of agreement, with expressions of appreciation being dominance the most common. As would be expected, “thanks” or “thank you” is the most prevalent response. There is a difference in that the response to a compliment on cooking a delicious dinner has a dominance of acceptance over appreciation. This is because in this context, the experience has been shared whereas in situations seven and eight consumption is separated in time and space from production.

In situations where the topic is related to personal ability, agreement still dominates, with the appreciation token being the most dominant. In this context, there is evidence that it is difficult to predict the prevalence of the types of agreement responses that will be used. It can be said then that irrespective of the topic, the compliment responses are driven by the cultural norms of the requirement to express gratitude when receiving a compliment and that the types of agreement expressed by the individual is more a reflection of the personal communicative style than the topic. It does appear that compliment responses are more influenced by social norms than compliments. This is evident in a tendency to seek to scale down compliments across all topics in order to show humility.

Gender Differences

Compliments

Table eight tabulates the frequencies, percentages and chi-square tests of compliments across male and female participants:

Table 8. Frequencies, percentages and chi-square test of compliments across male and female participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>(\chi^2)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advice</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>7.54, P=0.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contrast</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explanation</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future reference</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Information question</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unbound semantic formulas</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Explicit compliments</td>
<td>139</td>
<td>141</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implicit compliments</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>65</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The quantitative analysis of the Saudi EFL speakers’ compliments shows some variations across genders. However, the Chi-square results indicate that there are no significant differences between males and females in the choice of compliment strategies. This means that the male and female participants used the same compliment strategies.

Compliment Responses

Table 9 shows frequencies, percentages and Chi-square tests of compliment responses across male and female participants.
Table 9. Frequencies, percentages and chi-square tests of compliment responses across male and female participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Agreement Acceptances</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appreciation token</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>12.15, $P &lt; 0.05$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment Acceptance</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>54</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Praise Upgrade</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comment History</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transfers</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reassignment</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Return</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>40</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Agreement</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scale Down</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>27</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Chi-square analysis of the Saudi EFL speakers’ responses to compliments shows some variations across genders. Table nine indicates that there are differences between males and females in compliment response strategies ($\chi^2 = 12.15, P < 0.05$). It also indicates that the female and male participants used different compliment response strategies. The details are addressed in the following paragraph. Overall, “acceptance” was the most frequently used compliment response strategy. The data shows that male participants employed more “acceptance” strategies than females when responding to compliments. Men used 170 acceptance strategies, which include “appreciation token”, “comment acceptance” and “praise upgrade” in their compliment responses while women used 162 (Table 5). The data indicates that the male participants used more “appreciation token” strategies than the females in responding to the compliments. Males used 100 while females used 69 appreciation token strategies when responding to compliments. Female participants used slightly more “comment acceptance” strategies than the males when responding to compliments. Males used 48 while females used 54 “comment acceptance” strategies in compliment responses. Female participants used more “praise upgrade” strategies than the males in responding to the compliments. Males used 22 while females employed 39 “praise upgrade” strategies in compliment responses. “Non-acceptance” strategies were the second-most frequently used type of agreement strategy. The data suggests that male and female participants employed the same number of “non-acceptance” strategies when responding to compliments.

Compliment Structure

Table ten tabulates the frequencies, percentages and Chi-square tests for compliment structures across male and female participants.

Table 10. Frequencies, percentages and chi-square tests for compliment structures across male and female participants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>$\chi^2$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. NP is/looks (really) ADJ</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I (really) like/love NP</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>12.17, $P = 0.09$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. PRO is (really) (a) ADJ NP</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>44</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. You V (a) (really) ADJ NP</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Chi-square analysis of the Saudi EFL speakers’ compliment structure shows some variations across genders. However, the Chi-square results indicate that there are no significant differences between males and females in their use of compliment structures. This means that male and female participants used the same structures.

**Findings**

The research found that the dominant forms of compliments were unbound semantic formulas that comprised either explicit or implicit comments. This does not appear to be different from the findings about compliment usage amongst other cultural groups (Pour & Zarei, 2016; Yuan, 2002). The form used was unaffected by the social relationships between the participants. Where the social context of the compliment involved a situation that was delicate, the participants tended to use more implicit compliments than explicit. This suggests that the religious requirements regarding politeness in the Saudi Arabian context increased the likelihood that implicit compliments would be used. Bound semantic formulas will be more prevalent in this social situation. Discussions of objects rather than people tend to promote a greater use of bound semantic formulas.

A significant finding was that the cohort showed a high level of variation in the range of compliments that were used, and that there was no fixed pattern to their use. The cohort used adjectives as compliments rather than verbs. This finding is congruent with the research of Qanbar (2012). It does appear that the use of compliments amongst Saudi Arabian students is strongly influenced by the social need not to cause offence to the other person. There was no evidence to support the findings of Farghal (2006) that the contextual situation affects the length of the compliment among Arabic speakers. The length of the compliments used was consistent across all situations. The use of both compliments and compliment responses is not affected by the nature of the social relationship that exists between the people communicating. Compliments require a return compliment and are used to establish social equality and mutual respect.

The other significant finding in the research was a lack of difference in the types of compliments and compliment responses according to gender. The only identified difference was that females tended to provide more compliments than males. Men tended to accept compliments more than women and provided compliments that were performance based. Females tended to provide compliments that were appearance based. The findings suggest that gender differences in the use of compliments and compliment responses transcend cultures. This may be reflective of the different social standing that women have in society compared to men.

The central finding of this research is that the Saudi culture may be undergoing a semantic cultural change in the way that young people use compliments and respond to compliments. Although the causes of this change were not a focus of this research, the fact that this change is...
occurring signals that a wider cultural change may be taking place. The politeness which tends to characterise Muslim cultures still exerts a strong influence on the use of compliments. This change appears to be occurring, as the cohort showed a high degree of variability in their semantic framing of compliments and compliment responses. This might indicate a displacement of the collective culture of Saudi Arabia with a more individualistic one.

Conclusion

Although prior to this study there had not been enough research into the use of compliments and responses to compliments in the Saudi context, there have been studies conducted within Muslim countries. In the Arab World, Farghal (2006) examined Kuwaiti students’ realisation of compliments at the college level. Using a (DCT) the study found that the Arabic language affects the students’ complimenting behaviour when they used English. The study found that the students used a relatively fixed pattern to express compliments and that the compliment topic was an important determinant of the length of compliments and compliment responses. Falaisi (2007) used a DCT to study pragmatic transfer in the United Emirates amongst female students. Falaisi (2007) found that Arabic native speakers do not use target-like responses when they compliment. In an Egyptian context, Nelson, Bakary, and Al-Batal, (1996). found that Egyptian speakers primarily use adjectives and full sentences for compliments. This was supported in the study of compliments by Ebadi and Salman (2015) in the context of Iraq. In a Persian context, Karimnia and Afgahi (2011) found that compliments were important as part of a socio-religious requirement to provide compliments to others.

The present research does not support previous findings that the Arab culture tends to favour longer forms of compliments (Nelson, Bakery & Al-Batal, 1996). One possible reason for this may be that the cohort of younger Saudi people had been influenced by western linguistic practices. Whereas Farghal and Haggan (2006), Kasper (2000), Qanbar (2012) and Manes and Wolfson (1981) found that Arabic speakers tend to use a fixed pattern of compliment usage that had a low degree of variation, this study found the reverse to be true. This may be due to the nature of the cohort that was used in this research.

The research was unable to provide a definitive insight into the influence of the degree of intimacy and social status of the people involved. However, the research identified that the socio-religious rules that dominate the highly conservative culture of Saudi Arabia do influence the way that compliments are used. Although exposure to western language and culture may be changing the way that young Saudis semantically express compliments, the socio-religious rules that influence behaviour and relationships remain. The research found that irrespective of the relationship between the participants, there is a strong requirement for the participants to be polite to each other. Compliments tend to be given out of social necessity rather than as a genuine expression of how the person feels.

Implications

Further comparative research is needed to increase the level of understanding of the use of compliments in the Saudi Arabian context. The research has identified a need to assess whether there is a fundamental difference between the ways in which younger Saudis use compliments and
the ways in which older generations do so. The research suggests that there has been a change. This is worthy of investigation into the precise nature of this change and the underlying causes. This is necessary as it may be evidence of a significant cultural change occurring in the younger generation due to the gradual westernisation of the Saudi Arabian educational system, the increased exposure of Saudi Arabian students to western education through international scholarships, and greater exposure to Western education. The significant difference between the findings in this study and those of previous studies in regard to how compliments are used warrants further investigation to determine whether this difference can be found in other cohorts of Saudi Arabian students. If this difference is found to be evident in a wider group of students, then it will imply that the exposure of Saudi Arabian students to English and to western culture is changing the ways in which they use compliments.

There is a need for students learning English to shift their focus from a grammatical orientation towards developing pragmatic competence. The lack of variation in how students use compliments in different situations indicates how politeness restricts the variability of compliments and responses to compliments. EFL learners need to be trained in the use of compliments in other cultural settings. This comes with the danger that has been identified in this research. Greater exposure to cultural and linguistic differences in the use of compliments and compliment responses may be instrumental in initiating linguistic cultural change. This exposure may result in less conservative and religious-based social utterances. This research has identified the beginnings of a cultural change in how young Saudis are using compliments and responding to compliments.

About the Author
Saad Alqarni is currently studying his doctorate at Western Sydney University, Australia. Saad has a strong interest in researching the language patterns of Saudi Arabians and the influence that western education has had on these language patterns. Saad is a lecturer in the Faculty of Arts and Sciences at Al- Baha University. https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6793-1171.

References

A Sociolinguistic Investigation of Compliments and Compliment Responses


Appropriate Teaching Methods for General English and English for Specific Purposes from Teachers' Perspectives

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Abstract
Teaching methodology has a significant impact on the learning process of students. The English language has changed over time. This research investigates the most appropriate and useful teaching methods for teaching General English (GE) and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the Saudi context. This study is an attempt to share experienced English as a foreign language (EFL)/English as a second language (ESL) teachers' methodology for teaching EG and ESP to Saudi EFL learners. The paper aims to answer the following questions: 1) What are the conventional methods for teaching GE and ESP?; 2) What are the English teachers' perceptions of these effective teaching pedagogies?; 3) What are the practical measures to improve student efficiency in learning English? The sample of the study was n = 63 English teachers randomly selected at different universities in Saudi Arabia. For collecting the quantitative data, 63 native and non-native experienced English teachers were requested to fill in a semi-structured questionnaire. The results show that 73% of the English language teachers prefer to use the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) along with other teaching methods. The findings shed light on some highly useful teaching methods that have proved successful in GE and ESP classes. The researchers expect the study will be significant in contributing to the most appropriate methods used in Saudi Arabia for language teachers. Hopefully, teachers wishing to teach in the future will have an insight into the teaching methods that fulfill the requirements of the students.

Keywords: English language teaching methods, General English, English for Specific Purposes, learner needs, teachers' perceptions

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Introduction:
The area of teaching a second or a foreign language has been a challenge for researchers and teachers alike. Language teaching and learning takes place in a specific setting with teachers' pedagogical knowledge and suitable teaching methods as tools in hand to make this process happen smoothly (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). However, many variables affect the success of the learning process, and one of these is teaching methods. How to Teach the target language in a specific setting is of the primary concern. Kumaravadivelu (2006) states, "Method is central to any language teaching enterprise" (p. 83). EFL teachers use various methods in the classroom to achieve short-term and long-term objectives. The teaching methods, however, may reflect different outcomes in different learning environments. The most challenging task in the teaching of English as a second/ foreign language is to select an appropriate teaching method for the learners. The productive skills, namely: Speaking and Writing demand more effort than the receptive skills of English, i.e., Listening and Reading. Therefore, a balanced teaching method should to adopted by the EFL /ESL teachers to deliver effectively because this is a teacher's sole responsibility in the classroom.

Prabu (1990) believes that no method can achieve the level of excellence in ESL/EFL teaching. According to Prabu (1990), "It all depends on teaching context" (p. 162). He further categorizes the variables that can affect the teaching context, and out of these categories, the most common relate to "social situation, educational organization, teacher-related factors, and student-related factors" (Prabu, 1990, p.162). These variables are diverse and discrete, and he thinks that it is not practically possible to list them all in an organized way. In this respect, Bell (2007) writes: "A knowledge of methods is equated with a set of options, which empowers teachers to respond meaningfully to particular classroom contexts. In this way, knowledge of methods is seen as crucial to teacher growth" (pp.141–2).

Generally speaking about, in the second and foreign language context, there are several teaching methods widely used in teaching English. To name some most common methods; Grammar Translation Method (GTM), Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Natural Approach/Direct Method (DM), Bilingual Approach, English Only Policy (EOP), Computer Assisted English Learning (CALL). However, the efficacy of any of these teaching methods depends on the variables mentioned earlier.

This paper aims to bring into focus theoretical underpinning, characteristics of commonly used teaching methods, elucidates native and non-native English teachers' perceptions. This study also gives suggestions to imply appropriate teaching methods for EG and ESP in EFL classrooms. The study analyses how the more beneficial use of these teaching methods to earn the desired learning outcomes and fulfill the EFL learner's academic needs. However, the teaching methods discussed in this paper have potential benefits and some drawbacks, as well.

Objectives of the Research
This research has three-fold aims:
1. Analyzing the conventional method(s) for teaching EG and ESP;
2. Evaluating English teachers' perceptions of effective teaching pedagogies;
3. Practical measures to improve student efficiency in learning English by suggesting the most suitable language teaching methods.

**Literature Review**

In the Saudi context, the scenario for teaching and learning English has developed dramatically over time, especially in the last two decades (Khan, 2011; Al-Seghayer, 2014; Alharbi, 2018). General English paved its way in the Saudi Education system almost four decades ago (AlAhaydib, 1986, as cited in Alreseed, 2008). According to Al-Tamimi (2019), "Saudi EFL teaching policies and strategies have evolved considerably over the years" (p.69). However, this area of the education system is still under progress and has come across many challenges and obstacles in teaching English as a second/foreign language. These problems may arise from cultural differences, educational background (Alharbi, 2018), lack of experienced teachers or teaching materials, and, more specifically, faulty or inappropriate teaching methods. One of the pressing issues faced in this area is choosing and implementing an appropriate instructional plan for teaching General English (EG) and English for Special Purposes (ESP) at the graduate level in Saudi Universities.

Over the globe, ELT has progressed rapidly and diversely in the last five decades. Now, ESP enjoys an upgraded as a branch of ELT. ESP is a target-oriented teaching apriorism based on learner's required needs and goals (Islam, n.d.; Zare-Behtash, Zadeh & Banaruee, 2017). ESP is defined as "A variety of English that can be observed in a given perimeter of society, delineated by professional or disciplinary boundaries" (Saber, 2016, p.2 as cited in Whyte & Sarré, 2017). Therefore, unique course materials and books based on the relevant content are designed for ESP to fulfill the requirements of the specific disciplines (Wappa, 2019). In recent years with global economic development, ESP has evolved its status as a subfield of ESP.

![Figure 1. Status of ESP in ELT](image)

ESP status can be clarified by figure 1. As mentioned earlier, ESP is a branch of English Language Teaching (ELT). English for occupational purposes (EOP) and English for Academic Purposes (EAP) are the subfields of ESP (Chalikandy, 2013; Fadal & Rajab, 2017).
Learning English in a specific context is bound to precise needs analysis and development of a particular curriculum to make the learning interactional and meaningful (Zare-Behtash, Zadeh & Banaruee, 2017, p. 40). Wappa (2019) opines that the main aim of ESP "is to satisfy the use of English needs of the learners in specific domains" (p. 60). According to Islam (n.d.), "The main goal of introducing ESP in various non-native /international settings is to equip learners with necessary English language skills to face their practical situation communication challenges in their future careers" (p. 69).

Teaching English as a second and foreign language in an entirely different culture calls for expertise and appropriate pedagogy to meet the learners' perceived needs. Teaching and learning English in the Saudi context has always been challenging for the teachers and the students.

In Saudi Arabia, teaching English at many technical colleges paves the way to ESP applied in specialization the students aim for in the future (Al-Tamimi, 2019; Khan, 2011). Nazim & Hazarika (2017) assert, "To make learners' global professionals', they need to be equipped with English language proficiency to access the content areas of professional disciplines such as medicine, engineering, computer sciences, etc." (p. 147). Likewise, Khan (2017) writes, "Achievement in English in general and ESP, in particular, is highly demanded" (p. 142). Without a sound knowledge of the English language, students cannot make progress in their majors. Therefore, ESP has triggered the challenge of teaching the English language.

Table 1. **EG &ESP Characteristics in a Glance**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>General English (EG)</th>
<th>English for Specific Purposes (ESP)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• &quot;aim-oriented language learning&quot; (Islam, n.d, p.69)</td>
<td>• objective-oriented language learning (Islam, n.d.) &quot;Purpose-related orientation&quot; (Wappa, 2019, p. 60)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• provides a broader foundation (Popescu, 2010)</td>
<td>• more focused and closely related to a specific discipline (Whyte &amp; Sarré, 2017)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• provides a basis for ESP(Wappa, 2019)</td>
<td>• &quot;Present pre-set skill training in a well-framed format for a specific time and target&quot; (Nazim &amp; Hazarika, 2017, p. 147)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• likely to be designed for learners at all levels, irrespective of ages (Popescu, 2010)</td>
<td>• likely to be designed for adults (Popescu, 2010)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• the course content is more challenging to select due to the unpredictable future needs of learners (Widdowson, 1983)</td>
<td>• learners' needs' specific (Cao, 2014), courses, teaching materials &amp; tools (Milosevic, 2017; Wappa, 2019)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• open to the learning of all language skills (Popescu, 2010)</td>
<td>• often restricted to the specific learning skills only (Sarani &amp; Farzaneh, 2012)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>• requires professional expertise in the specialized field (Wappa, 2019)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Do Teachers have different roles as ENG or ESP Teachers?

In general, a teacher's role is highly significant in language teaching because they provide a valuable contribution to the streamline due to their rich pedagogical knowledge and skills. Gatbonton (2008), sees the progression of a non-experienced teacher to an experienced teacher as "a continuum" (p. 162), where teachers evolve throughout their teaching career. In this phase, they learn to solve the methodological issues in the classroom. The nature of this experience makes a difference when it comes to teaching English courses.

After discussing the differences in the characteristics of EG & ESP, the question arises about the differences in the roles of EG & ESP Teachers. However, there is no ideal role specification, and the immediate response is that they don't have the same functions to play. In EG, the teacher is a director and a model whereas in ESP teacher plays the role of facilitator and consultant (Zhu & Liao, 2008). In EG, the command over language is a must; however, an ESP teacher has to shape his/her knowledge, especially that of discipline, culture, and values (Wappa, 2019). ESP demands well-trained in professional skills with flexibility in approach to cope with the specific needs of his/her students (Islam, n.d., p. 68). An EG teacher teaches students to deal with any content in any discipline (Popescu, 2010).

Conventional Methods to Language Teaching for EG&ESP

Over the decades, several teaching methods are proposed, tested, applied and, then accepted or rejected in the domain of ESL/EFL teaching. Popescu (2010) believes, "EG and ESP are highly interrelated" (p. 52). However, the difference lies in practical implication, not in theory, according to Hutchinson et al. (1987). For this purpose, there should be an appropriate teaching pedagogy that must meet the nature of the English courses. This paper discusses some potential benefits and drawbacks of the leading teaching methods.

Grammar-Translation Method (GTM):

The first to mention and the most commonly used traditional teaching method for ESL is Grammar-Translation (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). This instructional method depends on the literature and grammar of the target language, with translated passages into and from the mother tongue (Mart, 2013). Grammar Translation Method is a highly teacher-centered approach, and this is the reason that now it is not a preferred teaching method in many developed countries. GMT emphasizes on learning grammar rules and vocabulary through the deductive approach (Mart, 2013). Classwork is highly structured, with the authoritative teacher controlling all activities (Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, 2011). Out of the four language skills, reading and writing skills are the primary focus of attention. There is little or no attempt to teach oral skills and pronunciation. Mostly, GMT is not recommended as an appropriate teaching pedagogy for EFL because it does not encourage learners to communicate and enhance verbal abilities in the target language (Newson as cited in Mart, 2013).

Traditionally and culturally, rote-learning and teacher-centered pedagogy have prevailed in the Saudi education system (Elyas and Picrad, 2010). Teacher dominancy is a common feature of EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia (Al-Seghayer, 2014). Therefore, a distinct approach is the grammar-translation method both for EG and ESP. Zafer (2002) finds in his survey that GMT is the second most commonly used teaching method after ALM for teaching English. Assalahi (2013)
also questions the dominancy of GMT in the Arab world. He investigates teachers' perceptions about using translation in teaching English when they are supposed to apply the Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). He reports that teachers are somewhat rigid in using GMT. Some teachers are of the view that Grammar Translation is a natural method, and students are mentally comfortable when allowed to use their mother tongue in classrooms. They argue that a foreign language can be taught better with translation because they can have easy control over comprehension. Though students can quickly decode an English word with an accurate translation in L1 (Mart, 2013), they cannot get involved in the target language that is essential to develop communicative skills and the comprehension impediment is also doubtful (Kasmer, 1999).

**Natural Approach /Direct Method**

The direct method sometimes called the natural approach and is often used in teaching foreign languages. Unlike GMT, the direct way does not allow the learners to use their native language and emphasizes only the use of the target language in the classroom as an instructional medium. In this method, mother tongue interference is almost zero. (Elizabeth & Rao, 2010). In teaching methodology, the direct approach is the other end of the spectrum because it was proposed by the teachers when GMT lost its efficacy. As Larsen-Freeman & Anderson (2011) write the core rule of the direct method, "No translation is allowed" (p. 46). In general, teaching focuses on the development of oral skills. "Language is primarily spoken, not written" (p. 53), state Larsen-Freeman & Anderson (2011). In Saudi universities, many language teachers use direct method along with the grammar-translation. (Alsufyani, 2016).

**Task-based Language Teaching (TBLT /TBI)**

Task-based language learning (TBLT), or task-based instruction (TBI), emphasizes the use of authentic language, and students are engaged in meaningful activities using the target language. Task-Based Language Teaching (TBLT) refers to an approach based on the use of language-based tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching (Richards and Rodgers, 2001). In general English, such activities can include visiting a friend, conducting an interview, ordering food at a restaurant, or calling customer service for help.

The Task-based approach is a perceived method for ESP according to the nature of the teaching it demands (Wappa, 2019). ESP has specific learner needs, and the designed material and courses are according to the specialized discipline. Therefore, TBLT works best in this context because learners can focus on the language skill area they need to develop. The underlying implication of using TBLT is that an ESP teacher can easily teach technical and specialized vocabularies through a task-based approach, which has always been the essential business for an ESP teacher. TBLT targets on specific lexical items so that it can be "best applied to ESP" (Sarani & Farzaneh, 2012, p. 118).

**Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)**

According to Thompson (1996), "Communicative language teaching (CLT) is well established as the dominant theoretical model in ELT" (p. 9). Kumaravadivelu (2006) puts it in the 2nd category of language teaching method that is the learner-centred method. Likewise, Larsen-Freeman & Anderson (2011) describe CLA as an "oral-based approach" (p. 59). So, in CLT, language is learned successfully with a communicative experience in real life that can be for academic needs.
or social interaction. When learners are involved in real communication, their inherent capabilities for language acquisition are used and allow them to learn to use the language in the real world. This characteristic is stated in Kumaravadivelu (2006), "Learner-centered pedagogies aim at making language learners grammatically accurate and communicatively fluent" (p. 91).

A good classroom example of the communicative approach can be practicing question forms by asking learners to find out personal information about their friends/colleagues because it involves meaningful communication. In this regard, Wappa (2019) opines "learner-centred method for ESP," and CLT fills in the criterion because the learner is the focus in this approach.

In the Saudi context, CLT has gained popularity. Some researchers have studied the use of CLT at different levels of the education system (Alsufyani, 2016; Althaqafi, 2018)

**Audio Lingual Method (ALM)**
The Audio-Lingual Method (AML) is a method of foreign language teaching which emphasizes teaching and listening before reading and writing. Kumaravadivelu (2006) categories AML as a "language-centred method" that is "concerned with the linguistic form" (p. 90). The primary structure of language presentation is dialogues. Also, the basic training technique is drilling. In AML, the use of the first language is discouraged in the classroom (Mei, 2018; Shei, Zikpi, and Chao, 2019)

According to some researches, audio/video aids are a great help in teaching ESP. The teachers A/V aids in explaining and demonstrate technical terms in the classroom. In a case study, based on Tarnopolsky's blended learning approach, Milosevic (2017) observes the effectiveness of audiovisual resources (AVR) for teaching ESP to the students of Technical Science. He reports that the AVR impact is more significant than the traditional method on the learning progress of the students. According to some researchers, the teacher focus has shifted to the Audio-lingual Method. Alresheed (2008) favours AML for teaching grammar, but he criticizes that AML is not a good teaching pedagogy for teaching communication skills. He declares this problem as "may be one of the reasons that most of the Saudi students cannot express themselves in English even after finishing secondary school" (p. 17).

More recently, AML has become popular among teachers in Saudi Arabia due to the learning benefits it offers to the education system (Alresheed, 2008; Althaqafi, 2018). However, it depends on the availability of resources in a specific teaching environment.

**Computer-Assisted English Learning (CALL)**
Computer-assisted learning (CALL), as the name implies, is the use of electronic devices/computers to learn a language, and provide educational instruction to the learners. Beatty (2010) gives a broader definition of CALL, "Any process in which a learner uses a computer and, as a result, improves his or her language" (p. 7). The extensive use of CALL in English language teaching is noted by Talyor (2014) due to the ever-expanding nature of CALL. He writes, "The constant improvement of programs, games, simulation and interactive software for learners id astounding. It is important more and more on the process of teaching language as a Second or Foreign language, as it is throughout the academic world." (p. 15)
The digital era and advances in technology have offered new dimensions to learn and teach language. Computer-Assisted English language Learning (CALL) is now considered the best convenient and useful method in language teaching due to its limitless boundaries. Many language teachers prefer to use CALL in second or foreign language teaching. Pinner (2012) believes, "Another source of teachers' intrinsic motivation to use CALL could be the relevance they ascribe it to their students and the modern world" (p. 90). Computers can stimulate and arouse the active interest of students during the learning process at multiple levels. According to Alhujaylan (2019), "CALL creates a meaningful context to the environment they (students) can learn in." (p. 19)

Though at a smaller level, some researchers observe a positive shift in teaching towards using CALL in ESL/EFL in the Saudi context. In different settings, Al-Mansour & Al-Shorman (2012) and Alhujaylan (2019) report students' improvement in their study when CALL supplemented with the traditional teaching method. Al-Seed (2018) finds in his research that now many English teachers prefer to use CALL in ESL/EFL teaching in the Saudi context.

Research Methodology
This research uses a quantitative approach. According to Cassell & Symon (1994), measurements collected by the quantitative model reliable, valid, and generalizable. The researchers utilize a self-administered questionnaire to collect data. According to Hennik, Hutter, and Bailey (2018), this approach allows you to identify issues from the perspectives of the participants and to understand the meaning/s and interpretations that they give to behavior, events, or objects. Therefore, a quantitative approach is used in the research to determine which teaching method/s lecturers find most appropriate while teaching English as a Second language (ESL)/ English for General Purposes (EG)/ English for specific purposes (ESP) and English as a Foreign Language (EFL).

Participants
The researchers dispense the self-administered questionnaire to lecturers. These lecturers are the faculty members of Saudi universities. They teach English as a Foreign Language (EFL)/English as a Second Language (ESL)/ English for General Purposes (EG)/ and English for Specific Purposes (ESP) at perspective universities in Saudi Arabia. Mitchell and Jolley (2010) believe that a self-administered questionnaire allows respondents to be anonymous, and to a great extent, it assures honest answers to highly personal questions. In total, Sixty-three lecturers of different nationalities participated and responded to the self-administered questionnaire under anonymity.

Data collection
The data was collected using a self-administered questionnaire. Mitchell and Jolley (2010) suggest the secure administration of this questionnaire. It consisted of 11 questions divided into three parts. Part 1 contained four questions, and it dealt with the biographical details of the respondents. Part 2 had four questions about the teaching methodologies, and part 3, respectively, had four questions, and it dealt with ways teaching methods/ techniques can be improved. The self-administered questionnaire was distributed electronically via WhatsApp and emailed to English faculty members of universities in Saudi Arabia.
Validity
Grarett and Forzana (2012) declare that the validity of research is the degree to which the study accurately answers the question it intends to answer; hence validity is essential to research. This research utilizes pilot testing to verify the test validity. Johnson and Christensen (2012) propose a pilot test to assess the efficacy of the survey. Before administrating the questionnaire electronically, two experienced native and non-native lecturers on the female campus piloted the questionnaire. The two lectures suggested some minor changes to the way the questions where phrased and the selection of words. Implementation of these changes facilitated the study reaching its aim/s quickly, and the questions were easy to understand.

Results and Discussion
For analyzing the collected data, this research uses the ordinary calculation and percentage to measure lecturers' perceptions in using different teaching methods for ESL/EFL/EG and ESP. The collected data are tabulated and arranged in charts and tables where necessary.

Statement 1. What is your gender?

Figure 2. Distribution of male & female teachers
The first question asked from the participants was about gender. This category is essential because there is gender segregation in universities in Saudi Arabia. The gender determination of the respondents illustrates that the self-administrated questionnaire was distributed successfully on both the male and female campuses.

Statement 2: What is your qualification?

Figure 3. Qualification of the respondents
The pie chart illustrates 27 respondents have a master's degree, 12 respondents have a Ph.D. Nine respondents have a master's degree, and a CELTA/TESOL/TEFL, eight respondents, have a honors/BTech, four respondents have CELTA/TESOL/TEFL only, and three respondents have an honors/BTech with a CELTA/TESOL/TEFL.

Table 2. A summary of the qualification of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Cumulative Frequency</th>
<th>Cumulative Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ph.D</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's degree</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42.9</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>61.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Master's degree with a CELTA/TESOL/TEFL</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>76.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honors/BTech</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>88.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CELTA/TESOL/TEFL</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>95.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Honors/BTech with CELTA/TESOL/TEFL</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement 3. What is your teaching experience?

Figure 4. Teaching experience

The pie chart above shows that 40 respondents that are a percentage of 63.5% have worked at their respective universities for seven or more years, 13 teachers that are a percentage of 20.6% worked for 1-3 years and ten teachers that is a percentage of 15.9% have worked for 4-7 years.

Statement 4: Which course/s do you teach?

Figure 5. The number of subjects taught by the respondents
The bar graph above shows that respondents teach or have taught more than one course at their respective universities. From the 63 respondents, each respondent has taught more than one of the listed subjects above because 31 respondents have taught or are teaching English as a foreign language, 11 English for general purposes, 25 English for specific purposes, and 29 English as a foreign language.

Table 3. A summary of courses taught by the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English Courses</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English as a Second Language (ESL)</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English as a Foreign Language (EFL)</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>49.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English for General Purposes (EG)</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>17.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English for Specific Purposes (ESP)</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>39.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement 5: Which method of teaching do you use in the classroom?

Figure 6. Range of teaching methods used in classrooms

This bar graph above shows that lecturers use a variety of different techniques in the class. Forty-six lecturers use the communicative method, 27 use the direct/natural approach, 24 use the audio-lingual teaching method, 19 use the task-based approach, 17 use the computer-assisted language learning method, 10 use the grammar-translation method and only five use other.

Table 4. A summary of the range of teaching methods used in classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching methods</th>
<th>Responses</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Communicative Language Teaching</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct/natural Approach</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>42.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio Lingual Teaching Method</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>38.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Task-Based Approach</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Assisted Language Learning Method</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar Translation Method</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Statement 6. What are the reasons for using the teaching methods you chose?
Figure 7. Reasons for using a particular teaching method
The pie chart shows 44 respondents, that are 69.8% of the teachers stated that the approach suits the needs of the learners, nine respondents that are 14.3% of the teachers indicated the approach works well with limited teaching resources and ten respondents that are 15.9% of the teachers chose both.

Statement 7: What teaching materials do you use in class?

Figure 8. Teaching materials used in classrooms
To this statement, 46 respondents used videos, 47 used pictures, 58 used written texts, and 47 used audiovisuals as teaching materials in class. The bar graph also shows that lecturers also use a mix of their teaching materials.

Table 5. Teaching materials used in classrooms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teaching materials</th>
<th>Respondents</th>
<th>Percentage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Videos</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pictures</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>74.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Written Texts</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>92.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audio Visuals</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>74.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Statement 8: Do you think the length of time for classes is enough?

Figure 9. Class duration
The bar graph above shows that 52 respondents' (82.5%) think yes, the length of time for classes is enough, and 11(17.5 %) stated no the duration of class time is not enough.

Statement 9: Does your institution offer teacher training courses?

Figure 10. Teacher training courses in universities
The pie chart above illustrates that 45 (71.4%) respondents said no and 18(28.6%) respondents said yes to their learning institutions offering teaching training courses.

Statement 10: Do you think your university should offer teacher training courses?

Figure 11. Should teacher training courses be offered?
A majority of the 52 respondents (82.5%) stated that yes, they prefer to take the teacher training courses, and only 11 respondents (17.5%) said no, they do not prefer to have teacher training courses.

**Statement 11:** How important is it to have teacher training courses in order to keep up with various teaching techniques?

![Bar chart showing importance of teacher training courses](image)

*Figure 12. Importance of teacher training courses:*

A majority of the 33 respondents (52.3%) stated that yes, teacher training courses are very fundamental, and only five respondents (7.9%) said teacher training courses are essential, and only one (1%) teacher responded that training courses are of least importance.

**Conclusion**

This study investigates the most appropriate teaching methods for teaching EG and ESP to ESL/EFL students at the university level. The present research finds evidence for the use of different teaching methods in the ESL/EFL classroom at the university level. In the present study, the researchers reported quantitative research by administrating a semi-structured questionnaire on English language teachers. The results confirmed that \( n = 63 \) teachers use various teaching methods, and most teachers use a blend of teaching methods to suit the learners' needs in the ESL/EFL classrooms.

The findings of the study are useful for the experienced and non-experienced teachers, educators, and overall, for the education system policymakers to implement the most appropriate teaching methods for gaining desired learning-outcomes in ESL/EFL teaching. The research recommends that the English language teachers should not rely on one teaching method; instead, they should update and train themselves to be flexible in adopting a blend of suitable teaching pedagogies that suits their learners' needs. This research also pointed out that there is a dare need for teachers' training courses. The researchers strongly recommend that this area of English language teaching methods should be explored more in the future to suggest some more innovative teaching methods.

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Digital Storytelling as a Communicative Language Teaching Based Method in EFL Classrooms

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Abstract
Communicative language teaching has emerged in second and foreign language pedagogy due to the inadequacy of previous language teaching methods to enhance English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ communicative competence. However, old language teaching methods, mainly, grammar-translation and audio-lingual, are still prevalent in EFL contexts. One of the reasons behind EFL teachers’ hesitance to shift entirely to communicative language teaching (CLT) is the absence of clear guidance, including examples for classroom activities appropriate for this approach. Thus, the aim of this study is, first, to bridge this gap by suggesting digital storytelling as a classroom activity that is well-aligned with the principles of the communicative language approach. Second, to assess the effectiveness of digital storytelling activity on improving some linguistic aspects of students’ communicative competence. To this end, the study incorporated a case study design using multiple qualitative methods such as participant observation, semi-structured interviews and analysis of participants’ scripts and recordings to measure the improvement, if any. Participants were a class of 32 10th graders who collaboratively created five digital stories over 12 weeks. Results showed students’ favourable views to digital storytelling activity, particularly the ample opportunities it creates for communication inside the classroom. As for communicative competence, improvement in phonology, grammar, and lexicon were the most notable. Finally, suggestions for effective integration and possible future research venues based on these findings are provided.

Keywords: communicative competence, communicative language teaching, digital storytelling, EFL context

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol11no1.20
Introduction
As Savignon (2017) asserts, enhancement of communicative competence should be the goal of second and foreign language pedagogy in the 21st Century. In other words, it is no longer sufficient to demonstrate adequate knowledge of grammatical rules and the accumulation of new words but cannot communicate efficiently through the target language. However, the attainment of a certain degree of proficiency in a second language that enables the speaker from efficiently communicating with others is complicated due to multiple variables (Ellis, 1989). It, moreover, is more challenging in foreign language contexts for the reasons inherent in second language situation together with the shortage of chances to practice it in daily life communications. Hence, English language classrooms in non-English speaking contexts are responsible for providing students with as many chances to speak English as possible so they can compensate for the shortage of opportunities outside the classroom.

This need for a language teaching approach that focuses primarily on communication led to the emergence of communicative language teaching CLT. This approach has proved effective, where it has been embraced. Nonetheless, some EFL teachers are still reluctant to implement CLT in their classrooms due to the inadequacy of communicative activities (Chowdhury, 2012), and teachers’ lack of time and expertise to design these activities (Kalanzadeh, Mirchenari, & Bakhtiavand, 2013). This paper believes the characteristics of digital storytelling activity make it an excellent choice for EFL teachers aiming to implement CLT.

Consequently, it is hoped that this activity has the potential to enhance EFL students’ communicative competence. More specifically, this study sought to answer the following research questions:

1) How do participants perceive using digital storytelling in the English language classroom?
2) To what extent did participants’ collaborative creation of digital stories enhance communicative competence?

Communicative Competence
The concept of communicative competence has initially emerged in the field of first language communication in the beginnings of 1970s. Scholars have provided various yet similar definitions of communicative competence. For example, Hymes (1972), who coined the term “communicative competence” argues that communicative competence comprises not only the knowledge of grammatical rules but, more importantly, the knowledge to use this linguistic competence appropriately. He maintains that, besides linguistic competence, psycholinguistic competence, sociocultural competence, and probabilistic competence are all integral components of communicative competence.

Following Hymes’ conceptualisation, Savignon (1976) also considers communicative competence as "The ability to function in a truly communicative setting— that is, in a dynamic exchange in which linguistic competence must adapt itself to the total informational input, both linguistic and paralinguistic of one or more interlocutors" (p. 12). A similar standpoint was embraced by Kiato and Kiato (1996), who observed that communicative competence reflect one’s ability to show a proper understanding and producing language in real situations. One significant
implication in all these definitions is that the mere knowledge of grammatical rules does not measure communicative competence, rather, the ability to put this knowledge in a proper use considering the social and cultural context. Moreover, these definitions establish the basis for what becomes known as aspects or components of communicative competence.

In the 1980s, Canale and Swaine (1980) extended the concept of communicative competence into second language research through a series of works (Canale, 1983; Canale, 1984; Canale & Swaine, 1980). They identified four components for communicative competence in the second language. First, grammatical competence includes the ability to recognise and produce correct utterance. Second, sociolinguist competence which concerns knowledge of appropriateness of utterances. This knowledge is built on the third question suggested by Hymes (1972), who asserts that the rules of use are no less important than the rules of grammar. Third, discourse competence is the ability to recognise and produce different types of discourse, oral or written. Finally, strategic competence refers to the ability to use effective strategies to compensate for inadequacy in any of the previous competences.

The notion of communicative competence paved the way for the emergence of communicative Language Teaching (CLT), which also is referred to as “Communicative Approach”.

**Communicative Language Teaching Approach**

Communicative language teaching meets the need for an approach to teaching students how to communicate orally and in writing and not about speaking and writing. It acknowledges the importance of grammar but emphasises the importance is to offering language learners with abundant opportunities to put this knowledge in use. Scholars have identified different principles for effective adoption of communicative language teaching approach in classrooms. For examples, Savignon (2017) emphasised writing and reading activities that engage learners in active discussions of meaning. He maintained that communicative teaching does not depend entirely on group or pair work, though it acknowledges the effectiveness of collaboration. He also highlights the need to focus on both pragmatic competence aspects and linguistic competence aspects. Nunan (1991) further explained how this approach could be implemented in EFL classrooms. He emphasises interaction in the target language; use of authentic materials; enhancement of learners' personal experience; and assigning language activities outside the classroom.

These principles are being integrated into second language classrooms through activities such as role-plays, interviews, discussions, information gap activities, language games, language learning simulations, and problem-solving tasks. However, for most EFL teachers, who are the product of old language teaching methods, the idea of designing a communicative activity can be daunting. Next section, therefore, presents a collaborative digital storytelling activity and discusses its characteristics which makes it a good alternative for EFL teachers looking for communicative activities.

**Digital Storytelling**

Digital storytelling has become burgeoning in classrooms for its positive outcomes. Pertinent literature offers several definition for this activity. Robin (2008), for example, defined digital storytelling as the use of multimedia tools to tell a story about a specific topic, and it is usually a
few minutes long. Malita and Martin (2010) define digital storytelling as a combination of technology and the old art of narratives. Alexander and Levin (2008) beautifully described digital storytelling as:

"A collection of pauses, to let the audience think or to indicate a change in the topic; interruptions, to indicate excitement; the ending of a topic before its full resolution, to produce a cliff hanger; vocal intonation, pacing, and pitch; sound effects and music" (p, 54)

As with any type of genre, the creation of digital storytelling should follow certain principles to achieve its maximum impact. The StoryCenter (https://www.storycenter.org/), for example, outlined some elements that need to be considered when creating a digital story. First, an excellent digital story needs to convey one's viewpoint. Second, to attract the attention of the audience from the outset of the story, the story should pose a dramatic question. Third, what differentiates digital storytelling from a PowerPoint presentation is the emotional dimension and the ability to convey it to the audience. Fourth, to amplify the effect, the story should relate to the teller’s personal experience. Fifth, the choice of a suitable soundtrack is critical in delivering the meaning of the teller. Sixth, the use of multimedia should be and limited to what is deemed needed to create the desired effect. Finally, the fulfilment of the previous points will not ensure a good story if the incidents of the story did not unfold at proper pacing.

Digital storytelling holds a profound potential to improve different aspects of EFL students’ communicative competence. For example, Harji and Gheitanchian (2017) found that at the end of a 16 weeks digital storytelling project, EFL students were able to produce more accurate, fluent, and complex language outputs. A similar finding was presented by Kimura (2010), who added that digital storytelling had improved oral aspects, such as pacing, expression and volume, phrasing, and smoothness. When designed as a collaborative task, chances to enhance communicative competence are even higher as students engage in lengthy discussions about each stage of the production.

Because creating a compelling digital story depends mainly on a well-written story, the writing quality of EFL students is expected to improve. Many studies have focused on examining this hypothesis, and positive findings were reported accordingly (Akhyak & Anik, 2013; Buckingham & Alpaslan, 2017).

That said, there still some gaps in digital storytelling scholarship, which this study intends to fill. No previous studies have looked into digital storytelling as a communicative language approach based activity. Thus, this study investigates the effectiveness of digital storytelling through a new lens. Second, because studies are scarce on using digital storytelling in Saudi EFL context, exploring the perspectives and effect of digital storytelling on a new EFL context will consolidate the existing literature.
Research Design and Methods
This study incorporated a case study design which is commonly used in educational research for its potential to generate an in-depth understanding of a specific case in its natural setting. This design enabled the researcher to play the role of the facilitator of the activity.

Multiple qualitative methods were used to obtain answers to the research questions. First is the participant observation, which was chosen over non-participant observation due to the researcher’s role in the study as a facilitator of the activity. The process of observation adopted is what Werner and Schoepfle called descriptive observation (as cited in Angrosino & Depeerez, 2000). The researcher observed everything inside the classroom throughout the 12 weeks of the study without any presumptions.

Besides observation, semi-structured interviews with 20 participants were conducted at the end of the study. Insights drawn from the prolonged involvement in the setting informed the focus of interview questions. Interviews were conducted in Arabic, the language with which students can express themselves well. Finally, students' recordings along with their story scripts were also analysed to assess progress, if any, in their linguistics competence.

Participants and Site
A class of 32 female students at 10th grade participated in this study. The school from which students were drawn is a public school located in the southern region of Saudi Arabia and participants were predominantly Saudis (27) with the remaining from Arab countries, Yemen, Syria, Palestine, and Jordan. The selection of girls-only school as the location to undertake this study was determined by the fact that schools in Saudi Arabia are gender-segregated at secondary grades, which resulted in excluding boys’ schools. The selection of a public school to undertake this study was to achieve typicality of the setting, and hence, make the findings of more applicable to a broader range of educational contexts. However, no specific criteria for selecting specific public girls’ school was used. A request for entry was sent out to various schools located in the researcher’s city, and the selected school expressed an interest in the project and approved the research to be conducted.

Implementation of Digital Storytelling Activity
The activity was implemented in three main phases. First is the preparation phase, which extended over four weeks, with four 40 minutes periods per week. This phase involved different communicative activities such as interaction among group members and collaborative searching and writing. These are the topics participants came up with for their stories: the war in Arab countries, memorable moments, friendship, my role model, and racism. Each member of the group contributed a reflection, personal experience, or viewpoint to the selected topic. Next, using a template storyboard, students chose what multimedia elements best convey the meaning of the story.

The second phase was the production of the stories using an editing platform called WeVideo. For six weeks (four, 40 minutes sessions per week), participants weaved narrations of their stories, photos, background sounds, and hypertext to produce personal, compelling stories. This stage involved various communicative activities such as story narration, discussion among
group members and between participants and the instructor over the selection of supporting multimedia elements.

![Screen shot of WeVideo](https://www.wevideo.com)

Figure 1 Typical layout of the advanced editing mode

The final phase included presenting the stories to the class, discussing the topics, and giving and receiving feedback. Stories were also published online on YouTube. Below are the links to these stories: the war in Arab countries\(^1\), racism \(^2\), my role model \(^3\), Friendship \(^4\), and memorable moments\(^5\).

**“WeVideo” as the tool for digital stories creation**

WeVideo (https://www.wevideo.com) was selected among the plethora of digital storytelling tools available for its unique features. It is a cloud-based platform for video editing and sharing. It is widespread in schools for purposes like formative assessment and project-based learning. It offers unlimited use of hundreds of thousands of licensed and royalty-free video clips, images, and soundtracks. It also has two options for video editing: a basic mode for beginners and a more sophisticated mode for high-tech students. WeVideo, moreover, facilitates initiating a collaborative work, managing addition of members, and monitoring each student's contribution. This collaborative feature also helps teachers assign roles for group members, which provides students with clear responsibilities, ensures equal contribution to the project and a higher likelihood of completion.

**Findings and Discussion**

This part presents the findings relevant to each research question and discusses these findings considering the existing literature.
Findings relevant to students’ perspectives about using digital storytelling in EFL classroom

Owing to some factors, when participants were asked about their experience of using digital storytelling as a learning tool in the English language classroom, they unanimously expressed their positive impression and acceptability of the activity. The following were the most recurring factors.

**Autonomous Learning**

Participants valued that they were in control of their learning and in position to make autonomous decisions during each step of the activity. For example, during the pre-production stage, participants chose their group members, about what topics they wrote their stories, and what multimedia elements to include. That degree of control over learning enhanced participants' problem-solving and critical thinking and empowered them to make responsible decisions. Some examples of participants making sound decisions out of their sense of autonomy and responsibility were, first, when they were asked to choose their members. They made sure to include at least one with advanced English level and one technical expert so that they could accomplish the requirements of producing English digital stories. The potential of digital storytelling to enhance students’ autonomy, as reported in this study, mirrors the concept promoted by Black (2007) and Lam (2004; 2006) that a technology-enhanced environment is an effective way to enhance autonomous learning.

**Cooperative Learning**

Besides, students appreciated the cooperative aspect of the activity, which created a sense of belonging and relatedness they needed to feel secure and understood. Cooperative learning served different purposes. One participant, for example, commented: “Groups are nice and helpful like putting pictures together or editing the clips we are talking about”. Another participant added that collaboration strengthens relationships: "Our involvement in the achievement of one activity did not only make us motivated, but we also got to know each other well".

This sense of connectedness was also reflected in the topics participants chose for their stories. For example, the majority of participants whose story was about “War in Arab countries” were immigrants, one Yamani and three Syrians, another group chose to write about “friendship” as they were friends since primary school.

**Communicative Activities**

Participants expressed their gratitude that the activity allowed them to use their English resources. Following quotes illustrate this point: "I honestly liked this activity, it was a nice opportunity, we benefited from it, and we developed the confidence to talk in class", "It was amazing, and it gave me the ability to speak more English".

Moreover, participants’ favourable comments about digital storytelling allowing them to communicate inside the classroom were often combined with complaints about the current instructional approach. When they were asked about teaching methods the teacher implements into the classroom, answers explained participants’ extremely low communicative competence. Instruction still heavily depends on the grammar-translation method, which put minimal emphasis on communication and giving students abundant chance to use their linguistics resources. Instead,
Digital Storytelling as a Communicative Language Teaching

this language teaching approach focuses primarily on memorising grammatical rules and new words, and translating from and into the target language. As the participants put it: “we repeat speech”, “there is no cooperative learning, role plays”, “She asks us questions, and that is it… she sometimes asks us to form a group and write a report or something”, “She tells us something in Arabic and asks us to translate it.”

Participants were disappointed with their low communicative competence and awareness of the importance to demonstrate high language proficiency. They believed because language learning occurs primarily in the classroom, activities like digital storytelling which provide opportunities to use the target language in a meaningful communication would improve their communicative competence.

Relevancy of Topic

The majority of participants highlighted how personalisation was crucial to their positive perception of the activity. This aspect, however, of the activity was more significant to some participants than others. One participant, for example, was brought up by her mother, which instilled a deep appreciation in herself for her mother. According to this participant, the video was "an expression of love and to tell her I am proud to be her daughter". Other students found, in digital storytelling, the means through which they can express their suffering and liberate their negative feelings. One Syrian participant, who had immigrated with her family to Saudi Arabia, commented: "We loved participating, and I liked talking about the Syrian war and the circumstances we are currently living". Another participant, who escaped devastation in her country, Yemen, echoed this impression: "Indeed, this project allows us to share our longing to where we belong, where our loved ones are, and where we want to grow up". Being enabled to communicate their personal stories not only to their classmates but to the broader audience on the internet, participants felt there is meaning to their learning.

Findings relevant to the aspects of communicative competence digital storytelling activity improved in students

Analysis of classroom observations and participants’ recording of their narrations reveal a positive impact on their communicative competence, which is consistent with findings from previous studies (Oskoz & Elola, 2016). The discussion to follow will focus on the aspects that received a noticeable improvement.

Phonological Competence

Improvement in phonology, including pronunciation, rhythm, and intonation, though not immense, was notable. This outcome can be ascribed to the prolonged time participants spent repeating their recordings until they are satisfied with the narration. The majority of the participants were so nervous about this step. One participant pleaded: "Please, I do not want to record; my pronunciation is horrible; I do not want to read my story out loud". The recording step revealed how unsatisfying was the phonological aspect of students. At first, their hesitation was thought to be normal because people usually hate their voices recorded. Later on, when students began recording, it was evident that their awareness of their poor pronunciation was, mostly, the reason.
At the end of the activity, when participants were asked which skill this activity enhanced the most, they responded: “I learned how to speak English well”. Another added: “it helped me read, the words were a bit hard, but repetition made them easier”. Several phonological mistakes persisted to the final recording, as can be noticed on their videos. However, participants managed to enhance a great deal of their phonological competence throughout the narration process.

**Grammatical Competence**

This activity has enhanced the grammatical knowledge of participants including verb-subject agreement, use of connectors and verb tense has considerably. This outcome can be explained by participants' involvement in the constant correction of any spotted grammatical mistakes in their story scripts. The collaborative aspect of digital storytelling activity has also contributed to the improvement of grammatical accuracy in participants’ writing. Researchers found out that task type, in this case, collaborative writing, yield more accurate writing due to cooperation between students in editing. Figure 2 shows some grammatical mistakes in the first draft, which the participant recognised and corrected in their next draft following the instructor’s feedback.

*Figure 2 Example of grammatical mistakes in participants’ writing*

**Lexical Competence**

Digital storytelling activity has also enhanced another aspect of communicative competence that was related to their lexical competence. Digital storytelling was an implicit way of vocabulary development, which is more effective in teaching vocabulary than explicit instruction (Doughty, 2003 & Ellis, 1989). Unlike explicit vocabulary teaching which depends on activities that require participants to memorise vocabulary words in decontextualised context, acquiring of new vocabulary words is embedded in the process of participants’ searching for words to express their meaning.
Figure 3 shows samples of participants’ scripts which reveals their use of new words as they needed to tell their stories. Because participants still do not know the correct pronunciation by heart, they underline these words and use Arabic letters representing their pronunciation.

Figure 3 Students’ strategy to know the pronunciation of new words

Conclusion

In light of the findings of this study, it concludes that digital storytelling was a good fit for the communicative language teaching approach. This activity provided EFL learners with ample chances to practice their productive and receptive skills using authentic, personal materials. Also, the collaborative feature of this activity facilitated more communication and use of the target language inside the classroom. More importantly, this activity was an implicit approach to enhance participants’ linguistic competence, which, in most cases, is more effective than direct and explicit teaching of grammar.

In terms of the effect of digital storytelling on EFL learners’ communicative competence, results were promising. Providing more communication opportunities, making learning more meaningful, and focusing on different competences all fed into some tangible improvement of these aspects. However, it must be noted that significant development in language proficiency cannot be reached through the mere adoption of any classroom intervention during a short period. Therefore, it is recommended to integrate this activity into the EFL curriculum for more significant and persistent results.

Moreover, teachers need to consider some points to ensure effective integration and maximum benefit of digital storytelling activity inside EFL classrooms. For example, teachers should ensure internet accessibility and availability of necessary software and hardware. Of equal importance is teachers’ awareness of the level of language proficiency of students and use this knowledge to guide the design of the activity. Time allocated to the steps of the activity also varies from context to another, depending on the participants’ digital competence.
Finally, this study uncovers some possible future research areas. First, because this study was conducted on a small scale, it can be extended through selecting a larger population and assessing the effect during a more extended period. Another way of extending this study can be using quantitative methods to assess the effect on different aspects of communicative competence to yield more accurate results.

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http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/9780470756492.ch10


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Teachers’ Roles Beyond and Within the Context: An Ever-Changing Concept

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Abstract
The research aims to explore what the teachers know and believe about their rights and responsibilities in a teaching profession and what the realities that reflect the inconsistencies between their beliefs and actions. The research mainly investigates how the vertical segregation in educational institutions along with the demographic and cultural issues impacts the teachers’ roles in a variety of contexts. For collecting data about how the teachers view their roles within and beyond the classrooms, two campuses of King Khalid University were selected, and the research methods involved the online survey of the teachers and the interviews of the focus group. The study shows that a cooperative working environment, crystal clear organizations’ policies, stimulating carrier paths, and professional recognition motivate the teachers to play their roles on a broader scale. The study also reveals that the educational organizations do not endorse a culture of leadership for every level of management though, teachers as professionals of mid-level management immensely contribute to learners in being skilled, knowledgeable, and resourceful.

KeyWords: context, lesson, modern education, schematic knowledge, teacher development, teachers’ roles

Introduction
With the continuing development of the pedagogical approaches in teaching, the roles of teachers have always been subject to be defined in new ways. Teachers nowadays are bewildered with so many duties and responsibilities that they often get confused in demarcating the areas of their roles. Many teachers do not see the paradigm shift in the era of modern education. They do not change their basic teaching techniques over the years except to include or exclude a few steps or materials in their teaching-learning activities. A good number of teachers also believe that the essential tool of teaching is having a profound erudition in the subject matter they teach. In other words, they undermine the involvement of different new approaches that have emerged in teaching over time and thus fail to embrace the paradigm shift in teachers' roles. Nowadays, teachers have much broader responsibilities of developing learning materials and exercises, designing learning environments and activities, facilitating critical and creative thinking, and there is increasing pressure on them to play active roles in meeting the learning goals. The teaching profession, by its nature, sets an ethical standard to the teachers not confining themselves only in the topics of syllabuses that we expect them to cover within a stipulated time frame. It means teachers will have to do some other jobs for ensuring all-round development of learners. Many teachers are good at covering syllabuses, giving examinations, and publishing results, but they are not willing to go beyond their in-built narrow boundaries to perform other responsibilities. That is, indeed, a kind of a cutthroat commercial attitude that persuades them to adhere to the old tradition of presenting lessons with introductions, a list of dos and don'ts, required textbooks, and expectations. Quality teaching requires some additional services that are voluntarily supplemented by teachers to the teaching-learning activities.

Objectives
The main objective is to investigate how teachers deal with diverse learners to meet their learning goals. The other objectives of the study are as follows:
- To explore how teachers can cope up with the variables: learning styles, learning environment, materials, and learners' performances.
- To investigate if teachers are aware of what their job is, what learners can do, and how they should work.
- To identify if teachers help learners see the practical benefit of learning or simply focus on helping learners earn credits for graduation.

The Rationale of the Study
The roles of teachers are often viewed and interpreted differently in different cultures across the globe, and those differences define teachers' responsibilities and determine the nature of their relationship with other external factors of the communities they belong to. The study shows that the problem arises when we do not treat the teachers as core professionals to whom the nation entrusts its children daily for their learning and intellectual developments. The study is significant as it has brought out the fact that the policymakers of educational institutions tend to separate the teachers from the holistic management process. However, the teachers' involvement encompasses not only educational issues but also moral and economic issues.

The study will help teachers introspect themselves with fresh insight and redefine their professional commitments both in and out of the classrooms. The study manifests that the ways...
the teachers talk, give classes, interact and react, reflect their cultural backgrounds, and if they cannot be cosmopolitan and culturally sensitive as well, they distance themselves from the learners, the parents, and the management.

**Research Question**

The study has been framed around the following question.

1. How do teachers view their roles in different contexts?

**Literature Review**

Traditionally, a teacher is supposed to be an absolute authority in a class. A classroom environment and learning activities are affected mainly by a teacher's characteristic traits, beliefs, and modes of teaching. He can be quite dictatorial or lenient in conferring autonomy to learners to help them take the responsibilities of their learning. He may not empower learners under the apprehension of losing control over them, or he may shift to or share with learners the responsibilities required for the maximum learning outcome. Rogers (1994) (Scrivener, 2011) stresses that respect (a positive and non-judgmental regard for another person), empathy (being able to see things from the other person's perspective as if looking through their eyes) and authenticity (being oneself without hiding behind job titles, roles, and masks) are the three core characteristics that help create an active learning environment. These attributes of teachers can be critical factors in framing their roles in classes. Teachers endowed with these attributes can create a learning environment in which learners feel relaxed and comfortable to take part in something worthwhile. Teachers having these qualities can boost up learners' enthusiasm and confidence; consequently, learners become autonomous and articulate in their needs and interests. The problem is that these are intangible qualities of a human being; therefore, these cannot be identified concretely before certifying someone as a teacher. If a teacher lacks any of these qualities, he needs to teach it to put it into practice and to ensure his role as a teacher. The competency or incompetency of a teacher is reflected through the way he deals with his learners and the positive or negative way he faces the challenges that crop up every day in his professional life.

For the professional development teachers are provided with on-the-job training from time to time by experts. To emphasize the teachers' role and their professional development Ur (2005, p. 385) remarks 'Teachers do not simply implement the curriculum. They define and refine the curriculum; they interpret and transform the curriculum in a way that makes learning more manageable for learners. In other words, it is what teachers think and do at the classroom level that eventually determines what learners learn in the class. Thus, given the key role of the teachers in the classroom, it is imperative that professional growth a top priority'. The expert trainers delegate tasks and responsibilities to teachers through a top-down approach, which, in many cases, is difficult for teachers to execute as the challenges faced by them in a particular context can be unique. The problems can be very much related to localism, demand, and supply of resources, existing administrative bottlenecks, socioeconomic status, and level of motivation of both learners and teachers. Experts must study the constraints that stand supreme as academic challenges in an educational context before providing training to teachers. Garside (2019) in his recent study has mentioned that the traditional form of teacher training and development activity, where an 'expert in the field' arrives at the school or training center, delivers a week or so of training input to local teachers and then disappears at the end of his contracted time, is ineffective in the long term.
his research Garside (2019) has further mentioned that the 'Jet-In-Jet-Out Expert' model has several drawbacks: It typically assumes a 'deficit' in the local teaching setting, implying that the educational environment, methodologies, and resources suggested by the visiting expert are somehow better than those used by the participant teachers in their everyday context. These reduce the power that participant teachers have over the realistic daily challenges that they face.

The realities of teaching-learning situations may have a negative or positive impact on the roles of teachers. The realities may constrict their dynamicity or leverage their skills and strengths. Without taking into consideration the socio-cultural backgrounds and the psychological factors of all participants in a teaching and learning process, pedagogical training provided to teachers may increase their awareness theoretically, but, practically they may not find them suitable for the teaching-learning context. Garside (2019) has pointed out that without significant amounts of groundwork before the training event, it is likely that the visiting 'expert' will not understand the challenges that participant teachers face. So training will often not be felt relevant to the teachers who attend.

The training provided to the teachers helps them use some strategies to cope with the desirable and undesirable situations, but according to Scrivener (1994), teachers cannot role-play 'respect' or any other qualities if these qualities are not rooted at the level of your genuine intention. He remarks that respect or sympathy or authenticity is not a cloth to put on as they walk into the classroom, not temporary characteristics that they take on for the duration of their lesson. It is their attitude and intention rather than their methodology that they need to work on.

In respect of cognitive skills and learning styles, learners are different, and they bring to a learning situation their schemata, different beliefs, habits and attitudes, and the right amount of life experiences. Scrivener (1994) has mentioned that students may bring pen and paper to the lesson. Still, they also bring a whole range of other, less visible things to class: their needs, their wishes, their life experience, their home background, their memories, their worries, their day so far, their dreams, their anger, their toothache, their fears, their moods, etc. Those heterogeneities of learners necessitate the learner-centered approach. According to Nunan (1991), the approach contrasts with the 'doctor-knows-best' approach which, while it might acknowledge that learners have different preferences and beliefs, discounts these on the grounds that the teacher is the expert and that the learners' views are irrelevant.

Teachers should invest time in preparing effective lesson plans. Purgason (2014) points out that writing up a lesson plan before the lesson is a way to discipline one’s mind to think about the class in advance. He has also mentioned that knowing one’s teaching context, students, and personal philosophy is a good foundation for lesson planning. Writing reflective can help teachers prepare more effective lesson plans for the follow-up classes. Purgason (2014) explains that after that class, even though teachers have many urgent things to attend to, it is vital to engage in one more bit of reflection. Going back over the lesson plan to assess what happened is a way to build up lesson-planning skills for the future.

Teachers need to invent activities and include them in lesson plans to keep learners engaged, all thorough, and simultaneously careful about the language they use while talking to
learners. Nunan (1991) points out that teacher talk is of crucial importance not only for the organization of the classroom but also for acquisition. The amount of talk time is also significant though according to Nunan (1991) whether or not it is a good thing for teachers to spend 70 or 80 percent of class time talking will depend on the objective of a lesson and where it fits into the overall scheme or course or program. The communication styles of teachers speak volumes for their culture, and it influences learners to a greater extent. Futterman (2015) describes that teachers cannot escape the fact that their communication "styles" reflect their cultural background. Much of what they say, the way they say it, and their relationship with students, parents, and colleagues are deeply influenced by the way they have been socialized. Developing a strong relationship with learners can enhance learning, as Christenson (2017) says that educators who build trust with their students will be able to push them further. He says if students know that their teachers genuinely care about their academic and personal success and are willing to work with them to meet their goals, they are more likely to take those extra steps. According to Murdoch (1994), the teacher is no longer expected to orchestrate and dominate all work in the classroom. He indicates that a teacher role is defined more in terms of a facilitator who sets up conditions and activities that will make it possible for students to operate with language because they have a real interest in the outcome of the tasks.

Methodology
The concurrent mixed methods were used to carry on the research. The data were collected during one phase of the study at roughly the same time but analyzed separately and independently. (Creswell & Clark, 2017). In the discussion, the quantitative results and the qualitative results were combined to show if the results of the quantitative study and the qualitative study agree or disagree. (Creswell & Clark, 2017).

Instruments
The research was carried out by using the following tools.

Questionnaires
Questionnaires consisting of ten close-ended questions were prepared to elicit information from thirty teachers of two different campuses. The respondents did them voluntarily and anonymously.

Interview of the focus group
There were in total of six focus groups from two campuses, and each of them consisted of five teachers. The individual group was formed through random assignment. The semi-structured interview was held in an informal setting in a manner of discussion. There were ten predetermined, but open-ended questions asked to each group, and other questions arose in the following conversations. The required data were recorded by jotting them down.
**Procedures**

The quantitative survey was done online, and in the same period, the qualitative interviews were held. The same sample sizes were used to collect data, and the data were merged in the discussion.

**Data Presentation**

**Data from questionnaires**

The close-ended questionnaires, each of which consists of ten questions, were distributed among the teachers, and the respondents were asked to choose any of the three options, viz., (a) *Yes*, (b) *No*, (c) *Sometimes*.

The first question asked to the teachers as if they think that students should be silent for the smooth transmission of knowledge. The table shows that the majority of the respondents (66.67%) prefer students to be quiet in classes, and that indicates a traditional teacher dominated approach. Seven (23.33%) reported that they sometimes like it, and only three (10%) prefer their students not to be silent (see Appendix).

The second question was if it is essential to give an elaborate explanation of a topic for assessing learners' prior knowledge about it, all the teachers (100%) responded positively, which in fact, dismisses the possibility of eliciting context or using concept checking techniques for drawing the learners out (see Appendix).

The third question was intended to understand the teachers' preferred leadership style to manage classes. The majority (70%) of the teachers preferred becoming tough leaders. It indicates that they believe in a zero-tolerance policy to set a standard of learners' behavior. Seven (23%) went for the option sometimes. That suggests that they can be either authoritarian or authoritative. Only two (7%) did not prefer to be tough leaders (see Appendix).

Answer to the fourth question indicates that the majority of the teachers (90%) want their students to talk only when it is necessary. It indicates teachers' domination in classroom discourses in which the learners play only the roles of respondents. Three (10%) went with the option no, which manifests they maximize learners' talk time. No one went with the option sometimes (see Appendix).

In reply to the question, if learners needed to be helped throughout their learning activities majority (77%) of them replied yes, which might indicate a wrong approach as it detracts from the qualities of teachers as facilitators or monitors to help learners be independent and discover their potentials. Seven (23%) went with the option sometimes, and none was opting for no (see Appendix).

The sixth question was if they play other roles beyond the classroom, and the majority (73%) of them replied positively. No respondent was going with the option no, but eight (27%) respondents reported that they sometimes play roles outside the classroom (see Appendix).
The table shows twenty (67%) of the teachers think the exercises that come with textbooks are not enough to meet the learning goals and which implies the necessity of developing materials to support their instructional activities and demands critical reviews of the textbooks taught. Eight (27%) found the exercises of the textbooks enough for teaching, and only two (6%) went with the option sometimes (see Appendix).

From the answer to question number eight, it is evident that the majority (60%) of the teachers do not only stick to the topic while teaching. It indicates that they tend to cover a lot of items in one sitting without focusing on developing a particular skill of the learners. Nine (30%) respondents went with option sometimes. Only three (10%) are found to be stick to the aim that the learners are expected to achieve by the end of the lessons (see Appendix).

In response to the ninth question, if the period for each class is enough for conducting all their activities, fifteen (50%) found the length of a period is quite perfect. Six (20%) found the period not sufficient at all, and nine (30%) went with the option sometimes, and both of which are the indicators of their improper time management and unplanned lessons (see Appendix).

In response to the last question, if they should learn new techniques to build a relationship with learners, all (100%) answered positively (see Appendix). It indicates that they consider student-teacher relationships necessary for transferring knowledge and skill. Still, they need continuous professional training and carry out more action researches to enrich their practices.

**Data from the focus group**

The interviews were held in a manner of discussion, and the participants responded to the unstructured and the follow-up questions that were intended to elicit their ideas about teachers' roles. They mention that they base their lessons on eclectic approaches. Still, considering the students' socio-cultural backgrounds, their aptitude, attitude, levels of education, and the programs enrolled, they usually become selective in methodologies. The teacher talk time and the students' talk time vary based on the teachers' plans for lessons, whether they are going to allot more time for presenting the lessons through lecturing or restrict their talk only to the important areas by allowing the students to work together and think aloud. In all circumstances, whether the learners are in group work or pair work, they are strictly monitored, and the majority of them prefer the students to talk only when it is necessary. The teacher roles, in a broader perspective, encompass many responsibilities, institutional and non-institutional, entrusted to them by the educational organizations, the community and the society they live or belong. But they opine it requires overall organizational planning and cooperation among the all stakeholders to provide them with positive motivations to discharge those duties. Though most of them prefer to be tough leaders for dealing with management problems, few teachers like to change their leadership styles according to the circumstances. All the respondents of the six groups gave a unanimous opinion regarding the importance of being helpful in the classes so that the learners might feel supported, accepted, and honored. They opine that repeating the textbooks with PowerPoint lectures or relying solely on the presentations provided in the textbooks is not always relevant to the students’ existing knowledge and ideas. In that case, they need to add more learning activities to the lessons.
An excellent textbook has many useful tools, and based on those they create personalized exercises. However, while teaching basic skill courses, the activities are confined to explaining, giving handouts, demonstrating, and drilling. The teachers report that they hardly maintain any relationship with the students outside the classes. They think the cultural differences in the workplace pose challenges to the teachers of different nationalities, but at the same time, that diverseness can be very useful in a learning environment as they bring their unique knowledge and skills to serve a single goal. To empower the teachers as leaders and connect the classroom to the learners' homes and community, parent involvement in an educational institution is indispensable. Parent engagement bridges the gap between them and encourages the teachers to act on behalf of the parents. The teachers mentioned that though the parents are found to be worried about the grades of their children, they hardly communicate with the teachers for knowing the updates of their academic performances and achievements. The teachers reveal that their interactions with the students are quite mundane, and the students mainly focus on getting good grades but with minimum time and effort rather than on accumulating knowledge and expanding their worldviews. They think that teachers' duties are planning lessons, giving classes and examinations, assessing and grading their performance, and that reflects their narrow view of the teachers' roles. They like the teachers who are lenient in giving good marks, and because of their culture biasedness and variation, they believe that teachers should be generous in helping them in all cases, including their examination grades. The teachers said that using cultural stereotypes by both of the students and the teachers often hindered the development of trust and understanding between them, restricted the promising areas they could have jointly ventured. They felt the necessity of developing new skills and strategies through continuous professional training and revising and redesigning the generic plans to create responsive classrooms.

Findings

Within 60 minutes of a period, a teacher is to perform multiple tasks that include taking attendance, checking the educational aids and the instructional materials, building rapport with learners and organizing a class, recapping the previous lessons, introducing a new lesson, and conducting related learning activities. The findings revealed that most of the teachers lacked adequate planning for transitioning sequentially from one activity to the other. The discursive styles in teaching, in most of the cases, does not fit in well with the struggling learners for whom needed thoughtful planning and extra attention. Besides, the teaching and the learning activities that are tended to be desultory derail the objectives and the aim of the lessons. The factors like learning styles, learners' mindset, level of motivation, social and cultural backgrounds that affect a lesson plan are scarcely taken into account. The coverage oriented plans that cram a good amount of stuff into individual lessons constrict the activities of learners and slow down their progress.

It appeared that sometime the teachers judged the learners through the lens of their cultural orientation, and thus they minimized the possibility of bridging the gap between them and the learners. To many of the teachers, conferring autonomy to the learners in a particular cultural context is like losing the control of a class and turning the class into a chaotic place. In a classroom interaction, teachers' talk or lecture dominates roughly in between 70 % to 80% of the class time. It indicated that teachers' talk time constituted a significant portion of the teaching-learning activity, sparing little time for students to talk.
It is always an issue of how much autonomy the teachers should give to the learners. That is a kind of independence that encourages learners to take charge of their learning. It was noticed that the teachers preferred to use shortcuts to help the students get good grades. While giving direct instruction, it is good to assist the learners who have difficulties in understanding concept or intellectual disabilities. However, the evidence shows that the teachers use a limited number of strategies to make those learners self-directed. It seemed that the teachers' role was only to teach the learners the curriculum content rather than the strategies about how to learn. It appears that many teachers do not integrate the other learning resources into the textbooks to boost up the learners' participation in the class. Not developing learning materials or not using other educational aids to supplement the textbooks' contents constricted the creativeness of teaching, and therefore, the teachers fail to excite the attention of the learners.

The typical portrayal of the teachers' image inside and outside the classrooms rarely influences the learners to achieve the leadership attributes that are essential for establishing a collaborative culture. The study found that the attitude of the managerial hierarchy had a significant impact on building rapport among the stakeholders. The vertical relationship provided the teachers with a little scope to improve their interpersonal skills and grow as leaders.

**Discussion and Interpretation**

In this study, the close-ended questions were intended to determine what kind of knowledge and beliefs the teachers had regarding their roles in different contexts and what they practiced. The attitudinal factors of the teachers set the boundaries for playing their roles beyond and within the context. The facts implied in the first five questions give the impression that most of the teachers prefer authoritarian leadership style, which, they think, is suitable for disciplining the students and ensuring a peaceful environment in the classes. According to Fullan (2001), the elements of authoritative leadership help. Enthusiasm, self-confidence, optimism, and clarity of vision can all inspire people to keep going. The problems start when they are only authoritative or only affiliative or only a coach. The fear of losing control of the classes or the fear of failing to establish a stern self-image and lack of self-efficacy or skills predispose many teachers to behave dictatorially. Fullan (2001) explains that a more coercive stance may be necessary at the beginning if they face an urgent, crisis-ridden situation. Elements of different leadership styles must be learned and used in different situations. (Goleman, 2000 cited in Fullan 2001). Teachers, as leaders, will use different leadership styles based on their duties and responsibilities in different situations. In a particular context, they may frequently change their leadership styles to suit the needs of the learners, and the same ideas are confirmed by Fullan (2001) that it requires combining elements that do not easily and comfortably go together. Leaders should have good ideas and present them well (the authoritative element) while at the same time seeking and listening to doubters (aspects of democratic leadership). They must try to build good relationships (be affiliative) even with those who may not trust them. The result of the quantitative survey questions also reveals that the teachers tend to apply some conventional methodological approaches which do not always address the needs of the learners. In fact, with so many different approaches and methods available, many teachers are unsure of which to choose and how to go about making that choice (Harmer, 2010). The next three questions were intended to know about their views on the scopes and the areas of their activities and their cultural orientations. From the study, it was found that the teachers' cultural orientation, organizational behaviors, and the availability of useful teaching and learning
resources are the three major issues that impact their motivation, interest, performance, interpersonal skill, and leadership. Performance appraisals and offering rewards to the teachers widen their areas of interest, and consequently, they intend to play roles beyond or within the context. According to a report from the OECD (2013), teacher appraisal can be a key lever for increasing the focus on teaching quality and continuous professional development for teachers, in keeping with the growing recognition that the quality of teaching affects student learning outcomes. The report of OECD (2013) also says that highly visible teacher appraisal also provides opportunities to incentivize, recognize, and reward teaching competence and high performance. The last two questions were asked for knowing their classroom preparedness and their understanding of the importance of self-appraisal or self-reflection that help them align their goals and objectives with those of their educational institutions. The survey result shows that they should explore new strategies for their time and class management and building rapport with the learners. Hermer (2007) has pointed out that one approach for context-sensitive teachers is to try to create a bridge between their methodological beliefs and the students' preferences.

The qualitative research questions were intended to obtain in-depth information about how the teachers viewed their roles in different contexts. The majority of the teachers report that at the tertiary level, the mature age students enroll and transmitting the content knowledge to them; lecturing without interruption is essential. Delegation of power and authority to the learners to help them be self-directed in taking the responsibilities of their learning is virtually absent as most of their learning take place in charge of them. They mention that the culture of both the learners and the educational institution influences their leadership styles and demarcates their areas of work. The students are concerned with the content knowledge taught and learned in different academic courses and with getting good grades in them. So, affective teaching that includes feelings, values, appreciation, enthusiasms, motivations, and attitudes (Krathwohl, Bloom, & Masia, 1964) hardly has any effect on them. For introducing a new topic, they usually give some time to the students for reading the topic, and then they discuss the topic at large occasionally with visual presentations. Most of the teachers emphasized visual presentations for introducing new items, and that usually takes a longer time to warm up the students. During presenting and discussing the topic, they frequently ask questions to the students to check if they are on track and making progress. They end the discussion by asking students if they have learned the lessons and need any further explanations for better understanding. Most of the teachers opined that they should use other educational resources as the contents of the textbooks are, in many cases, not compatible with the learners' general, thematic, or socio-cultural knowledge. Alshammari (2015) has brought out a similar fact in her research. She has mentioned that English courses are based almost entirely on U.S. textbooks, which typically do not give any consideration to the Arabic or Islamic culture, and contrast sharply with the traditions and values of the Saudi lifestyle though according to Al-Saadat the introduction of these texts is not an attempt to 'shrug off foreign culture,' but rather to make it more acceptable to the locals (Elyas, 2011, as cited in Alshammari, 2015). The teachers mentioned that the fixed curriculum controlled centrally hardly delegate power to them to add or take away any lessons from the lesson plans that are expected to cover within the allotted time frame. Many
teachers argued that implementing a lesson plan effectively within the fixed period depends on many external and internal features. The external features mainly include the two things: the availability of resources and the physical environment of the classrooms. The internal features that intensively affect the lesson plan include the fixed habits and the level of motivation of the teachers and the learners, the teaching styles, the learning styles, the teachers’ content knowledge, and their preparation for coping with the anticipated problems and the learner profile. All of the teachers viewed that the in-service trainings, and the development of cooperative culture in the institutions could infuse them with qualities that would help them close the gap between the two groups of people, teachers, and students.

The two types of data were used to examine facets of the same phenomenon (Creswell & Clark, 2017), and they were needed to develop a complete understanding. (Witten et al., 2006, as cited in Creswell & Clark, 2017). It is found that the results of the quantitative data discussed in the first paragraph and the results of the qualitative data addressed in the second paragraph are complementary to each other.

**Pedagogical Implications**

The teachers' two key attributes, passion, and patience are affected mainly by some factors, such as job stress and environment, non-cooperative and inaccessible management, non-recognition of hard work, job insecurity, learners' biasedness and so on. Some teachers may have a higher level of social cognition, and they can embrace all the challenges gracefully. Still, both the positive and the negative experiences may affect the behavior of an individual. There should be a culture in educational institutions that will help all employees build a team spirit in which teachers will feel motivated, appreciated, and useful. To increase the productivity of teachers, ensure their active roles in different context, make them fit to handle adversities and backward learners; the emotional and the behavioral stabilities of teachers are paramount essential, and that should be addressed by providing them with constant professional training and offering them rewards and recognitions.

It is the responsibility of teachers to develop class profiles so that they can differentiate their instructions based on the information about learners and their learning styles. Both the gifted and the slow learners, if not handled in planned ways, cause troubles in the classes. A deeper understanding of learners' aptitudes, interests, and skills helps teachers set a goal and map out what an entire learning journey will be to reach the goal. Teachers should also study the motivational factors that drive learners to pursue education, and continuously devise and revise their approaches to tap learners' passion and skills and set them up for success.

Many teachers consider giving learners the maximum amount of talk time in classes is a management or behavioral issue rather than an effective and appropriate pedagogical approach for stimulating learners to process thinking, express ideas, and discerning the learners' levels of comprehension. Classroom discourses dominated by learners provide teachers with the clues if learners deserve more supports than they are getting and if teachers need to revise their plans in follow up classes. A high level of professionalism that embodies the attributes such as, supervisory
skill, managerial competencies, self-regulation, resilience in mind, facilitative leadership is required to maximize the learners' talk time and help keep their talk on the right track by ensuring the maximum use of formal academic registers.

If a learner makes an effort to perform, teachers should appreciate him to bring out the best in him. They must develop a behavioral rubric that will grade learners' wit and wisdom, their attendance and attentiveness, preparedness and responsibilities, conduct and cooperation, and so on. Teachers can text or mail appreciation notes to parents about their parental roles in helping learners form academic habits and attain academic excellence and thus make them partners in their teaching-learning journey.

Assessing the learners' needs by using different types of strategies such as diagnostic tests, formative tests, discussion, interviews, observation, analyzing of situational behavior is paramount for planning educational activities, and developing learning materials. Teachers should study and analyze the strengths and the weakness of learners and chalk out the details of their plans about how they are going to deal with the phenomena. The large classes in which a large number of learners are crammed together pose potential challenges to teachers' organizational competencies, and their approaches in those situations may seem wholly insufficient and ineffective. Teachers cannot cope up with the challenges if they do not plan their lessons and design the learning materials in advance. They have to divide learners into groups so that they can collaborate and share their tangible and intangible resources among themselves. Teachers, especially while dealing with closed groups of the same cultural background and similar needs, find it easier to manage the groups by assigning tasks to them and engaging them in brainstorming to solve problems than to monitor or focus individual learners' performances. Teachers must understand when to give learners a greater or lesser degree of freedom and to what extent they will accept the errors of learners.

Teachers need to know the environment in which their students live. They should realize that they are no more the only sources of students' learning. In these days of technological revolution, learners have other sources to take lessons, learn languages, and many of them reasonably feel they owe technology much more than teachers for their learning. The spirit of the age urges teachers to be always on a steep learning curve so that they can minimize the generation gaps.

The teachers, as authentic leaders, will establish rapport with the learners and make them confident in controlling much of their learning by themselves. The governing bodies need to realize that empowering teachers does not mean letting them exert power on learners or access to the matters that do not fall under their responsibilities but to allow their access to the resources for helping them hone their expertise and ultimately take on a leadership role beyond classrooms.

**Conclusion**
The study aimed to know the perceptions of the teachers about their roles in a variety of contexts. The data collected from the mixed-method research revealed that the students' socio-cultural backgrounds, organizational behavior and culture, job security, performance appraisal, and
rewards influenced the teachers’ roles. The findings of the study also showed that the teachers' personalities, their fixed habits, and practices, attitude toward the learners of a particular culture determined their leadership styles and thus restricted or de-restricted the diverse roles that the teaching profession confers to them. It was found that whatever roles played by the teachers were subject to be revised and modified over the years, and the involvement and cooperation of all kinds of stakeholders could truly empower the teachers to bring about the changes needed beyond and within the context.

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References
Agency.


### Appendix

Table 1. **Questionnaire**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questions</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you think the students should be silent for the smooth transmission of knowledge in the class?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>66.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>23.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do you think that explaining before introducing a new subject is always essential for assessing students’ prior knowledge?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think you should be a tough leader to manage classes?</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>50</td>
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<td>20</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
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<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
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<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think students will talk only when it is necessary?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sometimes</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Question</td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-----</td>
<td>----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think students should be helped throughout their learning activities?</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you play other roles beyond your role as a teacher?</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think the exercises that come with textbooks are enough to meet the learning goals?</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you always stick to the subject matter while teaching?</td>
<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td>Do you think the period of each class is enough for conducting all your planned activities?</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you think that for building a relationship with students, you need to learn new techniques?</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Perception of Saudi EFL Learners and Teachers towards the Use of Listening Transcript in the Listening Lessons

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Abstract
Undergraduate learners learning English in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia often complain that they face problems in understanding audios played in their listening skills’ classroom. Audio materials are recorded by native English speakers at a speedy pace with challenging linguistic or content input in unfamiliar or less familiar contexts or situations. As it is observed in classes of listening skills, listening materials are more focused on teaching test instead of teaching listening acquisition. Teachers play the audios, students do a variety of exercises and activities (fill-in-the-blanks, multiple-choice, short writing questions, matching and pronunciation practice), and conclude the lesson with ‘right/wrong’ feedbacks or shift to teaching another skill. In both cases, listening lessons provide insufficient internalization of comprehensible input. The present study explored perceptions of Saudi English as a Foreign Language (EFL) undergraduates and EFL teachers towards the use of ‘Listening Transcript’ (LT) in lessons of listening skills. It investigates if LT help students in overcoming the difficulties that they face in bottom-up processing and top-down processing and what EFL teachers think about the pedagogical value of LT and ways of using it in the lessons of listening skills. It is a mixed method of research. It employs survey to collect quantitative data in the form of a 15-item questionnaire of 60 female Saudi undergraduates and a semi-structured interview of 10 EFL teachers in King Khalid University (KKU), Abha, Saudi Arabia to gather qualitative data. The result of the study shows that LT plays a more decisive role in developing bottom-up skills like identifying segmental suprasegmental features of speech, recognizing words, recalling information, relating with real life, selecting words, restating and explaining the content than developing top-down skills (high order skills) like distinguishing information, comparing and contrasting, judging, and formulating your learning. The study finds there is a need for designing strategies to use LT more creatively and powerfully.

Keywords: Bottom-up processing, listening comprehension, listening transcript, Saudi EFL learners, top-down processing

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Introduction

Listening transcript (LT) is a powerful tool that students can use to control their learning if they find listening audios to be too fast or face problems in vocabulary, grammar, pronunciation or are unfamiliar with the information in the listening texts. Similarly, EFL teachers can use LT to support EFL students in acquiring bottom-up and top-down skills. They can also employ it to supply comprehensible input. LT is a written record of the speech initially presented in audio. It can be both in printed or digital form. It can also be subtitled with the video displaying the uttered speech on the screen or presenting the whole transcript on the side of the video.

This research paper explores King Khalid University English as Foreign Language (EFL) students' perceptions towards the use of the printed version of LT and analyzes EFL teachers’ opinions on how LT adds pedagogical value to listening lessons. The study is conducted at the University Center for Girls' Studies at Al-Samer, in King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia, with Saudi female undergraduates. The primary rationale behind this research is to support Saudi EFL learners facing problems in listening comprehension. Almjlad (2017) found that lack of prior knowledge regarding the listening topic, loss of concentration, and challenging accents are the top-rated problems followed by unfamiliar words and fast speech of the audio. Depression, distraction, isolation, avoiding listening skill classes, getting the low achievement and performance are other some concerned issues in the listening classes in Saudi Arabia (Oteir & Aziz, 2017). The study assumes that matching all or parts of the audio with LT can develop awareness of form-meaning relationships and word recognition skills (Vandergrift, 2007) and can play a significant role in enhancing listening acquisition and listening comprehension.

In the L2 context of listening, L2 learners receive much less opportunity to hear the target language than L1 learners. According to Information Processing, a theory most commonly used for listening, the first stage of listening is the input that requires much more conscious efforts for L2 reception than for L1, especially in early language learning. The second stage is central processing that involves both the bottom-up and top-down, but bottom-up processing requires a high degree of control of attention until components of L2 knowledge become automatic. Background knowledge may be inappropriate in L2 situation and could account for misunderstanding because of learners’ limited store of phonological, lexical, and grammatical information (Troike, 2006).

Another problem lies in the lessons of listening skills itself as they focus more on testing based on listening than providing input to learners. These lessons do not support sufficiently in enhancing ESL/EFL learners’ language ability. Listening and speaking textbooks are designed around pre-listening, while-listening, and post-listening framework. Such a framework combines top-down and bottom-up processing in which students start with components of the target language, for example, grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation, and apply their non-linguistic knowledge to build comprehension. However, if the learners have limited understanding of the language system and they are unable to decode what phonemic, morphological, and syntactical input they are receiving in audio, merely background knowledge will not work. In this situation, bottom-up processing can help learners to understand enough linguistic elements of what they listen to, and then they will be able to use their top-down skills (Morley, 2019). Close examination of listening materials in listening lessons reveal that they have turned into the testing of listening skills such...
Teaching active listening is more than conducting tests. It involves providing adequate preparation, sufficient support, and appropriate listening tasks, together with positive feedback, error analysis, and remedial action (Sheerin, 1987). Assessment activities are a means, not an end. The ultimate goal is to provide sufficient comprehensible input that can enable learners to acquire the target language. LT is such a useful tool that can support the acquisition of language input. A written transcript is a source of support that enables foreign learners to go back after the initial listening and task completion and understand every word spoken. Following a written transcript is an indispensable part of the comprehension process whereby the relationship between the written language and spoken language, with all its inevitable phonological simplifications, can be perceived and gradually assimilated (Sheerin, 1987).

In this study, Saudi female undergraduates in Intensive English programs at the University Center for Girls’ Studies at Alsamer in King Khalid University received six listening classes with LT before they answered a perception questionnaire. Students’ responses were collected in the form of a survey in a Likert scale. Furthermore, a semi-structured interview of ten EFL (English as a foreign language) teachers was conducted to know how they perceive the use of listening transcripts.

While interviewing EFL teachers at King Khalid University, the researchers found that many of them consider LT a technique to integrate other language skills in language lessons. Some EFL teachers perceived it as a distractor in the aural environment of the listening lessons. Under the exponential growth of technology, the use of LT in different forms has increased, for example, interactive video materials use subtitles to support aural skills of the learners. In the context of this trend, this study looks into the use of the printed version of LT as supportive materials and investigates perceptions of the learners and EFL teachers toward LT. The study will provide insights into various forms of LT in the teaching-learning environment.

**Significance of the Study**

LT is a powerful tool for students because it supports EFL learners in acquiring bottom-up and top-down skills. Students can use it independently at home. EFL teachers can use it as a pedagogical tool to bridge the gap between the target proficiency and low proficient learners. They can also utilize it to enhance input exposure. Since language learning is an integrated process, LT can also add value to other language skills. With this perception about LT, this study investigates how LT helps students in overcoming the difficulties in bottom-up processing and top-down processing in listening skills and what EFL teachers think about the pedagogical value of LT and ways of using it in the listening lessons. This study aims to investigate the perception of Saudi EFL learners and teachers towards the use of LT so it can be used in the classes of listening skills more effectively. This study is useful for language teachers as well as materials designers to adapt LT for its purposeful role in the language learning process.
Literature Review

What is Listening?

Listening process is perceived differently from hearing. Listening is an active process that involves listener voluntarily to make conscious efforts for a two-way interaction between the speaker and the listener while hearing is a passive process that happens automatically and involuntary without requiring engagement and involvement of the listener (Panduranga, 2016). The primary purpose of listening is a meaningful communication and interaction between a speaker and a listener. For this, both speaker and listener require an understanding of the language system, knowledge of the context in which listening is taking place, knowledge of culture, and ability to overcome external barriers like background sounds. Vandergrift (1999) defines listening as:

> Listening comprehension is a complex and active process in which the listener must discriminate between sounds, understand vocabulary and grammatical structures, interpret stress and intonation, retain what was gathered in all of the above, and interpret it within the immediate as well as the larger socio-cultural context of the utterance. (p. 168)

According to Richards and Schmidt (2002), listening comprehension in *Dictionary of Teaching & Applied Linguistic* is:

> The study of listening comprehension process in second language learning focuses on the role of individual linguistic units (e.g., phonemes, words, grammatical structures) as well as the role of the listener’s expectations, the situation and context, background knowledge and the topic. It, therefore, includes both Top-Down processing and Bottom-Up processing. (p. 313)

Rost (2001) defines the term ‘listening’ in a broader perspective. According to him, listening is used in language teaching to refer to a ‘complex process’ that allows learners to understand spoken language. It is often used along with other language skills like speaking, reading, and writing. It is not just a kind of skill in language performance but also a critical means of acquiring a second language (L2). He explains that listening is a ‘complex process’ because it involves ‘bottom-up processing’ and ‘top-down processing’. Both processes are assumed to take place at various levels of cognitive organization: phonological, grammatical, lexical and propositional. This complex process is often described as a ‘parallel processing model’ (Rost, 2001).

According to Kumar, Sen, and Eapen (1995), when a listener solely depends on the received input for the meaning of the message, this process is called bottom-up processing. The input is analyzed and decoded at different levels: sounds into words; the words into phrases; phrases into clauses and clauses into whole sentences. In this process, the listener uses his lexical and grammatical competence in the target language for getting the intended meaning in the audio/spoken materials. Linguistic competence is not the only tool for decoding the meaning. Awareness of the listener with the topic of the message, the situation in which the listening takes place, and other co-factors also play a significant role in understanding the message. This knowledge is called background knowledge. Listener guesses the intended meaning of the message by applying his background knowledge. This process is called top-down processing (Kumar, Sen, & Eapen, 1995).
Successful listening depends on the ability to combine bottom-up processing and top-down processing (Morley, 2019) because the processing of the different types of knowledge does not occur in a fixed sequence, but, rather, that different types of processing may coincide or in any convenient order (Buck, 2001). In recent years, the emphasis in EFL listening materials has been on developing top-down listening processes because learners need to be able to listen effectively but knowledge about the context may not work with low-level learners even sometimes higher-level students may fail to recognize known words. Bottom-up processing helps learners to understand enough linguistic elements of what they hear to be then able to use their top-down skills (Morley, 2019). When EFL learners complain about the fast speed of speech in the audio, unfamiliar words and grammatical structures, difficulty in pronunciation, stress, and tone indeed, they show the need to be trained in bottom-up skills. In such a situation, LT can be a tool to support.

Listening in Language Teaching Methodologies

Before the emergence of the audio-lingual method, listening was the most neglected skill in the EFL classroom. In the grammar-translation method, reading and writing were given the primary focus, while little or no systematic attention was paid to speaking and listening. The late 19th century’s pedagogical reform emphasized on teaching spoken language that also brought listening skills in focus. It classified and ordered language learning into four skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Direct method and Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching were the initial post-reform methods that took a little notice of teaching listening skills. The Direct method used target language to train learners in oral communication and provided reciprocal listening opportunities in the language classroom. Similarly, Oral Approach and Situational Language Teaching used ‘listen and repeat’ strategy to practice sentence patterns or a word in isolation. (Richards & Rodgers, 1994)

The first systematic response to teaching listening came from the audio-lingual method. According to the audio-lingual method, language is primarily speech. At the early stage of language learning, it focused on oral skills linking gradually with other skills. Teaching listening comprehension, pronunciation, grammar, and vocabulary was the first step towards developing the ability to accurately perceive and produce the major phonological features of the target language. The audio-lingual method used tape recorders, audiovisual equipment, and language labs to provide dialogue for listening practice and fluency drills on grammar and pronunciation. (Richards & Rodgers, 1994)

The second meaningful response towards teaching listening came from Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). According to Communicative language teaching, language is primarily a means of communication that focuses on developing communicative competence. Contextualization to the dialogues, comprehensible pronunciation, and listening around situations and functions were critical features of teaching listening in CLT. According to CLT, listening comprehension goes beyond linguistic knowledge to non-linguistic knowledge. It considers features of real-life speech as false starts, hesitation, regional accents, and other physical factors into consideration (Littlewood, 1992, Richards & Rodgers, 1994).
Total Physical Response (TPR) was one of those teaching methods that put much emphasis on teaching listening. Abiding by the naturalistic principals of L1 learning, TPR emphasized on developing listening competence before developing the ability to speak. TPR coordinated speech and action requiring listeners to listen and respond to spoken language with physical actions. According to TPR, the brain is divided into hemispheres according to function, with language activities centralized in the right hemisphere and the left hemisphere with language for production. When a sufficient amount of right-hemisphere learning has taken place, the left hemisphere will be triggered to produce language (Richards & Rodgers, 1994).

From the beginning, the reform movement focused on teaching the second language in line with the natural principals of L1 acquisition. But it was Krashen's Monitor Model that explained it more systematically. Krashen suggests five hypotheses: (1) Acquisition-learning hypothesis (2) Monitor hypothesis (3) Natural order hypothesis, (4) Input hypothesis (5) Affective filter hypothesis. Based on these five hypotheses, Krashen and Terrell (1983) formulated the Natural Approach. According to Natural Approach, listening and reading are the comprehensible input that plays a crucial role in language production emerging from nonverbal responses, single words, combinations of two or three words, to phrases, sentences, and ultimately to complex discourse (Richards & Rodgers, 1994).

A brief overview of approaches and methods in language teaching reveals that there has been a growing emphasis on naturalistic principals of language acquisition into teaching listening skills. The audio-lingual method formulated teaching listening skills that were focused on bottom-up processing and acquiring linguistic competence. CLT added aspects of top-down processing (knowledge of non-linguistic sources). Natural methods and TPR emphasized on listening comprehension through comprehensible inputs and physical activities.

As Rost (2001) states that listening is a critical means of acquiring a second language, ESL/EFL learners need more exposure to the comprehensible input so they can attach proficiency in other skills. Comprehensible input in listening is found reciprocal and non-reciprocal. Reciprocal is like listening to someone face to face or listening to academic lectures which involve listener to speak and to collaborate in the negotiation of meaning (Troike, 2006). It also may be non-reciprocal as listening to the radio or TV news broadcasts which places heavier requirements on the listener for processing input and constructing meaning “online” or in real-time, without being able to request repetition or clarification (Troike, 2006). In Saudi Arabia’s context, EFL teachers are teaching listening non-reciprocal using CD player, MP3 audio file, and videos.

There are two main problems in Saudi Arabia’s listening classes. First, students are unable to cope with listening classes due to the fast speed of the speech in the audio, unfamiliar words, insufficient knowledge about the listening content, loss of concentration, and difficult accent (Almjlad, 2017). These problems cause depression, distraction, isolation, avoiding listening skill classes, getting a low level of achievement and performance among the students (Oteir and Aziz, 2017). Second, teaching listing is restricted to complete assessment activities without providing sufficient exposure to comprehensible input. This research paper looks into how LT can provide support to EFL learners in acquiring linguistic input and helping in content knowledge.
**Previous Research on Listening Transcript**

Many studies establish that the use of transcript with the listening audio in the EFL classroom has positive effects on language learning. Evidence from these studies strengthens the thesis of this study that connecting listening with LT can be a useful procedure to let the learners understand the relationship between the written language and spoken language. According to Vandergrift (2007), matching all or parts of the aural text with a transcription of text can help listeners develop an awareness of form-meaning relationships and word recognition skills. Brown (2011) states that using a transcript can be a good idea as it is a tool to repeat listening or practice speaking. Chang (2011) researched Reading While Listening (RWL), an approach for developing listening fluency. Below are some studies cited by Chang (2011) and the findings of his research.

Chang (2011) cited a series of longitudinal studies of ESL elementary learners in which Lightbown, Halter, While, and Horst (2002) and Lightbown and Halter (1989) compared the effectiveness of the comprehension approach (experimental group) versus the audio-lingual approach (regular group) on French learners of English. According to these longitudinal studies, the former group of learners involved reading and listening with a large amount of printed and aural input but without formal teaching, while the latter received regular instruction based on a curriculum and engagement in a variety of listening and speaking activities. Findings of these studies revealed that both groups of students performed in the comprehension of listening and reading, vocabulary recognition, and other oral tasks but students in the experimental group showed language gains and very positive attitudes to the type of English class they experienced (Lightbown, Halter, While, and Horst, 2002 and Lightbown and Halter, 1989, cited in Chang, 2011).

In another study cited by Chang (2011), Blum et al. (1995) compared home-based repeated reading of books with home reading and listening to audiotaped books for 19 weeks on five international children with minimal linguistic knowledge. The study found that the participants substantially benefited from simultaneous reading and listening to audiotaped books. Chang (2011) cited Brown, Waring, and Donkaewbua (2008), who compared learning vocabulary through three modes; reading, reading while listening (RWL), and listening only (LO) with 35 Japanese college students. The findings reveal that students learned most words in the RWL mode and found most comfortable the story presented in the RWL mode.

Similar findings were also reported in Brown’s (2007) small scale study, in which 58% of his students preferred reading while listening, 40% reading only, and 2% listening only. Thus, simultaneous reading and listening were found to be the most successful and comfortable input mode by Japanese students. Chang (2009) compared L2 listeners of Taiwanese college with RWL versus LO in their comprehension of two short stories of equal level and a length of approximately 1,500 words. Findings revealed that the students achieved 10% more in RWL than with LO. Chang (2011) also studied the effects of reading while listening (RWL) to audiobooks on EFL learners’ listening fluency and its by-product, vocabulary gain during 26-week on 19 students. Findings of his study concluded that students could improve their listening fluency through reading while listening to a large number of audiobooks (Chang, 2011).
Ways of Using Listening Transcript

There are many ways suggested using LT in the lessons of listening skills. A few of them are below:

Raza (2016) suggests three ways of using LT are as following:

1. The teacher may provide the students with a transcript of the listening material and let them read it. Play the recording once again and take their feedback if they can match the speed.
2. If they still fail to go with the pace, it means that they are at a lower level than anticipated. Now, display the transcript on the projector and play the recording. The teacher follows the recorded speech on the transcript with the help of a pointer.
3. If the teacher does not have a projector at hand, he may ask them to open the transcript and read it as they listen to the recording being played. (p.87)

Marks (2018) recommended these steps to use transcript:

1. Listening once, then using a transcript to clarify points of confusion before listening again
2. Reading before listening to establish an understanding of content, before listening to what that content sounds like.
3. Reading and listening simultaneously, tracking the relationship between the spoken and written forms of the language.

The literature review looks at issues such as teaching listening skills to EFL learners and what problems low-level learners are facing. It also explores how literature deals with the supportive role of LT in enhancing top-down and bottom up-skills. This study looks for bridging the gap between low linguistic proficiency and target proficiency through using LT in lessons. After providing exposure in the use of LT, the researchers conducted a 15-questionnaire survey to investigate students’ perceptions and attitudes towards LT and a semi-structured interview of 10 EFL teachers.

Research Methodology

The study has a mixed-methods research design. It combines data from a Likert scale survey conducted among 60 Saudi undergraduate female students who were enrolled in an Intensive English program and semi-structured interviews of 10 EFL female teachers of mixed nationalities at King Khalid University. The study used a Likert scale survey because it is a useful quantitative tool of research to measure the positive and negative perceptions of the students. Interviews are an effective medium to collect qualitative data and to measure participants' views and experiences. Both instruments effectively helped the researchers to explore potentialities of LT and its implications in the EFL setting. This research addresses one of the least research areas in the literature of teaching listening comprehension.

Context of the Research

The present study was carried out with female Saudi undergraduates at the University Center for Girls' Studies, at Alsamer in King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia. The study includes semi-structured interviews with the 10 EFL female lecturers at King Khalid University. Before the
survey is conducted, a pilot survey was conducted among a group of 10 EFL Saudi female students of English 012 in the same college of King Khalid University. Two EFL lecturers were consulted in finalizing the questionnaire. Necessary edition and modification in the survey were made in the backdrop of students’ responses and lecturers’ suggestions. To ensure validity, the first researcher provided intervention (use of LT) in the class for six listening classes (sixty minutes each, 3 hours a week) in two different ways. Ten faculty members were interviewed on the use of LT. The interview was focused on three points (1) pedagogical value of TL (2) how to implement it and (3) how often they use it.

**Purpose of the Study**
This study explores how students feel towards the use of LT in their listening lesson and if it helps them in bottom-up processing and top-down processing. Besides, it also takes teachers’ opinions towards LT as a pedagogical tool and how to use it.

**Research Questions**
1. Does LT help students in overcoming the difficulties that they face in bottom-up processing and top-down processing?
2. What do EFL teachers think about the pedagogical value of LT?
3. How do EFL teachers use it in their listening lessons? What do they think about its use?
4. How does TL help students in developing cognitive skills?
5. Does LT enhance learners’ confidence and ability to comprehend speech in real life?

**Participants**
The participants in the study were 60 female Saudi undergraduates at University Center for Girls' Studies at Alsamer, in King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia. The participants were enrolled in the Intensive English program-011 in the first semester of the academic year 2019-2020. The participants were from 16 to 20 years old. They had studied English for the last ten years at the school level of education. At the beginning of the data collection, participants weren’t informed that LT is being used for the research. They were informed about it when they were given a 15-questionnaire survey. Another category of the participants were ten female EFL teachers who have been teaching Intensive English program in the English language center for the last 8 to 12 years. They were from different nationalities.

**The Procedure of the Study**
In this study, a mixed-method of research design was used. To collect quantitative data, a questionnaire consisting of 15 statements was designed for the 60 Saudi female students enrolled in English 011 in the Intensive English program. Initial seven statements were related to bottom-up skills. After that, the next seven statements were about top-down processing. And the last two statements were about overall perception about LT. To ensure the reliability of the survey, TL was applied in six listening classes (sixty minutes each, 3 hours a week). LT was implemented in two different ways: (1) students read LT, and the researcher elicited keywords, topic, themes before the students listen to the audio for the first time without LT and second time with LT and (2) students listened to the audio without LT and the researcher asked some questions about the topic of audio, participants in the audio, and themes of the content in the audio then the researcher provided LT and students listen to the audio with LT. To ensure the validity of the survey, two
Lecturers in the English Language Center were asked to rate the questionnaire. The lecturers provided their feedback in spoken form. Furthermore, a pilot survey was conducted with a group of 10 EFL Saudi female students of English 012 in the same college at King Khalid University. Necessary edition and modification in the survey were made in the light of students’ responses and lecturers’ written feedbacks. Furthermore, Cronbach’s Alpha was used to measure the reliability of the questionnaire. For this questionnaire, the Cronbach alpha is .885, which is very good. It indicates statements in the questionnaire had strong internal consistency with each other. Formal permission was also taken from the ELC coordinator of the college to conduct the survey and to use the data for the research. When the survey was conducted, 67 female students attended the survey, but only 60 samples were selected for data analysis, and seven were rejected for not completing the survey. Similarly, ten faculty members attended the interview. Inputs from the interview were used for qualitative data. The interview was semi-structured and focused on three points (1) pedagogical value of TL (2) how to implement it and (3) how often they use it. IBM SPSS Statistics V21.0 was used to generate the data analysis in the category of frequency, percent, mean, and standard deviation. To explain survey data clearly, all 15 statements were divided into three tables: Table 1 (Bottom-up processing), Table 2 (Top-down processing), and Table 3 (Overall impression). Interview data was recorded manually in the face-to-face conversation and was later analyzed on three criteria: (1) pedagogical value of TL (2) how to implement it and (3) how often they use it.

Data Analysis and Discussion

Quantitative Data

The survey consisted of 15 statements divided into three tables. Table one had seven statements dealing with bottom-up processing like recognition of phonemes, words, and structure of the sentences. Table two had six statements dealing with top down-processing like background information, guessing and inferring meaning, and decoding intonations. Table three had two statements dealing with overall perceptions about LT. Every statement in the table has been indicated as a category while it is being analyzed. In Table one to three, SD stands for ‘Strongly Disagree’ D for ‘Disagree’ U for ‘Undecided’ A for ‘Agree’ SA for ‘Strongly Agree’ and F for ‘Frequency’ (Number of respondents). All three tables also mention mean and standard deviation (SD).

Table 1. Bottom-up skills
Table 1: Students’ perceptions toward Listening Transcript on the development of Bottom-Up Skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Listening transcript has helped me in distinguishing between vowel and</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.43</td>
<td>1.31956</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consonant sounds and how they are pronounced.</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Listening transcript has helped me in recognizing English pronunciation,</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>1.32884</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stress, intonation.</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>18.3%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As shown in table one, the positive effects of LT are exhibited on all seven categories of bottom-up processing. Overall perceptions of the students reveal that LT has a positive impact on the development of bottom-up skills. The highest-rated categories are Category five, three, seven, and four. Word-recognition seems benefited the most from LT. Category five: ‘using LT to follow the conversation through transition words in the audio’ with a mean of (3.90) was the highest-rated one followed by Category three: ‘using LT to identify every word separately in the audio’ with a mean of (3.88). The third highest-rated category is the Category seven ‘remembering pronunciation, words, and grammatical order of the sentences’ with a mean of (3.71). The fourth highest category is Category two: ‘recognizing English pronunciation, stress, intonation’ with a mean of (3.66). Some common cognitive processes among all these four categories are ‘identifying, recognizing, and remembering linguistic items like pronunciation, stress, intonation, and words.

Low rated categories are Category one, four, and six. Category one: ‘distinguishing between the vowel and consonant sounds’ is rated the lowest with a mean of (3.43) followed by Category four: ‘using LT to distinguish between keywords and ordinary words’ with a mean of (3.51) and Category six: ‘recognizing the order of sentences and tense of the sentences if it is a present or future tense.’ with a mean of (3.63). Some common cognitive processes among these three categories are 'distinguishing' and 'analysing'.

There have emerged out two important trends. The first trend is related to categories one and two. Both categories deal with English pronunciation. Category one deals with the ability to discriminate among English phonemes while Category two deals with the identification of supra-segmental units of English pronunciation like stress and intonation. Students’ perception of the Category two is more positive than to Category one. The second interesting trend is related to Category three, four and five. Category three and five are rated higher than Category four. Category three and five deal with identifying and remembering words, while Category four deals with the ability to distinguish among a variety of words. Category four also shows the highest percent of indecisiveness (35%).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>3. Listening transcript has helped me in recognizing every word separately from another word.</th>
<th>1</th>
<th>7</th>
<th>8</th>
<th>26</th>
<th>18</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>3.88</th>
<th>1.02662</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
<td>43.3%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Listening transcript has helped me in distinguishing between key words and regular words.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>.94764</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>%11.7</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>36.7%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Listening transcript has helped me in following transition words that indicate the direction of the conversation.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.90</td>
<td>.91503</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.7%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>16.7%</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>100%</td>
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<tr>
<td>6. Listening transcript has helped me in knowing the order of sentences and tense of the sentences if it is a present or future tense.</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.11942</td>
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<td></td>
<td>3.3%</td>
<td>15%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>35%</td>
<td>25%</td>
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<tr>
<td>7. Listening transcript has helped me in remembering pronunciation, words, and grammatical order of the sentences.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.05913</td>
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<td></td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>23.3%</td>
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### Table 2. Top-Down skills

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<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<th>%</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Listening transcript helped me in inferring the topic, outcome and</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.45</td>
<td>.98161</td>
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<td>sequence of conversation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2. Listening transcript helped me in understanding the conversation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.91</td>
<td>1.13931</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>and speakers in the conversation.</td>
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<tr>
<td>3. Listening transcript helped me in identifying facts and opinions and</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.56</td>
<td>.98060</td>
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<td>making a difference between them.</td>
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<tr>
<td>4. Listening transcript has helped in picking important information</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.58</td>
<td>1.16868</td>
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<tr>
<td>and leaving unimportant information out.</td>
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<tr>
<td>5. Listening transcript has helped me in getting a gist of what I listen</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>1.15115</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Listening transcript helped in identifying what different intonations</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>.92958</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>mean to convey in conversation.</td>
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</table>

Table two illustrates students’ perceptions in six categories of top-down processing. Overall perceptions of the students reveal that LT plays a positive role in developing top-down skills. Three highest-rated categories are Category six, two, and five. Category six: ‘identifying what different intonations mean to convey in conversation’ is the top-rated one with a mean of (4.01). Significantly, 83% of students feel that LT helps them in decoding communicative functions performed through intonations in spoken language. The second most rated category is Category two: ‘understanding of the conversation and the speakers in the conversation’ with a mean of (3.91). Around 73% of students perceive that LT gives them an understanding of the listening content and speakers. The third important category is the Category five: ‘getting a gist of the conversation’ with a mean of (3.71). Some common cognitive processes in the three highest-rated categories are identifying and understanding.

However, the positive impact of LT is visible in all categories. Category one, three, and four are rated lower than Category three, five, and six. Category one ‘inferring the topic, outcome, and sequence of conversation’ is rated lowest with a mean of (3.45). Category three ‘identifying facts and opinion and making a difference between them’ is rated with a mean of (3.56) while Category four ‘picking important information and leaving unimportant information out’ is rated with a mean of (3.58). Some common cognitive processes in three low rated categories are inferring, discriminating, and distinguishing.

An observation of Table two reveals that all higher-rated categories have less indecisive factors than low rated categories. For example, highest rated categories (6, 2, and 5) have 6.7%, 13.3%, and 18.3% indecisiveness respectively, while low rated categories (1, 3, and 4) have 25%, 28.3%, and 21.7% indecisiveness respectively. It mirrors the mind of the learners in processing these categories.
Table 3. Overall impression

Table 3: Students’ Overall Impression toward Listening Transcript

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statements</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>U</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Because of listening transcript, I feel confident when I listen to other people.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.7000</td>
<td>1.30579</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>11.7%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>8.3%</td>
<td>41.7%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Listening transcript has changed my previous way of learning a language.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>3.4000</td>
<td>1.22405</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.7%</td>
<td>20%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>30%</td>
<td>21.7%</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table three depicts students’ overall impressions towards LT. Category one explores if LT builds confidence among the listeners, and LT helps learners in listening to a person in real-life. Students’ perceptions show that LT has enhanced their confidence and helped them in facing a listening situation in real life with a mean of (3.7). Category two shows that students feel LT has a positive impact on their way of learning a foreign language. Some common cognitive processes employed in table three are judging, formulating, arguing, and defending. If students’ perception in this table is compared with the responses in Table one and two, it can be classified into low rated perceptions.

Qualitative Data

The qualitative data is collected through a semi-structured interview in which 10 EFL teachers from different colleges of King Khalid University were contacted individually. After they were explained the idea of the research, its purpose, and procedure to carry it, they were asked them to respond to the following questions:

a) What is the pedagogical value of LT in listening classes?
b) How do they use it or want to use it?
c) Will they like to use it in their classes? Why and why not?

Summary of the Interview:

| Teacher 1 | Not all the time, but I use listening script sometime when I teach a listening text that is relevant but challenging, or the audio has significant input of language, and students are unable to catch it. I also use it when I want to train my students in pronunciation (usually connected speech or intonation patterns). I make them listen to the specific sections and discuss what they hear, why that happens, and then practice. I feel it is a kind of supportive material that language teachers can use when they think its needs but not all the time. It may undermine activities and tasks in the listening textbooks. |
| Teacher 2 | Audio plays fast. It is challenging to follow the listening transcript along with audio, but I agree that it will help students to get the main idea, detailed information, inferring, etc. Activities for pronunciation stress and intonation can be made effective but not by reading. A teacher should mark words for pronunciation, stress, or intonation so the learners can focus on certain items in the script. It is a good idea. I never used it before, but I would like to use in the future. |
| Teacher 3 | Using plain listening transcript can be boring for the students. Exercises in listening textbooks are already taken from the script itself. It will put extra pressure on the teachers too. Another thing is that it is a kind of reading. We are teaching skills separately. We don’t get enough time to do other things than what we are assigned to do. I can do it in the future just for experimental purpose, but I don’t see anything significant here. |
| Teacher 4 | Listening transcript is a very useful learning material. If we use this for designing learning activities that include language activities as well as comprehension tasks, it is superb. I have lots of things useless in my book, and I am forced to do it just for syllabus purpose. In the future, I would like to change that nonsense stuff with activities designed around the script. |
| Teacher 5 | Language learning is something integrated. So it will not be correct to rule out the role of the listening transcript. It is certainly beneficial and supportive of learning, still, the important thing is how to integrate it in the lessons and how to achieve intended learning outcomes from the listening class. I would like to know about it in detail and techniques on how to use it. |
| Teacher 6 | A listening transcript is an excellent way to practice pronunciation, especially the connected speech by selecting specific sentences from the text. I am in favor of using it in my class. I would prefer to use it if it is given in the listening book itself as a part of the lesson. |
| Teacher 7 | While using a listening transcript, it is quite important for students needs to be familiar with the vocabulary in the written script so the learners can comprehend difficult words in listening to a recording. It serves the main purpose of listening skill otherwise, it may negatively result. I have no problem with using it if students find lots of words difficult. |
| Teacher 8 | Before a teacher plays the audio, she should anticipate how much students are familiar with the use of a transcript. If she finds it is not necessary to implement a listening transcript, her decision should be respected, and if she feels the need to follow the transcript, she may do according to the situation. |
| Teacher 9 | Language in the form of a listening transcript or the form of audio both is comprehensible input. It cannot be denied that both must be contributing positively to language learning. I believe that it certainly helps the students to listen to the words as they read them and to read them as they hear them. I don’t think they contradict each other. I don’t find any problem if listening transcripts are used. |
| Teacher 10 | I think simultaneous listening and reading is a common practice for teachers. But I guess that this practice unnecessarily adds stress to the learning situation. |
I believe that readings should be assigned as homework or as a quiet task before the material is read aloud or played in the class.

Out of 10 EFL teachers, eight teachers recognize that LT has significant pedagogical value, while two teachers perceive the opposite. Positive perceptions of the teachers towards LT reveal that LT directly helps in developing bottom-up skills like segmental and suprasegmental components of English language pronunciation and understanding the meaning of difficult words. They also feel that LT helps students in top-down skills like simplifying the texts, getting the main idea, comprehending information in detail, processing the guided and controlled content, and inferring from the content. Negative perceptions about LT include adding additional pressure and anxiety to the learning environment, distracting from listening to other skills, and extra time pressure and repetition. In response to how LT should be used, EFL teachers give the following suggestions:

1) It is a kind of supportive materials that can be utilized as per the need in the classroom.
2) It is not necessary to use the whole LT. The specific part of LT can be incorporated into the lessons to simplify what students find challenging and stressful.
3) It is a kind of adaption technique to improve listening materials. It can be adapted as a part of learning activities that can support language activities as well as comprehension tasks.
4) It is a tool to integrate listening with other skills like reading skills.
5) LT should specify target words or connected speech or intonation through marking them and focusing specifically and strictly only that part instead of using the whole transcript.

Teacher three and teacher ten reject the idea of using LT because they believe it is a kind of repetition of what has already been adapted in activities and exercises. It put additional pressure on teachers and the teaching-learning environment. Based on these perceptions, they out rule the idea of using LT while the rest of the teachers appreciate the concept of using LT.

Conclusion
After a comparison between highest-rated categories and lowest categories in the responses of the students as shown in table one, table two and table three, it can be concluded that LT has a positive perception among the students. They find LT useful for remembering linguistic input, identifying word and sentence stress, intonation and individual words, understanding conversation and getting gist than for distinguishing between vowel and consonants, between keywords and ordinary words, picking important information and leaving irrelevant out, determining grammatical structures, judging your performance, formulating your own opinion, arguing your learning behavior. Summing up, it can be said that LT is more effective in bottom-up skills than top-down skills. The same perception of the students is supported by EFL teachers who find LT more effective in practicing segmental and suprasegmental components of English language pronunciation and understanding the meaning of difficult words than top-down skills as simplifying the texts, getting the main idea, comprehending information in detail, processing guided and controlled content and inferring from the content.
In the context of Bloom’s Taxonomy, this result can be interpreted that LT plays a more positive role in developing a low level of skills. At the knowledge level, it involves recognizing words, recalling information, relating to real life. At comprehension level, it consists of selecting words, restating and explaining the content, and discussing what learners have acquired from listening. In the similar context of Bloom’s Taxonomy, the result reveals that LT is less helpful or less useful in learning higher-order skills. As students have rated a low in the categories like distinguishing information, choosing some information and leaving some of them, comparing between a variety of information, selecting some information and rejecting some, judging their learning outcome, and formulating their learning in a new situation, it supports the view that LT is less effective or less useful in acquiring higher-order skills.

The findings of the study correspond to the research questions sought in the study i.e., how do the Saudi female students perceive the intervention of LT in developing top-down as well as bottom-up skills in listening skills. The perception among the students is positive, but students find LT more useful and supportive in bottom-up skills than top-down skills. It is further supported by the EFL teachers’ perception also. The study also answers the additional questions of the research, like how it should be used and how much EFL teachers are keen to use it. The findings of the study suggest that teachers are as curious and eager to use as students are positive about it. As far as the implementation of LT is concerned, EFL teachers suggest that it should be used as supportive materials as per the need of the learners in parts and by applying adaptation techniques like highlighting target input of word, pronunciation, connected speech, and stress. There is a standard view among the teachers that LT is not a substitute for textbooks but it can be used as supportive or remedial materials. A minority of EFL teachers believe it as a negative intervention. The study extends the scope of further research in how LT can be adapted effectively in the listening classes.

Limitations

The present study is limited only to Saudi female students enrolled in the Intensive English program at the University Center for Girls' Studies, Al-Samer, King Khalid University, Abha, Saudi Arabia. It is not an experimental study. It doesn’t include male students. If the study is conducted on boys and girls both or in experimental design or a group of learners with better language proficiency or other locations, results may differ from the findings of this study.

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Quantitative Analysis of the Foreign Language Anxiety: Chinese and Pakistani Postgraduates in Focus

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Abstract
The current research study aims at inspecting various levels of apprehension and anxiety faced by university postgraduates in Pakistan and China when learning a foreign language (FL). The target population of this research was the university postgraduates from a Chinese university in Wuhan, and a public sector university in Lahore, Pakistan. The sample of this study was 206 postgraduates, out of which 106 (male =28, female= 78) from a Chinese university and 100 (male=53, female= 47) from a Pakistani university in Lahore. The sample was selected randomly and aged (21-30), and all participants belonged to the postgraduate level. Horwitz’s foreign language classroom anxiety scale (known as FLCAS) was used as a survey model, a theoretical framework for collecting data from both universities. The Statistical Package of a Social Sciences (SPSS version23) was used to get quantitative results. Descriptive statistics were used to investigate the anxiety level. Mean score and standard deviation were computed of both groups, besides it, the independent samples t-test was run to compare the mean score of both groups and infer if there existed any difference in the target language anxiety level. The results revealed that Chinese postgraduates face more anxiety than Pakistani postgraduates, and there existed significant differences in foreign language anxiety levels of both groups. Based on the results, it can be implicated that combined efforts of mentors and students can pave the way in tackling anxiety among university postgraduates.

Keywords: anxiety, apprehension, anxiety levels, foreign language, university postgraduates

Introduction

Learning a language has always been an exigent task for second language acquisition learners of many Asian countries (Malik, Qin, Asif, & Khan, 2020). Psycholinguists have shed light on the significance of English language anxiety and concluded that anxiety does have a debilitating effect on foreign language learners’ performance (Abbas & Iqbal, 2018). Anxiety can be termed as the type of edginess, disturbance, predicament, nervousness, and has been considered as a psychological issue on the part of foreign language learners (Bailey, 1983; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Tschumi & Young 1994).

The language anxiety has been considered as the most intricate and complex mental phenomenon of human psychology (Trylong, 1987). The psycholinguists concluded that an enormous number of foreign language acquisition learners suffer from anxiety, which causes stammering and stuttering among them. This is an unavoidable issue that has sought the attention of many linguists and researchers around the globe (Abbas, Pervaiz, & Arshad, 2018) Anxiety felt while learning the target and second language is one of the significant issues in the target language development process and learning, procedure and the major source of debilitating anxiety (Malik et al., 2020). In the past, pedagogical teaching and foreign language learning were limited to teacher and teaching methodologies (Abbas, Jalil, & Rehman, 2019).

Learner’s sentiments and feelings were considered an inevitable source with the advent of the humanistic approach, and the world witnessed a remarkable shift to learners and learning (Bhatti & Memon, 2016). Anxiety is the most dominant factor among all affective filters (Oxford, 1999). Numerous researches have so far been directed towards the prospective relationship of target or second language anxiety level of learners with their academic performance or proficiency in various foreign language learning procedures (MacIntyre & Gardner, 1994; Young, 1991). Many types of research indicated that there lies an unconstructive connection between academic performance and target language acquisition anxiety (Horwitz, Horwitz, & Cope, 1986; MacIntyre & Charos, 1996). Plentiful studies have dealt with this multifaceted issue of target language acquisition in learners of both in west and Asia demonstrating mixed results, either moderate or high anxiety level among students (Rachman, 1998).

The current research is an attempt to explore the anxiety level of FL learners from two culturally different Asian countries, such as Pakistan and China. Comparison has been made among EFL learners of one of the prestigious universities in central China, Wuhan and Lahore, Pakistan. The study of the anxiety level of both Asian countries’ postgraduates and the correlation between foreign language anxiety and demographical factors will contribute depth and breadth to the existing literature as no such comparison has been made earlier. However, this enquiry will further enlighten the aspects of target language acquisition for potential research in the realm of cognitive linguistics for target and foreign language students and mentors.

Literature Review

Anxiety has been defined as some disturbing state of mind, edginess, and threatening situation (Koba, Ogawa, & Wilkinson, 2000; Ohata, 2005). In foreign and target language acquisition, students often get unstable, boredom, indistinct, fright, and encounter edginess (Scovel, 1978; Gregersen, 2005; Ohata, 2005; Marwan, 2016). (Goshi, 2005) research study through FLCAS
Quantitative Analysis of the Foreign Language Anxiety

Malik, Qin, Khan & Ahmed

searched and explored that there are an association and relation between second and target language learners’ level of apprehension and their perceptions in the acquisition of target language. Cubukcu(2007) investigated anxiety level and its relationship to foreign language acquisition and concluded that fear of being negatively evaluated, losing face, making errors and fearful feeling of not getting desired goals and grades increase anxiety level.

Huang (2004) examined the anxiety level of gender and relationship of anxiety with motivation, time spent, and willingness to study after school time in the Taiwanese context. FLCAS was distributed among 502 learners and found out that anxiety level was higher in females, and those who had spent more time in learning a foreign language since childhood were found less anxious. Toubot & Seng’s, (2018) study resulted in higher anxiety level among the fourth year Libyan postgraduates.

In the study of Shi & Liu (2006) they investigated different stages of second language acquisition anxiety among students according to their proficiency levels and resulted that learners with high proficiency experience less anxiety, whereas those with low proficiency were found more anxious. Karatas et al., (2016) examined foreign language anxiety levels with gender, proficiency, and type of school; they graduated from 320 samples of Istanbul Technical University and his research study concluded in the advanced level of anxiety among females than males.

Öztürk & Gürbüz (2013) experimented foreign language classroom anxiety scale to compute the target language acquisition nervousness and anxiety level of university postgraduates and resulted that those who have English preparatory training had lower anxiety level than those who didn’t receive, besides females were found suffering high anxiety level than males.

Marcos‐Llinás & Garau (2009) investigated anxiety level at three diverse aptitude and proficiency stages by using FLACS at 134 samples of Spanish students at the USA and it was analysing that the foreign language learners of the advance level were found experiencing highest anxiety level while the beginner level learners were found least anxious. The researcher deduced that the advance level learners are more conscious about the purpose of foreign language acquisition and prepare themselves for more challenges and employability, which makes them more anxious than beginners, thus getting their anxiety level higher. However, few researchers like Hismanoglu (2013) worked on a comprehensive study on foreign language anxiety in Turkey and resulted that advance learners have low anxiety levels as compared to beginners.

Research on foreign language anxiety in Pakistan kept demonstrating in various contexts. Some Pakistani researchers (Adeel, 2011; Azher, Anwar, & Naz, 2010; Gopang, Bughio, & Pathan, 2018) have contributions in the existing literature of foreign language anxiety and paved the way for future researchers in psycholinguistics. In China, Wei (2014) have persistently researched among Chinese students and used FLCAS to measure the anxiety intensity of Bouyei College FL learners and found a moderate level of anxiety of Chinese postgraduates. Naudhani, Wu, & Naudhani (2018) found a high level of anxiety while conducting research between two groups of Chinese students in China i.e., English majors and non-English majors and the latter group was found experiencing a high level of anxiety. As far as present research is concerned, it...
is an attempt to investigate the anxiety level towards the foreign language being taught as a second language in Pakistan and China as well.

**Objectives of the Current Research**

The prime objective of this research project is to find out the target anxiety level among Pakistani and Chinese learners. The second objective is to find the difference of anxiety among Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates.

**Research Questions**

1. What is the apprehension and anxiety level among Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates in learning foreign language in universities?
2. Does there exist any significant difference between Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates’ anxiety level?

**Hypothesis**

Following hypothesis were made to explore the difference in anxiety level of the postgraduates.

\[ H_0: \text{There is no significant difference between Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates’ anxiety level.} \]

\[ H_1: \text{There is a significant difference between Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates’ anxiety level.} \]

**Population and Sampling**

The respondents of this study were selected from one of the public sector universities in Lahore, Pakistan, and their first language was Urdu and studying English as a target and foreign language. A sample of 100 Pakistani learners (male=53, female=47) from the public sector university filled the questionnaire While Chinese 106 (male=28, female=78) participants from one of the famous universities in central China, Wuhan. All postgraduates were aged (21-30) and were learning English as a compulsory course.

**Instrument**

Horwitz et al. (1986) famous theory of target or foreign anxiety inside the classroom was used as a theoretical framework and survey model for collecting primary data from Chinese and Pakistani participants. The survey was based on 33 items and three sub-anxieties i.e., test anxiety, communication apprehension, and fear of negative evaluation. Each anxiety contains 11 items. The first part was used to gather demographic bio-data like age and gender etc. Scale for determining FL anxiety level was kept count on a five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” with the topmost level of anxiety to “strongly disagree” with lowermost anxiety level.

**Data Collection and Method**

A questionnaire was distributed among university postgraduates in one of the Public Sector University in Lahore, Pakistan and Chinese University situated in Central China, Wuhan. Survey was administered by the researcher. Responses of all participants were entered and analysed by using SPSS 23. Firstly, descriptive statistics was performed to find out the percentage and general response of every item associated with FL anxiety of learners inside the classroom. Independent samples-t-test was employed too to find out the variation in anxiety levels of Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates.
Data Analysis
The Statistical Package of Social Sciences (SPSS) 23 was used to analyze the results of FLCAS items and the five-point Likert scale was used for data collection from Chinese and Pakistani postgraduates. Descriptive statistics were obtained to get the description like mean score and standard deviation. Secondly, Independent samples t-tests were also run to identify the difference between groups regarding anxiety level.

Results
The researcher in the first research question focuses on exploring the FL anxiety level among Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates. To respond the first research question, FLCAS was divided into three sub-anxieties i.e. communication apprehension which is often called as speaking anxiety as well, the second is test anxiety and third corresponded to as fear of negative evaluation. The obtained results and elucidation of both variables i.e. Chinese postgraduates and Pakistani postgraduates are given below:

Research Question 1
In research question # 1, the objective was to scrutinize the second or foreign anxiety level of both groups i.e., Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates. The descriptive statistics is given below of three sub-anxieties.

In table 1, the 11 items from FLCAS reflect communication nervousness between two groups i.e. Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates. The data in the above table demonstrates that Pakistani postgraduates suffer from a moderate level of communication anxiety or apprehension (M=2.89, SD=1.024), while Chinese postgraduates undergo a higher level of communication anxiety (M=3.08, SD=1.048).

A great number of learners from both groups agreed to be anxious while communicating with others (see table 1). The majority of Chinese postgraduates reported the lack of self-efficacy is the cause of communication apprehension thus, similar to Horwitz (1986) statement that anxious students prefer to be back benchers in order to avoid interaction and communicating with others which can be a source of embarrassment for them.

Target anxiety of FL affects the target language learners’ language attainment and abilities to a great extent and impedes in getting desired results in the target language. Communication apprehension has a strong relationship with foreign language anxiety as students not merely find difficulty in communication rather in the comprehension of what others say too (Horwitz et al., 1986). They avoid class and group discussions, presentations, and interpersonal skills, which, as a result, leads them to poor performance.

In table 2, FLCAS items reflect the test anxiety of Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates, in which a noteworthy difference can be seen between two groups. Pakistani postgraduates feel moderate test anxiety (M=2.72, SD=1.12), whereas Chinese learners (M=3, SD=1.051). According to Horwitz et al., (1986) test, anxiety is another type of reticent which is caused by a fear of failure and low self-esteem. Sarason (1984) is of the view that test performance anxiety is induced because of self-assumptions of students accompanied by negative thoughts and low grades in academics.
Chinese students found to be more anxious because of being proficient in native language and agreed on facing failures because of poor foreign language skills. These experiences divert learners’ attention in class and thus results in poor presentation and performance.

Table 3, indicates FLCAS last anxiety type i.e. fear of negative assessment/evaluation among Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates. The outcome of responses reveal that Pakistani postgraduates were found experiencing fear of negative evaluation anxiety too although taken as a whole the mean score was still less than Chinese postgraduates. Pakistani postgraduates (M=3.14, SD=1.073), whereas Chinese learners (M=3.13, SD=1.07).

To a great extent, fear of negative assessment/evaluation is closer to test performance anxiety, however, unlike test anxiety the concept of negative evaluation is taken on broader, micro and macro level and usually others are being evaluated negatively in social context. While test anxiety is limited specifically to academic context which induce anxiety within classroom settings.

The learners who are suffering from fear of negative evaluations are not critical much about their individuality rather they tend to avoid by not interacting and participating in any discussion or discourse thus limiting themselves to concise talks (Gardner & Maclntyre, 1993).

In this comparative study of FL anxiety between Chinese and Pakistani learners both groups endorsed the view of getting anxious and reported fear of being negatively evaluated as anxiety inducing factor and as a result of which they are fear to lose their face. (T. Gregersen & Horwitz, 2002) the mental abilities, meta-cognitive skills and language acquisition process is adversely affected by negative evaluation of peers, fellows and mentors which makes their morale down and make them anxious learners of target language. The way they happen to communicate with people in foreign language might develop a kind of undesirable and general negative impact about them among people no matter if they are good or proficient user in other aspects of target language learning and acquisition process.

**Research Question 2**
The purpose of second research question was to trace the anxiety level difference between Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates. It was hypothesized that there is no anxiety difference between both groups. Responding to the second research question independent samples t-tests was employed.

There is a noteworthy variation between anxiety level, of Chinese postgraduates M=(3.07, SD=0.47); t= 2.642, p-value (0.01), whereas Pakistani postgraduates ((M=2.98, SD=0.50)); t= 0.269, p-value (0.788). It is noted that in the first group p-value (0.01) is significant at0.05 level, p <0.05; therefore, the null hypothesis is discarded and it can be explored that Chinese postgraduates are highly anxious than Pakistani postgraduates and there is considerable disparity between both groups’ foreign language anxiety level.

**Findings**
The outcomes and conclusion of the present research study demonstrate and reveal that massive number of the Chinese postgraduates, who took part in this study were found to be highly anxious.
in all levels of foreign language anxiety i.e. communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. Pakistani postgraduates who filled the questionnaire also suffered from moderate anxiety levels as compared to Chinese target language learners. The overall results show that the most anxiety provoking items belong to Communication anxiety as both groups can be seen supporting the statements provoking communication anxiety. However, the bulk of Chinese postgraduates’ mean score in communication anxiety is higher as compared to Pakistani learners.

The statement in table 1 “I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class” indicates that Chinese postgraduates hesitate while speaking or communicating in foreign or second language owing to deficiency of self-confidence. Chinese learners) (M=3.07, SD=0.47) suffer from high anxiety while Pakistani students (M=2.98, SD=0.50) reflected mediocre level of anxiety.

Chinese students also showed agreement in the item “it makes me anxious, when I don’t understand what an instructor is saying in a foreign language lecture” (M= 3.21, SD= 1.075) which shows that foreign or second language anxiety is a primary cause that affects the abilities and aptitudes of target language learners to a great extent and has a strong relationship with communication anxiety.

The statement “I tremble when I know I am going to be called on in a foreign language class” reveals moderate level of anxiety among both Chinese and Pakistani postgraduates; Chinese learners (M=2.79, SD=0.983), Pakistani learners (M=2.62, SD=1.17). In item “I keep thinking that other students are better than I am at foreign language” Chinese (M=3.11, SD=1.008), Pakistani (M=3.17, SD=1.1173) some of the items reveal moderate anxiety and some reveal higher than moderate. “I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in class” reveals moderate anxiety of Pakistani postgraduates (M=2.9, SD=1.243), while Chinese learners were found to be highly anxious (M=3.17, SD=1.1).

In the second last statement of communication anxiety, Chinese postgraduates express their high anxiety level in the following statement “I worry about consequences of failing my foreign language class” Chinese (M=3.19, SD=1.088), Pakistani postgraduates (M=2.73, SD=1.196).

The findings reveal that significant number of postgraduates suffer from high communication anxiety level. These findings are in line with the seminal work of many researchers (He, 2017; Horwitz et al., 1986; Kitano, 2001; Landström, 2015) and in Chinese context, these findings are in line with (Shi & Liu, 2006; Naudhani et al., 2018).

In the Pakistani context, this study is consistent with (Mari, Umrani, & Umrani, 2012; Javed, Eng, Mohamed, & Sam, 2013; Gopang, Ansari, Kulsoom, & Laghari, 2017). The second anxiety generating items belong to test anxiety. In table 2, the statement “In foreign language class I get so nervous that I forget the things I know”. Chinese postgraduates found with higher anxiety level, Chinese postgraduates (M=3, SD=1.051), Pakistani postgraduates (M=2.72, SD=1.12). (Horwitz et al., 1986), foreign language learners suffering from text anxiety often relate incorrect beliefs
and views in learning foreign language and set up unrealistic expectations and accept merely perfect performance in test otherwise failure.

In another statement “I get upset when I don’t understand what the teacher is correcting” Chinese postgraduates (M=3.38, SD=0.899), Pakistani postgraduates (M=2.93, SD=1.139). Chinese learners think that in order to speak accurately and meaningful utterances, every word of a mentor should be discernable so they can get a good image and not negative evaluation by their instructors.

In the item “I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in my class” Chinese postgraduates (M=3.11, SD=1.008), Pakistani postgraduates (M=2.47, SD=1.177) it supported the view that foreign language anxiety was an individual set of beliefs, concepts and feelings which can be felt while learning a foreign or second language in the classroom (Horwitz et al., 1986).

The third anxiety-provoking responses belong to fear of negative evaluation. In the statement “I always feel that the other students speak a foreign language better than I do” Chinese postgraduates (M=3.13, SD=1.07), Pakistani postgraduates (M=3.14, SD=1.073). In the following item both groups share the same views about being negatively evaluated and try to avoid participating in any discussion or activities thinking that others are better at speaking which keeps them anxious. In the same vein in item, “I feel very self-conscious about speaking foreign language in front of other students” Chinese postgraduates (M=3.32, SD=0.911), Pakistani postgraduates (M=3.19, SD=1.032), the students suffering from edginess and nervousness also feared being less capable, confident and competent than other target language learners and being negatively evaluated.

In the statement “I get nervous when I don’t understand every word the foreign instructor says” Chinese postgraduates (M=3.23, SD=0.908), Pakistani postgraduates (M=2.8, SD=1.082) and “I get nervous when the foreign instructor asks questions which I haven’t prepared” Chinese postgraduates (M=3.3, SD=0.841), Pakistani postgraduates (M=2.98, SD=1.155). According to Aid(1994) that kind of situations reflect personal opinion, views and perceptions about giving answers voluntarily and thus hinder them to participate actively.

In addition to it, the present study has also investigated the significant difference between the anxiety level of Chinese and Pakistani postgraduates. According to the result, language anxiety plays a pivotal role in the acquisition of target and foreign language, and there is a significant difference between Pakistani and Chinese learners’ anxiety level. Chinese learners found to be more anxious as P-value 0.01 is less than p< 0.05, and hence, the null hypothesis is rejected as p-value 0.01 is significant at 0.05 level.

**Discussion**
The current research has addressed the following questions; What is the level of anxiety among Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates in learning a foreign language in universities? Is there any difference between Pakistani and Chinese postgraduates’ anxiety level? The findings reveal that anxiety does have a debilitating effect among university postgraduates, and they feel anxious about
learning a foreign and second language. The level of anxiety is reported high among Chinese learners. This finding is in line with previous research (Naudhani et al., 2018).

Many studies in the past supported the view that learners in Confucian countries like China, Korea and Japan suffer more from edginess and anxious feeling as compared to other countries. China is the country which has the largest number of foreign language but still they find it difficult to use in and outside of classroom and mostly feel anxious. Although a lot of significance has been given to Chinese foreign language learners to polish their skills, particularly in commutation and linguistic skills, yet there is a scarcity of contact with native speakers (Liu & Braine, 2005).

Chinese postgraduates are found be highly anxious at all three levels of FL anxiety i.e. communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative evaluation. It could be so as they get slight chances of using target language and thus in most of the cases use first language. On the other hand, Pakistani postgraduates in this research has been reported to experience moderate level of anxiety which is line with (Gopang et al., 2017).

In study of Javed et al., (2013) Pakistani students were also found to be anxious at different levels. However, it was also noted in the analysis result that respondents reported different responses to Foreign language anxiety scale items and some of the items were rated fairly high in language anxiety and vice versa. From this point of view, this study also supports Horwitz et al., (1986) that anxiety is a unique set of beliefs, aptitude and decorum specific to language acquisition. Besides, the result of independent samples t-test demonstrates that there is a significant difference of anxiety level exists between Chinese and Pakistani postgraduates as the p-value (0.01) is significant at 0.05 level, p <0.05 and therefore, null hypothesis has been rejected indicating foreign language anxiety plays a major role in making Chinese postgraduates anxious.

**Limitation of the research study**
The present research is limited in sample size (N=206), Pakistani learners (N=100) from one of the key comprehensive public university situated in Lahore, Pakistan where students are more exposed to FL or TL and also English is the medium of instruction in that university; due to which they are found to be moderately anxious. Chinese learners (N=106) one of public university situated in Wuhan, China where Chinese students do have a lot of chances to excel in all walks of life and Wuhan, which is famous for being the educational hub and center of China, a massive number of native speakers, foreigners and international students visit every year this city, Chinese postgraduates feel a bit hesitant to use foreign or second language when it comes to academic and social settings.

In present study, Chinese postgraduates of the public sector university mostly use target and FL only in second language acquisition classroom, whereas for the rest of the activities they use mandarin Chinese; therefore, the results couldn’t be generalized to the whole population. In addition to it, the study is quantitative in nature; qualitative analysis would’ve helped more in throwing light on the aspect of FLA.

**Conclusion**
This research project concludes that both Chinese and Pakistani students feel high and moderate anxiety, respectively. They feel edginess and anxiety while communicating in front of instructors, peers and others. They think that other people and their companions will make fun of them by letting them down if they happen to utter the wrong sentence because of being less capable in target language acquisition. The study has determined the university postgraduates’ anxiety in acquisition of second or foreign language.

Learners also get anxious when their instructor rectifies their mistakes, and they are not able to comprehend the corrected words. It makes them less confident, and they also feel hesitant to communicate with native speakers thinking others will laugh at them. They also fear of showing poor performance in FL class and tests. They are reluctant to speak in FL as the majority of them think in first language and then translate that into the second language, which keeps them unconfident and reticent.

All the above-mentioned statements indicate that the university postgraduates need more lectures in foreign and second language to shun away the uneasiness and anxiety feeling, which keeps them discouraged and checks them to participate and interact with others. They also find it hard to adhere strictly to the rules and regulations for learning a foreign language. Most importantly, the significant difference exists between both groups and Pakistani postgraduates according to the second question in the study. To sum up, the second or target language acquisition anxiety plays a pivotal and essential role in acquiring any language.

Recommendations
It is highly recommended in the light of data collection results, discussion, and conclusion that anxiety is found at various levels among learners, whether they are Pakistanis or Chinese. It is recommended that teachers must not make realize or flourish the sense of anxiety even at the lowest level in EFL classroom. Students must be given freedom of expression and not be discouraged or de-motivated at all. Academicians, researchers, and policymakers, government officials must keep studying researches to update their knowledge and design policies in light of these studies’ conclusions. Teachers must develop such an environment inside the classroom as it would enhance learners’ confidence, level of easy interaction, removing the feelings of shyness and hesitation.

As far as further research is concerned related to this topic, there are many new avenues that can be explored as regards to variation of gender, age, class, socioeconomic background, country, or language. These variables can be addressed individually or by combining more than one or two as desired by the prospective potential researcher. Another area of future study may be a comparison between first and second language anxiety as among some learners, even first language interrupts and they feel lacking proficiency in any of the language skills i.e., productive and receptive skills in their mother tongue.

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References


Appendixes

Table 1. Mean Score and Standard Deviation for Communication Anxiety among Pakistani & Chinese Postgraduates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likert Scale items</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I never feel quite sure of myself when I am speaking in my foreign language class</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.89 3.08</td>
<td>1.024 1.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t worry about making mistakes in foreign language class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.17 3.19</td>
<td>1.223 0.957</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I tremble when I know that I’m going to be called on in foreign language lecture.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.62 2.79</td>
<td>1.17 0.983</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It makes me anxious me I don’t understand what an instructor is saying in foreign language.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.43 3.21</td>
<td>1.208 1.075</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>It wouldn’t bother me at all to take more foreign language classes.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.65 3.74</td>
<td>1.14 0.876</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>During lecture, I find myself thinking about things that have nothing to do with the course.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.83 2.66</td>
<td>1.129 1.013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I keep thinking that the other students are better at foreign language than I am.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.17 3.11</td>
<td>1.173 1.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am usually at ease during assessments in my foreign language class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.72 3.4</td>
<td>0.842 0.902</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I start to panic when I have to speak without preparation in foreign language class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.9 3.17</td>
<td>1.243 1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I worry about consequences of failing my foreign language class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.73 3.19</td>
<td>1.196 1.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t understand why some people get so upset over foreign language lectures.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.68 3.09</td>
<td>0.875 0.961</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Mean Score and Standard Deviation for Test Anxiety among Pakistani and Chinese Postgraduates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likert Scale items</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In Foreign language class, I can get so nervous I forget things I know.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>2.72 3</td>
<td>1.12 1.051</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 3. Mean Score and Standard Deviation for Fear of Negative Evaluation among Pakistani and Chinese Postgraduates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Likert Scale items</th>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It embarrasses me to volunteer answers in foreign language class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.154</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>0.996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I would not be nervous speaking foreign language with native speakers.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>0.979</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.51</td>
<td>0.928</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I get upset when I don’t understand what the teacher is correcting.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>2.93</td>
<td>1.139</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.38</td>
<td>0.899</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Even if I am well prepared for foreign language class, I feel anxious about it.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.147</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I often feel like not going to my foreign language class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.064</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>0.971</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I feel confident when I speak in my foreign language class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>3.72</td>
<td>0.986</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>0.864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am afraid that my foreign instructor is ready to correct every mistake I make.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>2.77</td>
<td>1.136</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.75</td>
<td>0.892</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I can feel my heart pounding when I am going to be called on in my class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>2.74</td>
<td>1.177</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>1.008</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The more I study for foreign language course, the more confused I get.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>2.25</td>
<td>1.086</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>0.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t feel pressure to prepare very well for foreign language class.</td>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>1.031</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>3.17</td>
<td>0.91</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
I feel very self-conscious about speaking foreign language in front of other students. | Pakistani postgraduates | 3.19 | 1.032 | 0.911
| Chinese postgraduates | 3.32 |

Foreign language class moves so quickly I worry about getting left behind. | Pakistani postgraduates | 3.67 | 0.933 | 1.002
| Chinese postgraduates | 2.79 |

I feel more tense and nervous in my foreign language class than in my other courses. | Pakistani postgraduates | 2.39 | 1.081 | 1.05
| Chinese postgraduates | 2.66 |

I get nervous and confused when I am speaking in my foreign language class. | Pakistani postgraduates | 2.46 | 1.141 | 1.01
| Chinese postgraduates | 2.68 |

When I am on my way to foreign language class, I feel very sure and relaxed. | Pakistani postgraduates | 3.67 | 0.943 | 0.745
| Chinese postgraduates | 3.55 |

I get nervous when I don’t understand every word the foreign instructor says. | Pakistani postgraduates | 2.8 | 1.082 | 0.908
| Chinese postgraduates | 3.23 |

I feel overwhelmed by the number of rules you have to learn to speak foreign language. | Pakistani postgraduates | 3.11 | 1.1 | 0.985
| Chinese postgraduates | 2.98 |

I am afraid that the other students will laugh at me when I speak foreign language. | Pakistani postgraduates | 2.61 | 1.188 | 1.144
| Chinese postgraduates | 2.79 |

I would probably feel comfortable around the native speakers of foreign language. | Pakistani postgraduates | 3.45 | 0.914 | 0.84
| Chinese postgraduates | 3.44 |

I get nervous when the foreign instructor asks questions which I haven’t prepared. | Pakistani postgraduates | 2.98 | 1.155 | 0.841
| Chinese postgraduates | 3.3 |

Table 4. Independent samples t-test result of Foreign Language Anxiety of Chinese and Pakistani postgraduates

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>Sig.(2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Chinese postgraduates</td>
<td>106</td>
<td>3.07</td>
<td>0.47</td>
<td>2.642</td>
<td>0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pakistani postgraduates</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>2.98</td>
<td>0.50</td>
<td>0.269</td>
<td>0.788</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pragmatics of Political Blame in British and Iraqi Parliaments

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Abstract
This research is a pragmatic study of political blame in British and Iraqi Parliaments. It aims to unfold the similarities and/or differences in terms of the pragmatic and pragma-rhetorical strategies used by British and Iraqi politicians when they exchange blame in both offensive and defensive situations. A statistical analysis is conducted to quantitatively support the findings of the pragmatic analysis. The analyses conducted have yielded different results among blame is a process composed of two stages. Each stage is distinct for its pragmatic components and pragma-rhetorical strategies. British and Iraqi MPs at the blame stage tend to utilize impoliteness as their main strategy. However, British and Iraqi MPs perform differently at the blame avoidance stage in that British MPs employ politeness as their main defense strategy, whereas Iraqi MPs exploit impoliteness. Besides, British and Iraqi MPs at the blame stage tend to violate the maxim of quality by fabricating their statements. At the blame avoidance stage, the maxim of relevance was the most violated one through the strategy of evasion. As for pragma-rhetorical strategies, British and Iraqi politicians at the blame stage exploit the pragma-rhetorical strategy of number-game to support their credibility. At the blame avoidance stage, British politicians primarily utilize hyperbole, whereas Iraqi politicians deploy shifting blame.

Keywords: blame avoidance, British and Iraqi parliaments, impoliteness, political blame, politeness

Introduction

Blame is a key term in adversarial discourse where politicians attribute something bad or wrong to another person. In the blame game, Bull and Wells (2012) make clear that Members of Parliament can be either blame makers (those who do the blaming) or blame takers (those who are on the receiving end). The actions and policies of government officeholders often face blame for constructive and destructive goals. In democratic societies, blame as well as blame avoidance strategies come to the fore where politicians fight for power. According to Hansson (2015), “Linguistic aspects of blame avoidance are yet to be studied by discourse analysts in great detail” (p. 297). This requires a careful study to unfold critical features and techniques that help fuel blame and make it spread through government offices. Thus, the present study sets itself toward answering the following questions:

1. Are blame and blame avoidance strategies utilized by politicians similar or different in British and Iraqi parliamentary settings?
2. Are blame makers’ linguistic utterances impolite and blame takers’ ones polite?
3. How are blame and blame avoidance strategies realized pragmatically and pragma-rhetorically and what functions do they serve?
4. Are there any differences in the employment of the pragmatic strategies used by Iraqi and British politicians for blaming and avoiding blame?

It is hypothesized that British politicians use indirect strategies of blame, whereas Iraqi politicians tend to use direct ones. Moreover, blame makers and blame takers in both British and Iraqi parliaments utilize certain pragmatic strategies. Thus, blame takers tend to use politeness strategies more often than other pragmatic strategies to avoid damaging blame acts whereas blame makers resort to using impoliteness strategies to damage the image of Prime Ministers and Ministers. Moreover, Blame takers tend to violate the maxim of relevance more often than the other maxims to evade blame. In contrast, blame makers are inclined to violating the maxim of quality to create fabricated statements that are intended to shape people’s thoughts as they want. It is also hypothesized that blame makers and blame takers in both British and Iraqi Parliaments utilize certain pragma-rhetorical strategies at the blame stage different from those they utilize at the blame avoidance stage.

Politicians often exploit the language for the sake of winning, a fact often spotted in political debates, interviews and even campaigning speeches. These genres were extensively scrutinized by discourse analysts worldwide. Still, parliamentary discourse requires more careful work to unfold key features and concepts which distinguish it from other sub-genres of political discourse. Unlike many genres of political discourse, parliamentary discourse represents the formal and institutionalized variety (Bayley, 2004). It has been defined as “a norm-regulated interaction which takes place among politically elected representatives for deliberation and decision-making purposes in a specific political institutional setting (the parliament) and which displays recurrent institutionalized communication patterns” (Ilie, 2010, p. 8). Being elected representatives, Members of Parliament (MPs) are expected to stand up for their opponents and promote their voters’ views. The deliberative nature of parliamentary discourse incites MPs to enhance their own image and question the credibility of government policies or other MPs’ political agendas.
Parliamentary questioning is a subgenre of parliamentary discourse. It does not only scrutinize and question the government but even controls and reforms it. According to Wiberg (1995), parliamentary questioning represents a chance to get information and ask for clarification on some issues or to force a policy to be made. MPs direct questions to the PM and the Ministers about issues they are ignorant of, in desire of inquiring about the actions or policies of the government, or to know what the government intends to do regarding a particular issue without raising any charges against them (as cited in Abbas, 2010; الخطيب, 2006; يحيى, 2008).

Due to the sensitivity and importance of the issues discussed during Iraqi and British parliamentary question sessions held upon request of parliamentarians to interrogate the Prime Minister including ministers of his/her cabinet regarding these issues, the latter are expected to utilize all means of attack and defense represented by impoliteness strategies as well positive and negative politeness strategies to pass their agenda contrary to what we see on television where parliamentary question sessions appear, as Hoggart (2011) describes them (as cited in Bates, Kerr & Byrne, 2012, p. 1), "like an unpleasant football match, in which the game played publicly is accompanied by all sorts of secret grudge matches, settlement of scores and covert fouls committed when the players hope the ref is not looking" being turned, therefore, "from a relatively ‘civilised’ parliamentary session into something of a rowdy, mud-slinging spectacle catered more towards shallow political point scoring than serious scrutiny of prime ministerial activity" (Bates, Kerr & Byrne., 2012, p. 1). In short, parliamentary question sessions, in Bull’ and Wells' (2012) opinion, are "notorious for adversarial discourse" (p. 1) where the prime minister or any minister from his/her cabinet being interrogated are always in an attack status not even having the chance to defend themselves.

**Literature Review**

*Parliamentary Discourse*

In his discussion of the parliamentary discourse genre from a pragma-linguistic perspective, Ilie (2015) argued that it "belongs to the wider field of political discourse. Hence it displays particular institutionalized discursive features and complies with a number of specific rules and conventions" (p. 2). Ilie (2015) went on to view parliamentary discourse from a rhetorical perspective saying that it "belongs to the deliberative genre of political rhetoric, which is defined as an oratorical discourse targeting an audience that is asked to make a decision by evaluating the advantages and disadvantages of a future course of action" (p. 3). In their attempts to verbalize their opinions and beliefs in the best ways when engaging in parliamentary debates, parliamentarians tend to constantly utilize their rhetorical skills and, as Ilie (2015) phrases it, "take advantage of institutional practices in order to score points by exploiting each other’s weaknesses and vulnerabilities" (p. 2). Hence, it is often believed that parliamentarians act in adversarial ways, especially in their debates over issues of vital national importance. It is worthy of note that some of the more representative subgenres of the parliamentary discourse genre are "ministerial statements, interpellations, parliamentary speeches, parliamentary debates, parliamentary (oral and written) questions, and question time" which, in Ilie's (2015, p. 3) belief, "constitute goal-oriented forms of demands or requests for action, reaction, and/or information". Of these subgenres the present study focused on the parliamentary question.
Parliamentary Questions (PQs) are questions put formally by an MP and provide the PM and his/her cabinet with regular opportunities to give a public report on issues they are responsible for. PQs can take two forms: oral or written. Written questions are intended to obtain information while oral questions serve two functions: attack, if were asked by the opposition, or praise, if were asked by government MPs (Ilie, 2017). Numerous motivations underlie parliamentary questioning, among which Wiberg (1995) mentions the following:

- To request information.
- To press for action.
- To demand an explanation.
- To test ministers in controversial areas of their policies.
- To attack ministers in difficult political situations.
- To dispose of a large number of heterogeneous topics rapidly conveniently.
- To help build up a reputation in some particular matters.
- To demonstrate the government’s faults.

In the British Parliament, the Parliamentary Question session is called Prime Minister Questions (PMQs). This kind of session is held every Wednesday from 12 p.m. to 12.30 p.m. An MP starts with an ‘open question’ about the PM’s recent engagements. Following this type of question, an MP can ask supplementary questions. The Leader of the Opposition is allowed to ask the PM of up to six questions in succession. The PM does not have a clue about the questions he/she will be asked. Government departments briefly inform the PM of possible subjects (UK Parliament, 2019). The modern format of PMQs was introduced in 1961. It was aimed at formalizing the way MPs raise questions to the PM. This has led PMQs to become an increasingly significant event in British political life (Bates et al, 2012). The way questions are asked during PMQs is not random. MPs submit their questions in advance. These are questions directed to the PM about his recent and/or coming engagements. Because the questions are presented prior to the session, the PM will have an idea about what he/she is going to be asked about and also the list of MPs asking these questions (Bevan & John, 2015). As there are a lot of questions to be asked, a few are only chosen to be raised by a process called “The Shuffle”, which is, to quote Kelly’s words (2015) “a lottery, randomly choosing 15 Members whose name will go on the Order Paper to ask questions to the Prime Minister” (p. 5). In PMQs, MPs will be either friends or foes. Two kinds of questions are asked: negative and positive. Negative questions are raised by front- and backbenchers of the opposition whereas positive questions are raised by front- and backbenchers of the PM. The former is said to be critical in nature, allowing MPs to “put pressure on the government to respond to issues they might rather avoid” (Bevan & John, 2015, p. 3). Whereas, the latter is friendlier, shedding light on the bright side of the Government’s actions and policies.

On the other hand, the Iraqi Parliament has two types of sessions: regular and extraordinary. The regular sessions are held along the four-year legislative term. While the extraordinary sessions are held upon the request of the President of the Republic, the Prime Minister, the Speaker of the Council of Representatives, or fifty members of the Council of Representatives. This kind of session discusses subjects like economic crisis, war and natural disasters. The Iraqi Constitution grants the Council of Representatives permission to monitor the performance of the Executive Authority through Parliamentary Questions. Iraqi MPs can question the President of the Republic,
the PM and the Ministers. However, certain procedures need to be taken into consideration. Questioning the President of the Republic must be based on a petition made by an absolute majority of the members of the Council of Representatives. While inquiring about a policy and the performance of the Council of Ministers or one of the Ministers requires at least twenty-five members in order to be submitted to the Speaker of the Council of Representatives. MPs are allowed to ask the PM and Ministers on any subject within their specialty. Each one of them must answer the members’ questions. It is not allowed for other MPs to comment on the answer (Iraqi Constitution). Similar to the traditions of the British Parliament, Iraqi MPs can question members of the Presidency Council, the PM, his deputies, ministers, deputy ministers, or other members of the government or leaders of independent commissions, and offices in written form, with notification of the Presidency Commission. This means that there will be time for answers to be prepared prior to the Question Session. Questions may be concerned with any subject the MP has no knowledge about, or to know what the government intends to do regarding a particular issue. MPs can also ask oral questions that are closely related to the main question (parliament.iq). However, the number of questions that are asked by the Member is not specified (Iraqi Constitution).

**Brown and Levinson’s (1987) Model of Politeness**

Despite numerous contributions to the theory of politeness, the highly influential work of Brown and Levinson (1987) is still regarded the most comprehensive one (Eelen, 2001; Leech, 2005). The components of their politeness theory are: face, face-threatening acts (FTAs) and positive and negative politeness strategies.

Face is an important notion in relation to politeness theories. Brown and Levinson’s (1987, p. 61) notion of face as “the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself” is adopted from Goffman (1967, p. 5) who defines face as a “positive social value a person effectively claims for himself by the line others assume he has taken during a particular contact”. Brown and Levinson’s (1987) concept of face is twofold: the positive face which is every member's desire to be desirable to at least some other members, and the negative face which is every competent adult member's desire for others not to impede his/her actions. To Brown and Levinson (1987), a face-threatening act (FTA) is the one that runs against the face wants of the addressee and/or the speaker. In other words, it damages the positive or negative face of a speaker or hearer. It is almost impossible to satisfy all face wants, either positive or negative, of either the speaker or hearer. However, the need to be polite is a necessary component of friendly communication and involves the redressing of positive and negative face through a number of strategies. Brown and Levinson (1987) provide four politeness strategies: bold on record, positive politeness, negative politeness and off-record which are schematized in Figure one:

![Figure 1. Brown and Levinson's (1987, p. 60) scheme of politeness strategies](image-url)
A participant may choose to go on-record to deliver the message unambiguously. This has the implication that the participant does not want to minimize any threat to H’s face. Brown and Levinson (1987) believe that there are two options for speakers to choose from: (a) doing an act “without a redressive action, badly” or (b) doing an act with a redressive action through the use of positive and negative politeness strategies. The former is meant to do an act “in the most direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way possible”. The latter is intended to give “face to the addressee” and “counteract the potential face damage of the FTA” (p. 69). As for positive politeness strategies, they seek to mitigate the threat to H’s positive face. Foley (1997) states that “the speaker (S) indicates his recognition that the hearer (H) wishes to have his positive-face wants honored” (p. 271). These positive strategies are usually used by speakers who know their hearers quite well. Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 103-129) propose fifteen positive politeness strategies which include:

Strategy 1: Notice, attend, to H (interests, wants, needs, goods)
Strategy 2: Exaggerate (interest, approval, sympathy with).
Strategy 3: Intensify interest to H.
Strategy 4: Use in-group identity markers.
Strategy 5: Seek agreement.
Strategy 6: Avoid disagreement.
Strategy 7: Presuppose / raise / assert common ground.
Strategy 8: Joke.
Strategy 9: Assert or Presuppose S's knowledge of and concern for H's wants.
Strategy 10: Offer, Promise.
Strategy 11: Be optimistic.
Strategy 12: Include both S and H in the activity.
Strategy 13: Give (or ask for) reasons.
Strategy 14: Assume or assert reciprocity.
Strategy 15: Give gifts to the H (goods, sympathy, understanding cooperation).

Speakers, on the other hand, employ negative politeness to mitigate the imposition of particular impositions on the addresses. Brown and Levinson (1987, pp. 132-210) name ten negative politeness strategies, these are:

Strategy 1: Be conventionally indirect.
Strategy 2: Questions, hedge.
Strategy 3: Be pessimistic.
Strategy 4: Minimize the imposition.
Strategy 5: Give deference.
Strategy 6: Apologize.
Strategy 7: Impersonalize S and H.
Strategy 8: Generalize the FTA as a rule, regulation, or obligation to disassociate S and H from imposition.
Strategy 9: Nominalize.
Strategy 10: Go on record as incurring a debt, or as not indebting H.

The last of these strategies is doing FTAs off-record which entails, as Brown and Levinson (1987) show, the conveyance of numerable communicative intentions by the speaker’s
communicative action. In other words, no specific or explicit intention is revealed. This shields the speaker against being held responsible for doing an FTA and keeps all options on the table for the addressee to elicit the desired intention. In order for this to happen, the speaker violates the Cooperative Principle and its maxims. Brown & Levinson (ibid.) exhibit fifteen strategies for doing off-record FTAs which invite conversational implicatures via hints triggered by violation of Grice's Maxims of relevance, quantity, and quality or result in vagueness and ambiguity through the violation of the maxim of manner as shown below:

Violating Relevance Maxim
Strategy 1: Give hints.
Strategy 2: Give association clues.
Strategy 3: Presuppose.
Strategy 4: Understate.

Violating Quantity Maxim
Strategy 5: Overstate.
Strategy 6: Use tautologies.
Strategy 7: Use contradictions.

Violating Quality Maxim
Strategy 8: Be ironic.
Strategy 9: Use metaphors.
Strategy 10: Use rhetorical questions.

Violating Manner Maxim
Strategy 11: Be ambiguous.
Strategy 12: Be vague.
Strategy 14: Displace H
Strategy 15: Be incomplete, use ellipsis.

**Culpeper's (1996) Model of Impoliteness**

Culpeper’s framework of impoliteness is based on Brown and Levinson’s (1987) politeness theory. He argues that Brown and Levinson’s account of impoliteness is marginal to everyday conversation. He urges the need for establishing an analytical framework of impoliteness (Mullany & Stockwell, 2010). In his model, Culpeper analyzes conflictive and impolite illocutions in U.S. army training discourse and many other discourses. This makes Culpeper’s (1996) model more reliable than other models.

Culpeper (1996) looks at the other face of the coin and states that “instead of enhancing or supporting face, impoliteness super strategies are a means of attacking face” (p. 8). He describes them as follows:

- Bald on record impoliteness – the FTA is performed in a direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way in circumstances where face is not irrelevant or minimized.
- Positive impoliteness – the use of strategies designed to damage the addressee’s positive face wants.
- Negative impoliteness – the use of strategies designed to damage the addressee’s negative face wants.
- Sarcasm or mock politeness – the FTA is performed with the use of politeness strategies that are obviously insincere, and thus remain surface realizations.
- Withhold politeness – the absence of politeness work where it would be expected.

  Culpeper (1996, pp. 357-358) also proposes sub-strategies to positive output strategies:
  - Ignore, snub the other – fail to acknowledge the other’s presence.
  - Exclude the other from an activity.
  - Disassociate from the other – for example, deny association or common ground with the other; avoid sitting together.
  - Be disinterested, unconcerned, unsympathetic.
  - Use inappropriate identity markers – for example, use title and surname when a close relationship pertains, or a nickname when a distant relationship pertains.
  - Use obscure or secretive language – for example, mystify the other with jargon, or use a code known to others in the group, but not the target.
  - Seek disagreement – select a sensitive topic.
  - Make the other feel uncomfortable – for example, do not avoid silence, joke, or use small talk.
  - Use taboo words – swear, or use abusive or profane language.
  - Call the other names – use derogatory nominations.

Sub-strategies to negative output strategies involve:
  - Frighten – instill a belief that action detrimental to the other will occur.
  - Condescend, scorn or ridicule – emphasize your relative power. Be contemptuous.
  - Do not treat the other seriously.
  - Belittle the other (e.g. use diminutives).
  - Invade the other’s space – literally or metaphorically.
  - Explicitly associate the other with a negative aspect – personalize, use the pronouns ‘I’ and ‘you’.
  - Put the other’s indebtedness on record.

**Grice’s Cooperative Principle**

In 1975, Paul Grice introduced the Cooperative Principle, which reads “Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged” (p. 45). The Cooperative Principle allows language users to communicate cooperatively to be understood in a particular context. Bach (2006) captures this observation when he divides a speaker’s participation into two layers: what is said and what is implicated. He also notes that what a speaker means by his/her utterances may not be explicitly available to listeners.

Under the cooperative principle, Grice (1975: 45-46) lists four maxims:

1. **Quantity**
   Make your contribution as informative as is required.
   Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

2. **Quality**
Do not say what you believe to be false.
Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

3. **Relation**
   Make your contributions relevant.

4. **Manner**
   Avoid ambiguity.
   Avoid obscurity of expression.
   Be brief.
   Be orderly.

Grice believes that following the cooperative principle and its maxims marks participants as rational agents. However, there are situations where language users may fail to fulfill the maxims in four ways: violating, flouting, opting out and classing. As far as this study is concerned, violating the maxims is going to be the main focus.

Violating Grice's maxims results in four strategies which include:

1. **Fabrication** violates the maxim of quality. It can take the form of saying something that is completely false or failure to provide adequate evidence. (Gupta, Sakamoto & Ortony, 2012)
2. **Concealment.** Ekman (2009) considers concealment a deliberative act of withholding information. Hiding information results in the violation of the maxim of quantity when the speaker provides insufficient information or more information than is required in a specific situation.
3. **Vagueness.** This is a strategy which is employed to create a fuzzy image in the mind of people to shield themselves against possible attacks and direct the attention towards unimportant things.
4. **Evasion.** Fraser (2010) defines evasion as the failure that the hearer experiences when he/she receives information from the speaker that does not fit his/her expectation. Evasion might be the most powerful defensive strategy which is exploited to avoid unveiling correct information that may have potential damage to one's positions.

**Rhetorical Devices**

As has already been mentioned, combining both pragmatics and rhetoric within the same framework is useful in illustrating both the communicative intention and the intention of persuasion which occur in most communicative uses of language (Larrazabal & Korta, 2002). McQuarrie and Mick (1996) maintain that rhetorical devices are strategically utilized in persuasion to deliver more effective forms of expression than those of the literal meaning of the propositional content. To them, a rhetorical figure of speech such as hyperbole, litotes, irony, metaphor, number-game, and shifting blame, to name but a few is “an artful deviation in the form” that is used to convey unconventional meaning.

**Pragmatics of Blame and Blame Avoidance**

The ritualized character of parliamentary discourse is governed by traditions, rules and regulations. Rules and rituals are not unified in all parliaments but they all require particular linguistic choices. MPs do not use any kind of language. Instead, social and institutional norms of their culture restrict their access to certain language forms. All parliaments serve similar goals. Still, there are some linguistic and non-linguistic variables that make parliaments dissimilar. These
include observing certain rules of politeness, tolerating aggressive linguistic choices, utilizing concepts of irony and humor, etc (Bayley, 2004).

There is no doubt that parliamentary discourse is adversarial. MPs often criticize and/or accuse each other or government ministers for some policies or actions provided that they prove them with evidence. In other words, MPs exchange blame and denial regarding domestic or global issues. In Alasko's (2011) opinion, blame is manifested through criticism, accusation, punishment and humiliation. With these strategies in mind, blame can detect fault with another individual or a group. Hence, blame is a powerful tool that can be used for better or worse. One of the requirements of ‘blame’ is the occurrence of two actors: a blame maker or ‘blamer’, and blame taker or ‘blamee’ (Hood, 2011). In the parliamentary setting, which is characterized by conflict talk (Wodak, 2006), government MPs and opponent parties exchange blame over recent policies and actions that each believes to be true from their standpoint. As such, an MP can be a blame maker one day and a blame taker the other. However, blame can be highly risky in parliamentary discourse. If a blame maker cannot prove an MP or another government officeholder blameworthy, he/she may lose credibility, worsen the issue under discussion or be the subject of blame him/herself. As such, a blame maker should be very careful while attributing blame.

Blame frustrates people and, ultimately, does not let them “speak up or take the right action” when they should (Dattner, 2011, p. 2). Thus, to be on the safe side, blame takers blame the act of blame itself and try their best to prove its misplacement on an individual or group. In other words, they avoid blame by denying their “agency, competence, and responsibility for the unfavorable outcome” (Tilly, 2008, p. 103), in the belief that fingers should, rather, be pointed at others who are blameworthy. Accordingly, blame takers utilize various blame avoidance strategies which include among many others: 'limiting the agenda' which aims to prevent politically harmful issues from being established in the first place, 'finger-pointing' when politicians may resort to pass the responsibility for a decision on some other party or government officeholder, 'shifting blame' which politicians use when the responsibility for an unfavorable decision cannot be placed on someone else, so they try to shift blame or find a scapegoat, 'denial' as when politicians try their best to prove that there is no problem at all to eliminate the rise of blame, and 'lying' which politicians practice to protect themselves against possible reputation damaging acts. Dijk (2008) sees lying as “a verbal act that involves the illegitimate manipulation of knowledge in interaction and communication” (pp. 245-246). Generally, lying violates the ethical norms of truthfulness that form the basis of all human interaction.

From a pragmatic perspective, parliamentarians are supposed to act and interact with each other using various strategies which include politeness strategies, impoliteness strategies, and strategies of violating Grice’s maxims. Lakoff (1975) views politeness as a set of strategies intended to mitigate dispute in communication. Leech (1980) defines politeness as a means of “strategic conflict avoidance” (p. 18). With reference to face-saving, Goffman (1972) indicates that “the person will have two points of view – a defensive orientation toward saving his own face and a protective orientation toward saving the other’s face” (p. 325). As such, the defensive theme of Lakoff’s definition is intended to save a speaker’s face while the protective theme of Leech’s definition is meant to save the other’s face. Rather than dealing with politeness, Culpeper, Eelen and Bousfield have taken the opposite direction, i.e. impoliteness. They argue that politeness
theories deal with impoliteness superficially and inadequately. Culpeper (1996) defines impoliteness as the use of strategies that are intended to cause social disruption. This definition goes directly against Brown and Levinson’s (1987) definition of politeness. Eelen (2001) points out that politeness and impoliteness are related to each other. She believes that they represent two sides of the same coin. In other words, people’s interaction is either positive (polite) or negative (impolite). Eelen (2001) mentions two possibilities: first, “impoliteness is doubly negatively defined: as the absence of politeness which results from the absence of cultural scripts”, and second, “the conceptualization of impoliteness as a conscious act in its own right” (p. 100). As for the last set of strategies, Grice believes that following the cooperative principle and its maxims marks participants as rational agents. However, there are situations where language users may fail to fulfill the maxims in four ways: violating, flouting, opting out and classing. The major focus in this study is violating the maxims which results in a set of strategies which include fabrication, concealment, vagueness, and evasion.

In their exchanges of adversarial, challenging, and often mutually accusatory replies (Ilie, 2015), blame makers and blame takers may have recourse to a set of rhetorical strategies. Rhetoric changes reality by creating a discourse in which the audience is so immersed. In this context, rhetoric is persuasive. The relationship between pragmatics and rhetoric is deeply rooted. Bitzer (1968) states that “a work of rhetoric is pragmatic; it comes into existence for the sake of something beyond itself” (pp. 3-4). Ionescu-Ruxăndoiu (2012) asserts that pragmatics and rhetoric share the same objectives: language in use and the intentionality to produce certain effects on the addressee. This link is also asserted by Archer, Aijmer and Wichmann (2012) who assert that a pragmatic view of language implies the use of language to affect others and alter their actions in certain ways. Larrazabal and Korta (2002) claim that a ‘pragma-rhetorical’ perspective would be useful in illustrating the “intentional phenomena that occur in most communicative uses of language, namely, the communicative intention and the intention of persuading” (pp. 1-2). Therefore, rhetorical devices, such as figures of speech, can be useful to deliver powerful messages that are persuasive in a certain context.

It is noteworthy that the aforementioned pragmatic and rhetorical strategies represent the components of an eclectic model which constitutes the basic apparatus for systematizing the data obtained from the analysis of both British and Iraqi corpora in the present study.

Methodology

Research Design

In the current study a combination of qualitative and quantitative approaches is used for the investigation of British and Iraqi corpora with respect to the strategies utilized in the interrogation process. According to Duff (2010), “quantitative and qualitative approaches are currently viewed as complementary rather than fundamentally incompatible, and a more mixed-paradigm research is recommended” (p. 54). Qualitative research serves to answer questions which begin with: Why? How? In what way? (Hancock, 1998). To enhance the qualitative approach, the researcher adopts the quantitative approach to subject the analyzed data to statistical treatment to “support or refute alternate knowledge claims” (Williams, 2007, p. 66).
Corpus Description

Eight British and Iraqi transcripts of parliamentary sessions dated from 2016 to 2019 will be examined as a first stage in the analysis to obtain an overview of how certain goals are achieved by examining the pragmatic and pragma-rhetorical strategies detected in British and Iraqi corpora to find out which of these strategies are more characteristic of the British and Iraqi parliamentary discourse and which are more frequently used than others in the British and Iraqi texts by conducting a statistical analysis. It is worth mentioning that the transcripts have been downloaded from the official websites https://hansard.parliament.uk and https://www.parliament.iq respectively but the data selected for analysis comprises a set of excerpts representing those conversational interactions which exhibit noticeable blame and blame avoidance acts. Tables one and two provide a description of the British and Iraqi corpora selected for the analysis in this study.

Table 1. Description of British data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No</th>
<th>Speakers</th>
<th>Status of Speakers</th>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Setting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Theresa May, Jeremy Corbyn</td>
<td>Leader of the Conservative Party and the PM, Leader of the Labor Party</td>
<td>Brexit plan, Customs, Jobs</td>
<td>9th May, 2019 Palace of Westminster (London)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>David Cameron, Jeremy Corbyn</td>
<td>Leader of the Conservative Party and the PM, Leader of the Labor Party</td>
<td>Economy, Poverty, Cuts</td>
<td>9th March, 2016 Palace of Westminster (London)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Description of Iraqi data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Speakers</th>
<th>Status of Speakers</th>
<th>Topics</th>
<th>Setting</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S1</td>
<td>Hanan Al-Fatlawi, Qasim Al-Fahdawi</td>
<td>- MP, - Minister of Electricity</td>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>31st January, 2018/Baghdad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S2</td>
<td>Abdulrazq Mehebis, Qasim Al-Fahdawi</td>
<td>- MP, - Minister of Electricity</td>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>3rd February, 2018/Baghdad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S3</td>
<td>Haitham Al-Jubori, Hoshyar Zebari</td>
<td>- MP, - Minister of Finance</td>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>25th August, 2016/Baghdad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S4</td>
<td>Awad Al-Awadi, Adeela Hmood</td>
<td>- MP, - Minister of Health</td>
<td>Corruption</td>
<td>1st April, 2017/Baghdad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Analytical Model

An eclectic model which draws upon ideas and assumptions adopted from a set of paradigms, which were introduced in the literature review, has been developed to accord with the achievement of the aims of the study and the verification or rejection of its hypotheses. It is divided into two stages: blame and blame avoidance. Each stage comprises, as an analytical tool, a set of pragmatic and pragma-rhetorical strategies adopted from the following four paradigms.

Figures one and two graph the analytical model which comprises a set of strategies utilized at the blame and blame avoidance stages in the parliamentary setting. This model has been developed from the four paradigms already discussed.

Figure 2. The eclectic model of the blame stage

Figure 3. The eclectic model of the blame avoidance stage
Results and Discussion

British Data

At the pragmatic level, the statistical analysis of the British corpus which comprises four Parliamentary Question sessions reveals the following rates and frequencies of the strategies used at both blame and blame avoidance stages as detailed in table three:

Table 3. Overall frequencies of pragmatic strategies detected at the blame and blame avoidance stages in British sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Pragmatic Strategies</th>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Violation of G's Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blame Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>105</td>
<td>43.5</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>50.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blame Avoidance Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>245</td>
<td>64.9</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>350</td>
<td>56.6</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>32.03</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

To begin with, a close examination of these statistics shows that out of the (619) strategies used at both stages politeness ones have the highest frequency with (350) instances making up 56.6% while impoliteness as well as violation of G's maxims strategies show less frequency with (199) and (70) instances constituting 32.03% and 11.3% respectively, these results suggest that politicians in the British parliament appraise avoidance by being indirect.

As for the pragmatic strategies utilized at the blame stage, both politeness and impoliteness strategies were found to be somehow equal in rates making up 43.5% and 50.6% respectively, this reflects a preference on the part of blamers to use a strategic method which is to prove blamees blameworthy especially with regard to issues which the former believes to be true from their standpoint but at the same time they tend to avoid conflict by saving blamees' face which is necessary even in a political setting like the Parliament. In this respect, Sheridan (2013, p. 4-5) writes: "We need politeness when we criticize others, give negative feedback, or do things that threaten people’s ego and face, so as to allow social interactions to communicate face-threatening information while simultaneously showing concern for others". Only (15) instances representing the violation of Gricean maxims strategies at the blame stage were spotted in the data analyzed forming 6.2% of the strategies used at this stage due to both blamers and blamee's realization of the importance of the critical issues being discussed where there is no room for any of the deceptive strategies.

Regarding the strategies used at the blame avoidance stage, the data under analysis reveal that politeness strategies represent (245) instances making up the highest rate of frequency 64.9% in comparison with (77) instances of impoliteness strategies and (55) instances of violating Gricean
maxims forming only 20.4% and 14.5% respectively. The high frequency of politeness strategies conveys that blame takers prefer to take a defensive position and obey Erskine May's (1844) *Treatise on the law, privileges, proceedings and usage of Parliament* that prevents conflicts. The lower instances of impoliteness strategies and the violations of Gricean maxims indicate that blame takers are more careful with their statements than blame makers to avoid escalating things and, therefore, escape blame.

As regards pragma-rhetorical strategies whose rates and frequencies of occurrence are detailed in table four, the data under analysis revealed that they are more frequently used at the blame avoidance stage than they are at the blame stage with 54.5% and 45.5% respectively. This suggests that those politicians are primarily motivated by their desire to avoid blame leading them to adopt a variety of pragma-rhetorical strategies, including hyperbole, number-game, shifting, litotes, metaphor, and irony, for fear of their reputations being diminished and their careers being damaged as a result.

Table 4. Overall frequencies of pragma-rhetorical strategies detected at the blame and blame avoidance stages in British sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Pragma Rhetorical Strategies</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Blame Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>71</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blame Avoidance Stage</td>
<td></td>
<td>85</td>
<td>54.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Blame Stage**

**Politeness Strategies**

As shown in table five the total number of politeness strategies at the blame stage is (105) among which positive strategies constitute the highest proportion with (55) instances making up 52.3% in the four sessions. Negative strategies come in the second place with (31) instances representing 29.5% followed by (19) instances which stand for bald off-record strategies making up 18.09%. Positive strategies have scored higher because blame makers want to protect the positive face of their counterparts by having their views and actions supported within the Parliament. In other words, they help politicians accept the personalities and policies of their interlocutors to eliminate doubt and establish solidarity and cooperation to ease the questioning process.
Table 5. *Overall frequencies of the politeness strategies detected at the blame stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Politeness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Politeness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bald off-Record</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>No. %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>55 52.3</td>
<td>31 29.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The beginning is with positive politeness strategies whose frequencies and percentages are detailed in table six.

Table 6. *A detailed description of the overall frequencies of positive politeness strategies detected in the four sessions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Positive Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Include both S and H in the activity</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Give (or ask for) reasons</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Notice, attend, to H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>No. %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3 5.5</td>
<td>4 7.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4 7.3</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>16 29.1</td>
<td>2 3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>22 40</td>
<td>2 3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>45 81.8</td>
<td>8 14.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Looking at the percentages of occurrence of positive politeness strategies, it can be noted that the Strategy ‘Include both S and H in the same activity’ is far more frequently used than Strategies ‘Give (or ask for) reasons’ and ‘Notice, attend, to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)’ having the frequency of 81.8 %, 14.5% and 3.6% respectively. This is mainly because politicians primarily aim to achieve cooperation with their interlocutors and mitigate FTAs to save their face from being damaged.

In the second place come negative politeness strategies which amount to (31) instances as shown in table seven which provides a detailed statistical analysis of each of these strategies which were found to be used in the British setting.
Table 7. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of negative politeness strategies in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Questions, hedge</th>
<th>Be pessimistic</th>
<th>Minimize the imposition</th>
<th>Impersonalize S and H</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>22.6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>38.7</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for Strategies ‘Questions, hedge’ and ‘Be pessimistic’, a close approximation is noticed between their percentages 38.7% and 35.5% respectively in comparison with Strategies ‘Minimize the imposition’ and ‘Impersonalize S and H’ having the frequencies of 19.2% and 6.4% respectively. The dominance of Strategies ‘Questions, hedge’ and ‘Be pessimistic’ shows that blame makers do not want to coerce nor assume that H is likely to do something (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

The only bald off-record strategy detected in the British corpus at the blame stage is 'presupposition' whose ratios of occurrence in the four British sessions are detailed in table eight. It is worth noting that this type of strategies is used far less than both positive and negative politeness strategies with (19) instances only. The reason behind its low occurrence can possibly be attributed to the fact that politicians do not want to leave the addressee with a number of interpretations that may arise from going off-record. Rather, they try their best to attribute clear communicative intentions to their acts (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

Table 8. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of bald off-record strategies in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Presupposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impoliteness Strategies

The statistical analysis of impoliteness strategies which total (122) revealed a close approximation in the statistical results between positive strategies which constitute (63) instances typifying 51.6%, which is only 3.3% higher than negative strategies which amount to 48.3% with (59) instances. These approximate results indicate that blame makers want to severely damage the addressee’s face and wants by seeking disagreement, using derogatory nominations, explicitly associating them with negative acts, making the other feel uncomfortable, etc.

Table 9. Overall frequencies of the impoliteness strategies detected at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Positive Impoliteness</th>
<th>Negative Impoliteness</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>63</td>
<td>51.6</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>48.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning the occurrence of positive impoliteness strategies, the findings in table ten show clearly that there is more preference for Strategy ‘Make the other feel uncomfortable’ than strategies ‘Disassociate from the other’, ‘Seek disagreement’, and ‘Call the other names’ with 92.05%, 3.15%, 3.2%, and 1.6% respectively. This is because blame makers want to push the pressure on their counterparts to the extreme to question their competency as Ministers and make them feel insecure in the questioning process itself to increase the possibility of damage caused to their political status and disclose their failing actions and policies.

Table 10. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the positive impoliteness strategies detected at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Make the other feel uncomfortable</th>
<th>Disassociate from the other</th>
<th>Call the other names</th>
<th>Seek disagreement</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>49.2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>92.05</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As for negative impoliteness strategies whose percentages of occurrence in the four sessions are detailed in table 11, the results indicated that the Strategy of ‘Explicitly associating the other with a negative aspect’ is by far the most frequently used strategy with 79.6% in comparison with ‘Condescend, scorn or ridicule’ which records 20.3% only. This reflects the blame makers’ obsession with attributing blame towards their counterparts by explicitly associating them with negative actions and policies to ruin their reputation and make them lose power and position.

Table 11. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the negative impoliteness strategies detected at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Explicitly associate the other with a negative aspect</th>
<th>Condescend, scorn or ridicule</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11.8</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>32.2</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>79.6</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Violation of Grice's Maxims Strategies

Regarding the violation of Grice’s maxims strategies, table 12 makes clear that fabrication is far more frequently used than vagueness with (14) instances for the former vs one instance only for the latter making up 93.3% and 6.6% respectively. This demonstrates that blame makers want to intentionally create false beliefs in the minds of others to make them easy to control and deceive unlike vagueness which, according to Zhang (2011), can be passive when a speaker has no other choice due to the lack of knowledge.

Table 12. Overall frequencies of the violation of Grice's maxims detected at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Violation of Grice's Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fabrication</td>
<td>Vagueness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>93.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The incidence of these two strategies in the four sessions is detailed in table 13.
Table 13. *A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the violation of Grice's maxims strategies detected at the blame stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Violation of Grice's Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fabrication</td>
<td>Vagueness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>13.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>93.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pragma-Rhetorical Strategies**

As explicated in table 14, a modest approximation is noticed between number-game and hyperbole with 47.9% and 42.3% respectively in comparison with metaphor and litotes which are manifested poorly with only (4) and (3) instances making 5.6% and 4.2% of the total number of pragma-rhetorical strategies at this stage. No instances representing irony were detected in the data under analysis. This is because politicians want to attribute blame acts directly to their counterparts. In other words, the real meaning is not hidden or contradicted by the literal meaning of the words.

Table 14. *A detailed description of the overall frequencies of pragma-rhetorical strategies detected at the blame stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Number-Game</th>
<th>Hyperbole</th>
<th>Metaphor</th>
<th>Litotes</th>
<th>Irony</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.2%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.8%</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11.3%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>34</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42.3%</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Blame Avoidance Stage**

**Politeness Strategies**

Examining the statistics provided in table 15, it can be clearly shown that positive politeness strategies have the majority percentage which is 80% with (196) instances out of the total (245) whereas negative politeness strategies and off-record ones show minor percentages which are 13.1% and 6.9% with only (32) and (17) instances respectively. The high occurrences of positive politeness strategies reflect the desire to fulfill one’s positive face which include claiming...
familiarity with the addressee, minimizing the distance between S and H, and conveying that S and H are cooperators. In other words, blamed politicians’ best option is to use intimate language to ease the questioning process in the parliament and minimize possible FTAs in this conflictive setting.

Table 15. *Overall frequencies of the politeness strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Politeness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Politeness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bald off-Record</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Positive politeness strategies constitute the highest proportion at the blame avoidance stage are given a statistically detailed description for their use in each session in table 16 where it can be noticed that the positive strategy ‘Include both S and H in the same activity’ records the highest percentage. This can be attributed to the fact that blame takers strive to involve themselves with their counterparts in the same unsuccessful policies and actions that have created the state of conflict to the level of exchanging blame, using the inclusive ‘we’ and its variant ‘our’.

Table 16. *A detailed description of the overall frequencies of positive politeness strategies detected in the four sessions*
Among negative politeness strategies which show poor presence in the four British sessions as made clear in table 17, the strategy of ‘Question, hedge’ was found to be utilized by politicians more often than others. This explains the blame takers’ avoidance of conveying sharp opinions to evade future retribution if they were proved wrong.

Table 17. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of negative politeness strategies in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Negative Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question, hedge</td>
<td>Be pessimistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Bald off record strategies at the blame avoidance stage have the lowest number of occurrences in the four sessions represented only by ‘Presupposition’ as made clear in table 18. This is due to the fact that blame takers are not afraid of performing FTAs against their opponents to save their face at any cost in a clear, direct way.

Table 18. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of bald off-record strategies in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Presupposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Impoliteness Strategies

As regards impoliteness strategies, the data under analysis revealed a close approximation in the statistical results between positive and negative impoliteness strategies recording (33) and (32) instances respectively as shown in table 19. These statistical results are compatible with the politicians’ desire in this setting to undermine the personal features of their counterparts, with their intention to take the questioning process personally to ruin their reputation and underestimate the alleged successes they had achieved in their ministries. Moreover, blame takers want to impede the questioning process to limit the blame makers’ freedom in scrutinizing the Government and its Ministers.

Table 19. Overall frequencies of the impoliteness strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Positive Impoliteness</th>
<th>Negative Impoliteness</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33 50.7</td>
<td>32 49.2</td>
<td>65 10.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Tables 20 and 21 give a detailed statistical analysis of the occurrences of these two types of impoliteness strategies observed in the four sessions at the blame avoidance stage. Among positive impoliteness strategies it can be seen that the Strategy 'Disassociate from the other' constitutes the highest proportion with 54.5% whereas among negative impoliteness strategies there is a bigger tendency to use 'Explicitly associate the other with a negative aspect' Strategy than 'Condescend, scorn or ridicule' strategy representing 71.8% and 28.1% respectively. The statistics computed coincides with the fact that blame takers do their best to disassociate themselves from unfavorable actions and policies while, at the same time, redirecting them at the blame makers to avoid blame and accountability.

Table 20. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the positive impoliteness strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage

| Sessi
on No. | Disassociate from the other | Seek disagreement | Make the other feel uncomfortable | Call the other names | Total |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pragmatics of Political Blame in British and Iraqi Parliaments

Saleem & Alattar

Table 21: A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the negative impoliteness strategies detected at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Explicitly associate the other with a negative aspect</th>
<th>Condescend, scorn or ridicule</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>71.9</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Violation of Grice’s maxims Strategies

A detailed statistical account of the rates and frequencies of Gricean strategies which politicians were observed to violate at the blame avoidance stage is produced in table 22 where it can be noticed that ‘evasion’ appears to be the strategy that was more frequently violated than others having a frequency rate at 58.2%, a statistical result which is normally expected, for ‘evasion’ is a technique which politicians resort to in order to cope with blame makers’ questions and interruptions which may cause possible threats to the former’s face, hence they avoid giving answers to questions.

Table 22: Overall frequencies of the violation of Grice’s maxims detected at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Violation of Grice’s Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evasion</td>
<td>Fabrication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32</td>
<td>58.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 23 provides a detailed statistical analysis of the violation of the strategies of Gricean maxims in each of the four sessions.

Table 23. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the violation of Grice's maxims strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Evasion</th>
<th>Fabrication</th>
<th>Concealment</th>
<th>Vagueness</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.65</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10.9</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>58.2</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>21.85</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pragma-rhetorical Strategies

Calculating the frequencies of pragma-rhetorical strategies at the blame avoidance stage revealed that hyperbole and number-game record the highest ratios among other strategies recognized in the data under analysis with a close approximation in their statistical results accounting for 39.9% and 31.7% respectively as detailed in table 24. In the face of blame makers’ endless attacks, ministers are inclined to magnify their alleged successes in running their ministries which are enhanced by statistics to add credibility to their utterances and prove themselves blameless.

Table 24. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of pragma-rhetorical strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Hyperbole</th>
<th>Number-Game</th>
<th>Shifting Blame</th>
<th>Litotes</th>
<th>Metaphor</th>
<th>Irony</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.35</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Iraqi Data

A detailed statistical account of the rates and frequencies of pragmatic and pragma-rhetorical strategies which have been detected in the Iraqi corpus represented by four Parliamentary sessions at both blame and blame avoidance stages is explicated in table 25. A close examination of these
statistics reveals that out of the (537) strategies used at both stages impoliteness ones occupy the highest frequency with (341) instances making up 63.5% while politeness as well as violation of G’s maxims strategies show less frequency with (110) and (86) instances constituting 20.4% and 16% respectively out of the overall ratio. The high percentages that impoliteness strategies have scored indicate that politicians in the Iraqi parliament prefer to take offensive standpoints at both stages to intentionally cause damage as much as possible to their counterparts for the sake of winning and proving themselves blameless.

As for the pragmatic strategies utilized at the blame stage, impoliteness strategies were also found to score higher than others in rates making up 84.2% with 9.5% for politeness strategies. This reflects a preference on the part of blamers to use direct strategies of blame which usually create conflict between politicians to raise the possibility of damaging blamees’ face. This also reflects the politicians’ desire to violate the social norms and values that are expected to be followed by each individual for the sake of proving their standpoints. Only (17) instances representing the violation of Gricean’s maxims strategies at the blame stage were spotted in the data analyzed forming 6.2% of the strategies used at this stage due to both blamers and blamee's realization of the importance of the critical issues being discussed where there is no room for any deception or manipulation.

Regarding the strategies used at the blame avoidance stage, the data under analysis reveal that impoliteness strategies represent (111) instances making up again the highest rate of frequency 42.04% in comparison with (84) instances of politeness strategies and (69) instances which represent the violation of Gricean maxims strategies forming only 31.8% and 26.1% respectively. This demonstrates that politicians in the Iraqi parliament always tend to use impoliteness strategies to serve one of two purposes: to defend themselves against possible blame acts that may result in the loss of their positions and ruin their reputation, or attack other politicians to prove themselves blameless and shift the blame towards some other individual or authority. Furthermore, it reveals that politicians do not always obey the Rules of Procedures of the Parliament and the Iraqi Constitution.

Table 25. Overall frequencies of pragmatic strategies detected at the blame and blame avoidance stages in Iraqi sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Pragmatic Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Politeness Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blame Stage</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blame Avoidance</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stage</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>110</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for the pragma-rhetorical strategies whose frequencies of occurrence are presented in table 26, the statistics computed reveals that they are more frequently utilized at the blame avoidance stage than they are at the blame stage reaching 64.5% compared with 35.5% of their occurrence at the blame stage. This suggests that politicians at the blame avoidance stage are more inclined to exploit
hyperbole, number-game, shifting, litotes, metaphor, and irony to have a more persuasive effect on their opponents, to persuade them into believing that they are irresponsible of wrong decisions which may have been made and that blame is baseless or, rather, it should be directed towards some other authority or individual.

Table 26. Overall frequencies of pragma-rhetorical strategies detected at the blame and blame avoidance stages in British sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stage</th>
<th>Pragma Rhetorical Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blame Stage</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blame Avoidance Stage</td>
<td>151</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Blame Stage**

**Politeness Strategies**

Table 27 shows that the total number of politeness strategies at the blame stage is (26) among which positive strategies comprise the highest proportion with (18) instances making up 69.2% in the four sessions. Negative strategies come in the second place with (8) instances representing 30.8%. The analysis of the data shows that bald off-record strategies were not employed at all. The high percentage of positive politeness shows that politicians have the desire to build up solidarity and cooperation and appraise positively and publicly their interlocutors to avoid conflict, as Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 70) state “Positive politeness is oriented toward the positive face of H, the positive self-image that he claims for himself”.

Table 27. Overall frequencies of the politeness strategies detected at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Politeness</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Politeness</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bald off-Record</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>No.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>69.2</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The beginning is with positive politeness strategies whose frequencies and percentages are detailed in table 28.
Table 28. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of positive politeness strategies detected in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Positive Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Include both S and H in the activity</td>
<td>Notice, attend, to H</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>27.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be noticed that the positive politeness strategy ‘Include both S and H in the same activity’ is far more frequently used than Strategies ‘Give (or ask for) reasons’ and ‘Notice, attend, to H (his interests, wants, needs, goods)’ having the frequency of 55.6%, 22.2% and 22.2% respectively. This amounts to the cooperative effect politicians want to establish in questioning their opponents to minimize FTA and help them get answers without damaging their face.

Negative politeness strategies come in the second place with (8) instances as shown in table 29 where the ‘Minimize the imposition’ Strategy scores the highest percentage with 75% in comparison with the Strategies ‘Question, hedge’ and ‘Impersonalize S and H’ having the lower percentages of 12.5% each. This is because politicians want to mitigate the impact of FTAs that may be found in their utterances as well as the imposition on H's freedom. The analysis of the data shows that the negative politeness strategy ‘Be pessimistic’ was not used at all.

Table 29. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of negative politeness strategies in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Negative Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minimize the imposition</td>
<td>Question, hedge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As has already been mentioned, no instances of bald off-record strategies have been spotted in the four Iraqi sessions. The reason behind the zero occurrence of this type of politeness strategies can possibly be attributed to the fact that politicians do not want their utterances to implicate a criticism (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

**Impoliteness Strategies**

The statistical analysis of impoliteness strategies with total (230) reveals a clear disparity in the results between positive strategies which constitute (145) instances typifying 63%, with (85) occurrences of negative strategies that comprise 37%. The high percentage of positive impoliteness strategies conveys the politicians’ intention to damage the addressees’ positive face wants. More specifically, it was scored more by those politicians who scrutinize government officeholders to ruin their reputation and make them lose their power.

Table 30. *Overall frequencies of the impoliteness strategies detected at the blame stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Positive Impoliteness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Impoliteness</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examining the occurrence of positive impoliteness strategies, the findings in table 31 show clearly that there is more preference for making the other feel uncomfortable than disassociating them from the other, seeking disagreement, and calling the other names, with 89%, 9.7%, and 1.4% respectively.

Table 31. *A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the positive impoliteness strategies detected at the blame stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Make the other feel uncomfortable</th>
<th>Seek disagreement</th>
<th>Disassociate from the other</th>
<th>Call the other names</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>22.1</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>20.7</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Concerning the negative impoliteness strategies whose percentages of occurrence in the four sessions are detailed in table 32, the results show that the Strategy ‘Explicitly associate the other with a negative aspect’ is by far the most frequently used strategy with 87% in comparison with the strategy ‘Condescend, scorn or ridicule’ which records 13% only. This is mainly because politicians want to damage the reputation of their counterparts permanently by associating them with negative acts that will always be remembered when their names come to the fore instead of ridiculing or scorning them for a temporary effect.

Table 32. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the negative impoliteness strategies detected at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Explicitly associate the other with a negative aspect</th>
<th>Condescend, scorn or ridicule</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 1</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 2</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 3</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Session 4</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22.4</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Violation of Grice's Maxims Strategies

As for the violation of Grice's maxims strategies, table 33 makes clear that fabrication is far more frequently used than vagueness with (16) instances for the former vs one instance only for the latter making up 94.1% and 5.9% respectively. This reflects the desire of blame makers to deviate from the truth to the extent of shaping others’ thoughts as they please by creating “distorted versions of the sensitive information” (McCornack, 1992, p. 9).

Table 33. Overall frequencies of the violation of Grice's maxims detected at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Violation of Grice's Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fabrication</td>
<td>Vagueness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The incidence of these strategies in the four sessions is detailed in table 34.
Table 34. *A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the violation of Grice's maxims strategies detected at the blame stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Violation of Grice’s Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Fabrication</td>
<td>Vagueness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>47.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>94.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pragma-Rhetorical Strategies

The statistics with regard to the pragma-rhetorical strategies identified in the Iraqi transcripts at the blame stage shows that ‘number-game’ surpasses the other strategies with 73.5% as made clear in table 35. The extensive use of the ‘number-game’ Strategy at the blame stage reflects the blame makers’ intention to add credibility to their statements and, hence, support their blame acts against their counterparts.

Table 35. *A detailed description of the overall frequencies of pragma-rhetorical strategies detected at the blame stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Number-Game</th>
<th>Hyperbole</th>
<th>Metaphor</th>
<th>Litotes</th>
<th>Irony</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.7</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.8</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Blame Avoidance Stage

Politeness Strategies

Among politeness strategies used at the blame avoidance stage table 36 shows that positive politeness strategies come in the first place with (57) instances accounting for 67.8%. The next on line is negative politeness strategies which are represented by (17) instances only forming 20.2%. Bald off-record strategies which are embodies in (10) instances stand third in line comprising
11.9%. The high percentage of positive politeness strategies explains the politician’s desire to establish harmony with his/her audience to achieve certain goals by claiming common ground with H, conveying that S and H are in cooperation, and fulfilling H’s wants (Pastor, 2001).

Table 36. Overall frequencies of the politeness strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Positive Politeness</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Negative Politeness</td>
<td>84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bald off-Record</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As for positive politeness strategies, comparing the occurrences of these strategies in the four Iraqi parliamentary sessions in table 37 shows clearly that Strategies ‘Give (or ask for) reasons’ and ‘Seek Agreement’ which have approximate percentages of occurrence recording 40.3% and 38.5 respectively are used far more often than others utilized at the blame avoidance stage. Giving reasons via the Strategy ‘Give (or ask for) reasons’ and satisfying H’s desire to be right by raising safe topics through the use of the Strategy ‘Seek Agreement’ can help politicians create harmonious environment with their counterparts to minimize their FTAs.

Table 37. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of positive politeness strategies detected in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Give (or ask for) reasons</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek Agreement</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Include Both S and H in the same activity</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Notice, attend, to H</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Offer, promise</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Be Optimistic</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sessi on No.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As regards negative politeness strategies whose distribution in the four Iraqi sessions at the blame avoidance stage is detailed in table 38, it can be observed that two strategies were found to be used more often than others: ‘Question, hedge’ which is by far the most frequently used strategy with 64.7%, next in order is ‘Impersonalize S and H’ strategy with (5) instances making up 29.4%. The
extensive use of (Question, hedge) Strategy explains the politicians’ desire to present tentative opinions to decrease the possible damage to their reputation in the future if they were proven wrong.

Table 38. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of negative politeness strategies in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Negative Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Question, hedge</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Impersonalize S and H</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Minimize the imposition</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Be pessimistic</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>35.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>64.7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The only bald off-record strategy detected at the blame avoidance stage is ‘presupposition’ whose distribution in the four sessions is detailed in table 39. As has already been mentioned, this sub-strategy has the lowest number of occurrences among positive politeness strategies.

Table 39. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of bald off-record strategies in the four sessions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Presupposition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Impoliteness Strategies
Examining the frequency of occurrence of impoliteness strategies at the blame avoidance stage in table 40 shows clearly that positive impoliteness strategies record a higher utilization rate than negative ones having frequency rates which stand at 84.6% and 15.3% respectively. The reason behind the high occurrence of positive impoliteness strategies can possibly be attributed to the fact
that blame takers’ best strategy is to target their counterparts’ personal characters and political beliefs to prove their incompetency as MP to diffuse the blame acts against them.

Table 40. *Overall frequencies of the impoliteness strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Positive Impoliteness</th>
<th>Negative Impoliteness</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seek disagreement</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>84.6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Concerning positive impoliteness strategies whose rates and frequencies are statistically described in table 41, ‘seek disagreement’ Strategy of which (71) instances were detected constitutes the highest proportion which amounts to 75.5% as compared with those instances of the other strategies detected at this stage. This amounts to the confrontational nature of Iraqi Question Time sessions where blame takers express quite publicly their rejection of the beliefs and opinions of their counterparts to cause severe damage.

Table 41. *A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the positive impoliteness strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sesson No.</th>
<th>Positive Impoliteness Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Seek disagreement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In table 42 the findings about the occurrence of negative impoliteness strategies reveal clearly that Strategy ‘condescend, scorn or ridicule’ is embodied in (17) instances accounting for 100% whereas no instances for Strategy ‘explicitly associate the other with a negative aspect’ were detected in the selected texts. This can be attributed to the fact that blame takers (Ministers) want to emphasize their power and ridicule the blame acts of their opponents to belittle them as much as possible and leave no space for blame to be attributed. In other words, they strive to emphasize their honesty and competency in running their Ministries and make fun of the questioners to highlight their ignorance of the actions and policies of the Government and its facilities.

Table 42. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the negative impoliteness strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Negative Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Condescend, scorn or ridicule</td>
<td>Explicitly associate the other with a negative aspect</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>11.7</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>88.2</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Violation of Grice’s maxims Strategies

As made clear in table 43, a comparison of the frequency rates of Gricean strategies which politicians seemed to ignore at the blame avoidance stage reveals the following results: evasion which amounts to 68.1% occupies a higher occurrence than fabrication, concealment, and vagueness which constitute 21.7%, 8.6%, and 1.4% respectively. This is a normal result in such settings because the blame takers’ priority is to prevent MPs from accessing critical information they have to save their reputation and stay in their positions as long as they can.
Table 43. Overall frequencies of the violation of Grice's maxims detected at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Violation of Grice's Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Evasion</td>
<td>Fabrication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>47</td>
<td>68.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A detailed statistical analysis of how these strategies were employed by blame takers is provided in table 44.

Table 44. A detailed description of the overall frequencies of the violation of Grice's maxims strategies detected at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Session No.</th>
<th>Violation of Grice's Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Evasion</td>
<td>Fabrication</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>30.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pragma-Rhetorical Strategies

A quantitative analysis of pragma-rhetorical strategies is presented in table 45 where we can observe that there is a tendency on the part of blame takers to use 'shifting blame' which constitutes 43.04% far more often than 'litotes', 'number-game', and 'hyperbole' with a disparity in the use of these strategies whose percentages of occurrence are 29.1%, 16.5%, and 9.9% respectively. 'Metaphor' has the lowest percentage of occurrence 1.3% with no instances of irony spotted in the data analyzed. This shows the desire of blame takers to address things directly while trying to shift the responsibility of an unfavorable decision to a scapegoat to avoid being held blameworthy. In other words, they redirect blame to previous or current officeholders’ policies and actions which has allegedly resulted in the current failures.
Comparing British and Iraqi Data

At the pragmatic level, the statistical analysis of the British and Iraqi corpora which encompass four Parliamentary Question sessions each shows the following rates and frequencies of the strategies utilized in the parliamentary setting as illustrated in table 46. The results reveal a great disparity between British and Iraqi politicians in terms of using politeness and impoliteness strategies at both stages. British politicians tend to use more politeness strategies than Iraqi ones with 56.4% and 20.5%, respectively. British politicians are expected to obey the rules of Erskine May’s (1844) Treatise on the law, privileges, proceedings and usage of Parliament. However, due to the aggressive nature of Question Time sessions, MPs utilize politeness strategies to save their opponents’ face while performing FTAs, but abide by the rules of the British Parliament at the same time. On the other hand, Iraqi parliamentarians perform rather differently by using impoliteness strategies more often than British parliamentarians do with 63.5% and 30.1% respectively. This reveals their desire to win arguments, answer questions, and ruin others’ reputation at any cost by violating the Rules of Procedure of the Iraqi Council of Representatives set in 2006. As for violations of Gricean maxims, British and Iraqi politicians perform quite similarly with 13.5% and 16% respectively.

Table 46. A comparison of British and Iraqi data in terms of pragmatic strategies used at the blame and blame avoidance stages

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Violation of G’s Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>No. %</td>
<td>No. %</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>65 43 44 29.1 25 16.5</td>
<td>15 9.9</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>15 1 10 0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Concerning the pragma-rhetorical strategies, table 47 reveals that Iraqi politicians tend to use them more often than British politicians do for the sake of persuasion and manipulation to change the addressee’s attitudes and feelings towards a particular individual or topic in both defensive and offensive positions (Mihas, 2005).

Table 47. A comparison of British and Iraq data in terms of pragma-rhetorical strategies used at the blame and blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Pragma Rhetorical Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraqi</td>
<td>234</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>390</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Blame Stage**

As illustrated in table 48, impoliteness strategies achieve the first place among other kinds of pragmatic strategies and this is evident through the high percentage of their occurrences 84.2% and 50.4% in the Iraqi and British settings respectively. The British MPs attempted to have a balance between attacking the PM and respecting the rules of the House of Commons at the same time by employing both politeness and impoliteness strategies with almost equal percentages, 43.4% and 50.4% respectively. This is mainly because direct FTAs are not acceptable and must be withdrawn or rephrased. On the other hand, Iraqi MPs have utilized impoliteness strategies 84.2% more often than politeness strategies 9.5% to convey their power and desire to defeat their counterparts at any cost, ignoring the Rules of Procedures of the Iraqi Parliament as well as the Speaker of the Council of Representatives.

Table 48. A comparison of British and Iraqi data in terms of pragmatic strategies used at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Pragmatic Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Politeness Strategies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>105</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraqi</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The findings in table 49 reveal that positive politeness strategies prevail over other politeness strategies in British and Iraqi Parliaments with 22.7% and 6.6% to minimize the threat to H’s positive face, i.e., wants, actions, values of the addressee should be desirable and approved. Positive and negative impoliteness strategies have scored approximate percentages in the British setting accounting for 26% and 24.4% respectively, since British MPs want to ruin the political status of their opponents. On the other hand, Iraqi MPs primarily employ positive impoliteness strategies more often than negative ones recording 53.1% and 31.1% respectively to emphasize the incompetency and lack of personal features of their counterparts who are expected to run high positions in the Government. It is also found that British and Iraqi MPs are inclined to create fabricated statements in the minds of the other politicians to avoid blame as these cannot be detected easily in the questioning process. In the British and Iraqi Parliaments, fabrication has scored 5.8% and 5.9% respectively, while vagueness has only hit 0.4% for each.

Table 49. A comparison of British and Iraqi data in terms of the sub-pragmatic strategies used at the blame stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Violation of G's Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive Politeness</td>
<td>Negative Politeness</td>
<td>Bald off-Record</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>22.7</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraqi</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>6.6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>2.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>7.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pertaining to the pragma-rhetorical strategies at the blame stage, table 50 shows that British politicians utilize two main strategies: 'number-game' and 'hyperbole' which amount to 47.9% and 42.3% respectively. Likewise, Iraqi politicians seem to exploit 'number-game' and 'hyperbole' as their main pragma-rhetorical strategies, scoring 73.5% and 16.9% respectively. As mentioned by Leech (1983), hyperbole is a rhetorical pragmatic strategy which magnifies some real state of affairs. As for number-game, Dijk (2000) emphasizes the point that politicians use statistics and large numbers to add credibility to their utterances and doubt to those of others. As such, these two strategies add more damaging effect to the addressee’s political status and help to prove them blameworthy.
Table 50. *A comparison of British and Iraqi data in terms of the various pragma-rhetorical strategies used at the blame stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Number-Game</th>
<th>Hyperbole</th>
<th>Litotes</th>
<th>Metaphor</th>
<th>Irony</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>47.9</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>42.3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraqi</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>73.5</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>28.6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Blame Avoidance Stage**

Table 51 reveals some differences between British and Iraqi politicians in the employment of pragmatic strategies at the blame avoidance stage. British politicians appear to take an indirect approach in facing blame attacks against them through the use of politeness strategies which have hit the highest percentage of 65%, while impoliteness strategies and the strategies of violating Gricean maxims have only scored 20.4% and 14.6% respectively. On the other hand, Iraqi politicians were clearly dependent on impoliteness strategies without showing any abidance by the rules and procedures of the parliament. This can be noticed through the highest percentage impoliteness strategies have scored which amount to 42%, while politeness strategies and the strategies of violating Gricean maxims have hit lower percentages: 31.8% and 26.1% respectively.

Table 51. *A comparison of British and Iraqi data in terms of pragmatic strategies used at the blame avoidance stage*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Violation of G's Maxims Strategies</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>245</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraqi</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>329</td>
<td>51.3</td>
<td>188</td>
<td>29.3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 52, British and Iraqi politicians seem to perform similarly as regards politeness strategies and the strategies of violating Gricean maxims. As for politeness strategies, positive ones have scored the highest percentages, which amount to 53.7% and 21.6% in the British and Iraqi settings.
respectively, and this reflects the cooperative effect these politicians strive to establish with their counterparts to ease the questioning process and underestimate the damage caused by the blame attacks. British and Iraqi politicians have also shown a similar tendency to employ the strategy of evasion to avoid blame by talking about irrelevant issues or claiming their incompetence in answering the questions of the MPs. It is clear in the percentages this strategy has achieved in the British and Iraqi Parliaments: 8.7% and 17.8% respectively. Concerning British Parliamentarians' use of impoliteness strategies, positive and negative ones have hit similar percentages (9% and 8.7%) to convey their desire to express their direct refusal of the attributed blame acts against them and make the blame makers follow their own opinions. Iraqi politicians performed differently by exploiting the positive impoliteness strategies more often than the negative ones to emphasize their disagreement and enmity towards their counterparts; therefore, positive impoliteness strategies have scored higher than negative ones: 35.6% and 6.4% respectively.

Table 52. A comparison of British and Iraqi data in terms of the sub-pragmatic strategies used at the blame avoidance stage

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Politeness Strategies</th>
<th>Impoliteness Strategies</th>
<th>Violation of G's Maxims Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Positive Politeness</td>
<td>Negative Politeness</td>
<td>Bald off-Record</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>53.7</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.5</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraqi</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>94</td>
<td>35.6</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>636</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>253</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>127</td>
<td>0.149</td>
<td>7.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>79</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.4</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>630</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>264</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 53 reveals the reliance of British politicians on the pragma-rhetorical strategies of 'hyperbole' and 'number-game' at the blame avoidance stage to achieve positive opinions, emotions, and attitudes by their utterances, such as complimenting, congratulating, praising, expressing sympathy, approving, and delighting, as well as enhance their credibility through the use of numbers. (Cano, 2006). This is evident in the high percentages these strategies have scored: 40% and 31.8% respectively. On the other hand, Iraqi politicians were inclined to utilize the strategies of shifting blame and litotes (43% and 29.1% respectively) to redirect blame towards other current or previous individuals or authorities in the Government for the unfavorable decisions they had made, i.e., they shift blame to them. If their attempt to redirect blame failed, they would choose to minimize it to cause a little damage to their public face to make sure they stay in power.

Table 53. A comparison of British and Iraqi data in terms of the various pragma-rhetorical strategies used at the blame avoidance stage
Pragmatics of Political Blame in British and Iraqi Parliaments

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Data</th>
<th>Shifting Blame No.</th>
<th>Shifting Blame %</th>
<th>Number-Game No.</th>
<th>Number-Game %</th>
<th>Hyperbole No.</th>
<th>Hyperbole %</th>
<th>Litotes No.</th>
<th>Litotes %</th>
<th>Metaphor No.</th>
<th>Metaphor %</th>
<th>Irony No.</th>
<th>Irony %</th>
<th>Total No.</th>
<th>Total %</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>British</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17.6</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>31.8</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.9</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
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<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Iraqi</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>44</td>
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<td>23</td>
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</table>

Discussion
The main area of investigation of this study was to examine the pragmatics of political blame in the parliamentary setting, and the similarities and/or differences in terms of the pragmatic and pragma-rhetorical strategies used by British and Iraqi politicians when they exchange blame in both offensive and defensive situations. In order to test the hypotheses, the researchers adopted the mixed approach of qualitative and quantitative analyses.

The findings of the analysis of the data exemplified in the situations above show that political blame is processed according to two stages: blame and blame avoidance. In addition, it is indicated that each stage encompasses pragmatic and pragma-rhetorical strategies. In Iraqi Parliament, impoliteness strategies prevailed over strategies at both stages (see table 25). In British Parliament, impoliteness strategies were dominant at the blame stage while politeness strategies scored the highest at the blame avoidance stage (see table 3).

The reliance of Iraqi politicians on impoliteness strategies at both stages explains the aggressive nature of Iraqi question sessions where politicians strive to win at all costs. On the other hand, British politicians took defensive positions at the blame avoidance stage to diffuse attacks triggered at the blame stage.

Conclusions
In its endeavor to investigate the pragmatic structure of which blame is composed, the study has revealed the following:
- The model developed for analyzing the data proved to be a workable and successful tool to achieve the aims of the present study.
- Both Iraqi and British parliaments utilize certain pragmatic and pragma-rhetorical strategies either to defend themselves against damaging blame acts or to damage others’ images and prove them blameworthy.
- One major difference observed between British and Iraqi Parliamentarians is in terms of indirectness and directness achieved by means of politeness and impoliteness strategies where it has been found that British politicians show an inclination to be indirect using politeness strategies at both blame and blame avoidance stages in comparison with Iraqi politicians where the statistical analysis has shown that they tend to be impolite through their frequent use of impoliteness strategies at both stages.
- British and Iraqi blame makers have performed similarly by fabricating their statements and violating the maxim of quality to deceive other politicians. Moreover, both British and Iraqi blame takers tend to violate the maxim of relevance more often than the other maxims through the strategy of evasion to avoid blame.  
- Concerning pragma-rhetorical strategies, both British and Iraqi blame makers at the blame stage have exploited the pragma-rhetorical strategy of number-game to support their standpoints with statistics to enhance their credibility. As for the blame avoidance stage, British blame takers have utilized hyperbole as their main pragma-rhetorical strategy whereas Iraqi blame takers have utilized shifting blame strategy.

**Recommendations**

According to the conclusions, some suggestions are proposed:
1. Politicians are advised to avoid using impoliteness strategies for offensive or defensive purposes as they increase the possibility of conflict and result in numerous losses.  
2. Strategic manoeuvring is another important area that requires attention in analysing a conflictive setting like the parliament.  
3. Speech acts is another worthy subject of study in the parliamentary setting.  
4. Manipulation and deception are expected to be intrinsic in parliaments where elected representatives (Members of Parliament), who are closer to the audience than ever, strive to deploy for the sake of winning. Accordingly, a pragma-rhetorical study of these two subjects would fill this gap.

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Pragmatics of Political Blame in British and Iraqi Parliaments

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مقارنة مجملة النقدية للعلوم القانونية و السياسية مج. 2، ع.6، ص. 90-129.
Second Language Acquisition of Quantifiers by Arabic Speakers of English: Feature Reassembly Approach

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Taif, Saudi Arabia

This paper reports on an experimental study addressing second language acquisition of English quantifiers by Arabic speakers. Due to several differences found between Arabic and English regarding types, meanings and functions of quantifiers, Arabic learners encounter challenges in mastering them properly. Unlike English, Arabic does not make lots of distinctions among the different meanings that each quantifier might bear; using the same quantifier to bear two or several meanings at the same time. Arabic, for instance, does not differentiate between countable and non-countable nouns using the same modifier in contrast to English. According to the Feature Reassembly Hypothesis (Lardiere 2005, 2009; Choi & Lardiere, 2006), second language (L2) speakers must successfully reassemble existing features of their first language (L1) into the L2 feature-based sets in order to accommodate the L2 grammar. The researcher tests the validity of this prediction for the L2 acquisition of English quantifiers, which requires Arabic learners of English to remap semantic concepts of quantity onto new and different morpholexical configurations. Data from 40 L1 Arabic learners of English at different levels of proficiency and 20 native speakers who completed a picture/sentence matching task suggest that only the meanings which require different and new semantics-morphology remapping is difficult.

Keywords: Arabic quantifiers, English quantifiers, feature reassembly hypothesis, mapping

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1. Introduction

Quantifiers are a grammatical closed class words that belong to the wider class of determiners, Hornby (2005, p. 1233) defines a quantifier as a determiner or a pronoun that comes before a noun phrase to convey its quantity. For instance, the form two in the following English idiom signifies the quantity of the peas.

(1) Like two peas in a pod.

L2 acquisition of English quantifiers is an area of attested difficulty due to the fact that there are potential cross-linguistic variations, namely L2 speakers are required to remap semantic concepts regarding quantity onto language-specific morpholexical configurations during the course of L2 development.

It has been argued that we can isolate the semantic elements (meanings) from the surface elements (linguistic forms). These meanings are universal whereas forms are language-specific. Within the Minimalist Program proposed by Chomsky (1995, 2000), the Faculty of Language includes a universal computational system and a lexicon which includes lexical elements made from bundles of (formal, phonological and semantic) features. These features are components of a universal inventory, made available by the so-called Universal Grammar (UG), which can be accessed throughout the process of acquiring an L1. Chomsky (2000) argues that acquiring an L1 includes two related processes: feature selection and feature assembly. He describes these as single processes only achievable whilst the language-specific feature sets are selected in each L1, activated by exposure to the accessible linguistic input which brings about each language selecting a specific feature and assembling a specific lexicon. Parametric differences across languages are argued to be established by dissimilarities in both the feature selection and how these features are clustered onto functional categories and lexical items. Forms, hence, are where language variation lies. Empirical evidence suggests that learning how the same meaning is distributed over different pieces of functional morphology is challenging for L2 learners.

Some researchers argue in support of Bley-Vroman’s Fundamental Difference Hypothesis (1989), according to which access to UG is no longer fully available in L2 development. On the contrary, other researchers such as Schwartz and Sprouse (1994, 1996) argue that UG is fully accessible and that divergence is due to other factors such as L1 knowledge. Yet, Schwartz and Spouse (1994, 1996) propose the Full Access Full/Transfer Hypothesis (FT/FA), according to which the initial state of the development course is the full L1 system. Mapping challenges and L1 transfer are argued to be the result of the divergence between the patterns produces by the native and non-native speakers (Haznedar & Schwartz, 1997; Lardiere, 1998).

Different theories attempt to explain L2 development from different perspectives. One of the newest theories to the field of L2 development is Lardiere’s (2005, 2009) Feature Reassembly Hypothesis (FRH), in which she adapts a minimalist approach to L2 development. According to the Feature Reassembly Hypothesis, L2 speakers must successfully reassemble existing features of their L1 into the L2 feature sets in order to show target-like presentations (Lardiere, 2005, 2009, Choi & Lardiere, 2006). Lardiere (2009, p.173) proposes that “[a]sembling the particular lexical items of L2 requires that the learner reconfigures features from the way these are represented in
their L1 into new formal configurations on possibly quite different types of lexical items in the L2.” Lardiere (2005, 2009) argues that old-style parameters are dead and that even if a feature is similar in L1 and L2, it may not be encoded on corresponding morphemes.

Building on the FT/FA (Schwartz & Sprouse, 1994, 1996), the Feature Reassembly Hypothesis holds that L2 learners start their L2 development identifying equivalence between lexical entries in the target input and those of their L1; they link lexical entries they come across in the input with the feature-based sets of the morpholexical equivalents in their L1, on the basis of their meaning or grammatical function. That is, grammatical function and meaning are the triggers and cues that L2 speakers use to map lexical entries they perceive in the target input to feature clusters of their L1. This process is followed by the L2 constructions being mapped to the L1 feature sets for the element that is established to be equivalent. As soon as this initial mapping is made, feature reassembly can take place and the L1-based feature set is adjusted by adding or deleting from the L1-based feature set, as triggered by evidence available in the input. Nevertheless, feature reassembly might be slow or might not occur if evidence in the input is infrequent, or if it is rejected by the L1 system (Lardiere, 2005, 2009). The generative aspect of SLA has lately directed much attention towards integrating the study of L2 input. This has been evidently articulated by Rothman and Slabakova (2017) who have stated that: “A newer idea in generative theorizing is that L2 convergence crucially depends on how much evidence in the input there is and how clear such cues are in the input itself.” (p. 23).

In recent years, there has been an increasing amount of literature on testing the prediction of the Future Reassembly Hypothesis and more specifically the predictions related to L2 development of the two tasks described in the FRH: mapping, and the feature reassembly (Gil and Marsden, 2013). Lardiere (2009) suggests that learners generate initial mapping based on noticed likeness in meaning, but furthermore proposed that “the acquisition researcher […] will always be guessing – albeit hopefully making a professionally-informed best guess from among a smallish range of possibilities – as to which morpholexical correspondences between languages a learner is initially most likely to establish” (p. 219). This study addresses the underlying linguistic competence of L2 learners using a minimalist feature-based contrastive analysis in a new context: Arabic-English interlanguage. The researcher tests the validity of Lardiere’s prediction for the L2 acquisition of English quantifiers, which requires Arabic learners of English to remap semantic concepts onto new and different morpholexical combinations. In the next section, the research points out the similarities and differences between the two languages where necessary in terms of the meaning and function of quantifiers

2. Examining Feature-Reassembly in the L2 Acquisition of Quantifiers
It is well known that interlanguage grammar originates from cross-linguistic variation. Arabic does not make distinction between the different meanings the modifier might bear (Jawad, 2015). Arabic, for instance, does not differentiate between countable and non-countable nouns using the same modifier for both whereas English does as exemplified in (2).
The form *many* indicates a large number, typically followed by plural countable nouns such as *books*. Whereas, *much* refers to a large quantity, typically followed by uncountable nouns such as *milk* (Douglas et al., 1999: 275). English selects two distinct forms to refer to two different forms of plurality, i.e. *many* for countable objects and *much* for non-countable objects. Whereas, Arabic has a language-specific system typically selects a single form *kaθiir* ‘many/much’ to refer to the two meanings: i.e. for (un)countable determined nouns. The form *kaθiir* ‘much/many’ has other counterparts in Arabic, e.g., *iddat* and *adeed* ‘much/many’. Yet, they all share the same meaning and function.

Several lines of evidence suggest that if learners start the L2 development from a scratch, they would follow the same avenue acquiring the new language in the same way having the same interlanguage no matter what L1s they speak; however, this is not what happened. Although L2 speakers are likely to follow the same developmental path, they produce different patterns depending on what their L1s were (Villanueva, 1990). Building on the Full Transfer/ Full Access (FT/FA) theory by Schwartz and Spouse (1994, 1996), the initial phase of L2 acquisition is the full set of their L1s. L2 learners are expected to start with the assumption that L2 forms are quite equal to those of their L1s. They would look for the morpholexical counterparts for already clustered feature set of their L1 on the basis of the similarity between them in meanings or functions. For instance, they would assume that *each* and *every* are quite equal to *kull* ‘each/every/all’; used as an equivalent to all of them.

From the generative linguistic perspective, this occurs if learners do not have an access to the input that provides evidence (positive/negative or both) that would help them notice the gap between their interlanguage grammar and the target language, activate modification and accommodation of the target representations and thereby advance their L2 development. Under the current proposal, if such evidence was unconsidered and the leaners do not notice the gap between the two systems, the L1 representations remain unmodified; L2 learners are likely to develop incomplete or incorrect representations by substituting a correct form with incorrect one, adding an extra form or omitting the form altogether (White, 2003; Lardiere, 2009). The next section presents the experimental study on knowledge of quantifiers in Arabic-English interlanguage.

### 3. The experimental study
To test the validity and the predictive power of the FRH, two feature-based classes are incorporated in the design of a pen-and-paper sentence-picture matching task. Table 1 shows the quantifiers incorporated in the study: Type 1 includes quantifiers that are expected to be mastered effortlessly since the two languages share identical morpholexical corresponding forms. Whereas, Type 2 are expected to result in difficulty attributed to the fact that each language coveys the same meaning in a language specific way.
Table 1. Type 1 and Type 2 integrated in the picture-sentence matching task.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Example</th>
<th>Prediction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1: FR (−)</td>
<td>no, some, cardinal numbers, both, any, all, enough</td>
<td>easy to acquire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2: FR (+)</td>
<td>each, every, either, neither, much, many, few, little</td>
<td>difficult to acquire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The first type includes matching feature sets that require no feature reassembly, FR (−); namely, both languages share identical feature bundle, mapping a corresponding form onto the same meaning, i.e., X is equivalent to Y, they are semantically similar as exemplified in (3). The English form *all* specifies the whole of a group; it precedes (un)countable nouns. (Douglas et al., 1999). The Arabic modifier *kul* ‘all’ has only one counterpart *all* in English (The form *kul* ‘all’ has another counterpart in Arabic, e.g., *jamia* ‘all’. Nonetheless, they are identically the same, i.e., they share the same meaning and function).

(3) Arabic           English
    *kul* ‘all’     =    *all*

The Arabic quantifier wāḥad ‘one’, for instance, is quite equal to *one* in English. Likewise, other quantifier such as other cardinals (*two, three, four … etc.*), *no, some, all, both, any, enough* and a *lot/lots* of have literal and identical counterparts in both languages. Sample stimuli of Type 1 targeted in the test is shown in figure 1.

(a) There are no kids in the wagon.
(b) There is one kid in the wagon.
(c) There are two kids in the wagon.

Figure 1. Sample stimuli of Type 1 targeted in the task.

The other type included in the design was forms with mismatching feature sets that require feature reassembly (FR+). In Type 2, the two languages encode the same feature onto non-corresponding morphemes; X is not equivalent to Y, they are semantically different, as shown in (4) and (5).

(4) a. *There are a few strawberries in the refrigerator.*
    b. y-ğād qāleel men ālfārāwlāḥ fi āğālāğāḥ. Arabic
    There few/little of al-strawberries in the-fridge.
    ‘There are few/little strawberries in the fridge’.

(5) a. *There is a little milk in the refrigerator.*
    b. y-ğād qāleel men ālḥālyb fi āğālāğāḥ. Arabic
    There few/little of al-milk in the-fridge.
‘There are few/little milk in the fridge’.

For instance, the Arabic quantifier qāleel ‘few/little’, that conveys the meaning that the amount is less than expected, does not correspond directly to a single equivalent in English. The forms *a little* and *little* specify a small quantity with plural uncountable nouns, whereas *a few* and *few* specify a small quantity with plural with countable nouns (Douglas et al., 1999). Arabic does not differentiate between countable and non-countable nouns with quantity using the same modifier qāleel ‘few/little’ to convey the two meanings, e.g., fārāwlāh qāleelah ‘few/little strawberries’ and hālyb qāleel ‘few/little milk’. Whereas English differentiate between countable and non-countable nouns using different modifiers for each, e.g., *few strawberries* (for countable objects) and *little milk* (for non-countable objects).

(6) a. Each (of the) boy(s) was very polite.  
     Each/every/all one from the-boys was polite.

b. kull wāḥd mēn ālāwlād kān mwdāb.

(7) a. Every student needs support and guidance.
     Each/every/all student needs the support and the guidance.

b. kull ṭālēb y-āḥtāq ldām w ālērshād.

Another example is the distinction between *every* and *each* in English; two distinct forms; *each* in English refers to members of a group of people of things separately i.e. for an individual object; one by one. Whereas, *every* refers to a group of people or things, i.e. combined together as one. Arabic, on the other hand, selects a single form kull ‘each/every’ to deliver both meanings. This contrast is shown in the examples above (6) and (7). Sample stimuli of Type 2 targeted in the test is shown in figure 2.

Figure. 2 Sample stimuli of Type 2 targeted in the task.

Due to the fact that Arabic learners of English frequently encounter quantifiers quite early in their L2 exposure and have the opportunity to practice it more at least in a classroom context, they are likely to map the English quantifiers to their L1 feature set at an early stage of L2 development. Since *every* and *each* are morphophonologically different, the L1 does not offer any clue that another meaning for kull must be anticipated. Therefore, Arabic-speaking of English are likely to associate occurrences of *each* and *every* with their L1 equivalents, mapping the two forms onto only one counterpart kull in the Arabic L1. Once Arabic-speaking learners of English
establish an association between each and every in the input and their L1 feature set for kull. This process should be triggered by evidence in the input that includes every and each in different contexts (positive evidence), or by establishing the difference showing that each, for instance, is not acceptable in some contexts.

Crucially, L2 learners are faced with mapping task: they need to differentiate between every and each. However, note that, in principle, this case suggests a logical problem of language development, namely ‘Poverty-of-the-Stimulus’ (POS) (Schwartz and Sprouse, 2000; White 1985) particularly with Type 2. This is attributed to the fact that input does not provide evidence about where every and each are unacceptable and consequently it does not motivate the relevant change. That is, the input does not provide evidence that feature-base sets of L1 are unacceptable in some contexts of L2. This is evident if we take into consideration that neither teachers of English nor English textbooks provide sufficient details on the restrictions of using quantifiers, hence classroom instruction is unlikely to support such change. As far as L2 instruction is concerned, this kind of knowledge is relatively infrequent and not sufficiently introduced to alert the learners to the relevant distinctions. That is, learners are not taught about ungrammaticality related to the use of these surface forms in relation to some context, explicitly or implicitly. This may result in delay in the mapping process or unacceptable mapping which eventually may result in difficulty in the feature reassembly process; the feature reassembly may be slow, hard or unattainable. This case constitutes a potential learnability problem, hence Arabic learners of English are likely to demonstrate non-target-like knowledge of quantifiers, even at higher levels of proficiency. Nevertheless, no feature assembly is needed in Type 1 since the L1 and the L2 share identical feature-based sets. In this scenario, Arabic learners of English will use quantifiers appropriately once the mapping process is established appropriately.

However, ideally, it is important to recognize that the aforementioned distinctions between the two languages do not suggest that Arabic quantifiers are more straightforward. On the contrary, some Arabic scholars (e.g., Jawad, 2015) claim that Arabic quantifiers are more complicated and harder than those of English due to the fact that Arabic system is highly inflectional. Arabic quantifiers are inflected for gender of the counted nouns (e.g., cardinals) and inflected for case (nominative, accusative, or genitive depending on the noun position within the sentence). On the other hand, English has a system with distinctive features and in contrast to Arabic quantifiers, it has neutral gender. Yet, English quantifiers are also challenging due to the fact that L2 learners are commonly faced with many of the exceptions of their usage as we have seen. Interestingly, it is implausible to suggest that deleting features such as gender is assumed to be easier than adding new features such as countability on the basis of previous findings. With respect to this property, Arabic learners of English never produce sentences including quantifiers attached with gender like (8).

(8) *Only one-she ballerina falls on stage. ‘Only one ballerina falls on stage’.

Using a minimalist feature-based contrastive analysis, this study was set out to find out whether Arabic learners of English find L2 forms with mismatching feature-based sets (Type 2: FR+) more problematic.
The two tasks are likely to be challenging to accomplish for the Arabic-speaking learners of English due to morphological differences on the mapping task, and poverty of the stimulus with regards to the feature reassembly task. L2 Learners at all proficiency levels are likely to show accurate performance on quantifiers with FR (−) and will emerge earlier. However, lower proficiency learners are likely to have difficulty identifying quantifiers with FR (+). Higher proficiency learners, on the other hand, are likely to be more accurate on quantifiers with FR (+), despite some initial mapping difficulty. If learner’s performance on one sentence type differs significantly from their performance on the other, this suggests that the FRH represents the relevant distinction.

A total of 60 participants took part in the study. The Arabic speakers of English (n= 40) were divided into three proficiency levels: elementary (Ele: n = 5), intermediate (Inter: n= 28) and advanced (Adv: n= 7). A cloze passage with 40 blanks based on Slabakova (2001) was used to assess the participants’ proficiency. The text was adjusted from the Advanced Student’s Book by O’Neill et al. (1981) as described by Slabakova (2001).

The L2 learners of English were native-speakers of Saudi Arabic who were born and raised in Saudi Arabia by Saudi Arabic parents. The only language they spoke at home was Saudi Arabic. They had not studied any languages other than English, and were introduced to English around the same age (M=12). The participants attended English classes for 4-7 hours a day. The study also included a control group of native speakers of British English (n= 20). The purpose of including native speakers is to find out whether the performance of the experimental group significantly differs from that of the control group.

The sentence-picture matching task includes total of 42 items: trials (n=2), experimental sentences (n=20) and distractors (n= 20). The test included acceptable and unacceptable distractors. Equal distractors were used so the participants made unaware of the target purpose of the task. Trials are also used to make sure the participants are aware of the instructions and ready for the task. The experimental sentences included ten tokens with the structure of FR (+) and another ten with the structure of FR (−). The sentences and pictures were controlled for several factors, such as length and structure and complexity of sentences and pictures as well. Participants were asked to look at every single picture and in response they have to circle only one sentence that best describes the relevant picture.

4. Findings
The results demonstrated that, while the control group performed as expected, with statistically significantly higher mean ratings equally on the two types, among the L2 group, only the higher-level learners demonstrated target-like significant knowledge. All groups are significantly different from each other and from the control group. One-way ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was performed to examine the relation between the speakers’ performance on the two types. There was a statistically significant relationship between groups of speakers (experimental vs. control) with respect to their performance on the two types as Table 2 clearly shows. That is, there was a significant effect of sentence types at the p <.05 level among conditions, [F (3, 56) = 70.30, p = .000].
Since the null hypothesis was rejected, a post hoc comparison using the Tukey HSD (Honestly Significant Difference) test was performed to find out whether the difference with groups is significant. The results reported in the multiple comparison Table 3 indicate that the mean score was significantly different at $p = .000$.

### Table 3. Post Hoc multiple comparisons output.

**Multiple Comparisons**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(I) groups</th>
<th>(J) groups</th>
<th>Mean Difference (I-J)</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>95% Confidence Interval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<td>Ele</td>
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<td>2.54</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-27.22</td>
</tr>
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<td>Adv</td>
<td>-28.75$^*$</td>
<td>3.076</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>-36.87</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>2.61</td>
<td>.000</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Inter</td>
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<td>.000</td>
<td>13.76</td>
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<td>-18.57</td>
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<tr>
<td>Inter</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Ele</td>
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<td>3.067</td>
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<tr>
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Based on observed means.
The error term is Mean Square (Error) = 27.41.
*The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level.
The most obvious finding that emerges from the analysis is that the results showed a correlation between L2 learner proficiency levels and their performance on the target forms. Figure 3 clearly reveals a developmental path of L2; the more the L2 speakers advance in their L2 proficiency, the better they perform on the target forms. Evidence emerged in the findings is consistent with the prediction that target-like knowledge is unexpected in lower proficiency Arabic-English interlanguage, due to the fact L2 speakers rely more frequently on their L1 knowledge. Delayed feature reassembly is apparent at lower level of proficiency attributed to the poverty of the stimulus problem. However, the findings provide evidence that target-like knowledge is attainable at higher level of proficiency, overcoming the poverty of the stimulus problem. Hence, L2 proficiency seems to be a significant predictor of L2 in this study.

![Figure 3 Mean percentage in terms of the overall performance of the speakers’ groups.](image)

Perhaps even more important for the purpose of this paper is the finding that despite the L2 speakers long time of exposure to L2 English, evidence of L1 Lexical transfer was found in the data. In such cases, I found evidence of L1 surface properties functioning in early interlanguage grammar of low proficiency L2 learners, those properties were being transferred on the bases of the similarities between them in meanings or functions.

Although a certain amount of individual variation has been observed, a general developmental pattern can still be seen for Type 2. As you can see in Figure 4, Type 1 with matching feature set was significantly higher than Type 2. The findings suggest that quantifiers of Type 1 (Matching: FR −) were acquired early since English and Arabic have the same corresponding forms with the same feature distributions, whereas quantifiers of Type 2 (Mismatching: FR+) pose a greater challenge for the reason that their L1-L2 feature sets were not equivalent, and, hence, L2 learners were required to adjust the exiting feature set of their L1 to accommodate the target representations.
The results are in line with Lardiere’s (2009) claim that meaning and function are the crucial cues for the mapping process. Given that learners are overwhelmingly faced with apparent poverty-of-the-stimulus situation since the L2 input does not directly trigger the necessary change, lacking evidence about what is impossible and unacceptable, and hence the feature reassembly process was hard or even in some cases unachievable.

Generally speaking, it seems fair to suggest that feature reassembly poses a great difficulty in L2 acquisition of quantifiers. The results of the experimental study on quantifiers by adult L2 learners of Arabic were shown to support the Feature Reassembly Hypothesis (Lardiere, 2005, 2008, 2009). Indeed, the findings suggest that the divergent performance on both types of L2 quantifiers can largely be captured by the feature reassembly approach. Thus, the findings are supportive of the claim that the FRH seems helpful in capturing the likeness and differences between the languages. It facilitates predicting areas of difficulties in the L2 development and hence proposing appropriate pedagogical techniques to overcome potential learnability challenges.

5. Conclusion
To conclude, the present study demonstrates how complex the learners’ tasks are in mastering L2 forms, and how challenging it is for them to overcome the L1 effect. The predications are fully confirmed and the FRH is supported. The findings suggest that only the meanings which require new semantics-morphology remapping (FR+) is significantly difficult. This supports Lardiere’s claims (2005, 2009) that even if the same feature is selected by two languages, if the form-meaning mapping of that feature is different in L1 and in L2, then that feature will pose learnability challenges to L2 learners if evidence in the input does not trigger the required amendment. Based on these findings, it seems fair to suggest that FRH offers an insightful account that helps in expanding our understanding of L2 development. This also supports the conclusion reached by Gil and Marsden (2013) suggesting “the Feature Reassembly Hypothesis offers an acquisition model
that can potentially explain how the development of interlanguage proceeds, beyond the initial state.” (p. 49).

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References


Sociocultural Studies via CDA in *Native Son* (1939)

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**Abstract**  
This paper aims at the study of the artistic features of language in Richard Wright’s *Native Son*. In order to pursue and achieve the mentioned goal, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) will be the applied approach, which provides analytical tools to uncover the socio-cultural aspects of texts by analyzing their in-text language. "Modality," "Metaphor" and "Racist Discourse" are three major arguments to be studied under the CDA approach. By analyzing the predominant concerns of these three parts, this paper brings and reinterprets the serious problematic issues including power, the black oppression by the white, social limitations and racist ideology.

**Keywords**: Critical discourse analysis, metaphor, modality, *Native Son*, Richard Wright

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Introduction

A novel can be regarded as a manifestation of the relationship between the structure of the text itself as a social and cultural background through language and ideology. The critical discourse analysis (CDA) studies a text linguistically, which has been quite overlooked to be applied on *Native Son* (Wright 1939). By tracking and analyzing the linguistic expressions in *Native Son* in this paper, we will study the relationship between the language and the situation of the blacks in America’s white community in 1930s. In *Native Son*, the unfair treatment between the whites and blacks is explicit through the language expressions that appear in the novel. In addition, from the language of the novel, it can be perceived that the domination of the white people over the black people in education, employment, and legal protection is severe; for instance, the black people were often given an undesirable or stereotypical concept by “the white men such as ‘nigger,’ ‘murderer,’ ‘fool,’ ‘black servant’ and ‘lazy negro’” (Jismulatif et al., p. 197). Language of racism in *Native Son* dismantles racism practices and the domination of the white race over the black race. “From the relations between sentences that make up a language discourse, it can be traced that the whites had treated the blacks as an inferior race” (Jismulatif et al., p. 199). In order to achieve the goal of this paper, we will examine the text of *Native Son* from three different aspects of "modality," "racist discourse” and "metaphor."

1. Modality

Modality is a language unit that shows the attitude of a speaker to the preposition and also a tool to inform others. According to Titscher and Mayer modality is a pragmatically semantic category, which shows the orientation of the speaker, while Fowler states that “Modality is signified in a range of linguistic forms: centrally, the modal auxiliary verbs may, shall, must, need, and others; sentence adverbs such as probably, certainly, regrettably; adjectives such as necessary, unfortunate, certain” (Fowler, p. 73). Moreover, it can be interpreted as an action or comment by the text producer about one condition or action. It can also be expressed in a verbal mode such as “may,” “can,” “must” and “should.” Michael Halliday believes that "Modality is the judgmental component of the meaning of the clause; the opinions-offered by the speaker, or sought from listener-regarding the like hood (modalization) or the desirability (modulation) of the thesis" (Halliday, p. 142). Moreover, Hasan (1991) divides modality into four categories which are "intentional," "epistemic," "deontic" and "dynamic" modalities. Intentional modality is a modal, which shows desire, hope, and question. Epistemic modality is a modal, which defines possibility and uncertainty. Deontic modality is a modal, which defines desirability, obligation, and permission. Dynamic modality is a modal which shows the ability like can.

In *Native Son*, the attitude of the speaker was exposed through the words "may," "might," "should," "will," "would," "can," and "could." “The hatred of the white race against the black race can be seen from the linguistic unit in the novel *Native Son*. It can be seen from the use of modality” (Jismulatif et al., p. 198). The use of modality in the discourse of racism has a certain motive in showing a power. In order to “systematically explore often opaque relationships of causality and determination between (a) discursive practices, events and texts, and (b) wider social and cultural structures, relations and processes; to investigate how such practices, events and texts arise out of and are ideologically shaped by relation of power and struggles over power” (Fairclough, p. 128). According to Richardson (2007), “Modality is referring to judgments, comment and attitude in text and talk and is indicated through the use of modal verbs such as may, could, should, will, and
must” (p. 241). In the novel, the use of modality is a form of inequality between the position of the white race and the black race; for instance, "He knew that black people could not go outside of the Black Belt to rent a flat; they had to live on their side of the line; No white real estate man would rent a flat to a black man other than in the sections where it had been decided that black people might live" (Wright, p. 161). The implementation of "could not" and "would" in "the above-mentioned discourse “shows the inferiority of the blacks that they cannot afford to live in the same society as the whites” (Jismulatif et al., p. 198). It shows that the whites have the power on the blacks. The discourse shows the domination of white over the blacks. The blacks are often being treated unfairly when they want to use public facilities. As a racism discourse, Native Son absolutely has several types of modality because it defines the dominance of white people over the blacks. Modality in the racism discourse can be notified from the analytical process in the novel. It is found 176 “can or could,” 83 “should,” 851 “will or would,” 41 “may,” and 73 “might.”

1.1 Modal "Can" or "Could"
The modal "can" or "could" expresses the ability or the willing to do something. The negative form is "cannot" or "could not". This is a dynamic modal, as shown in the following examples:

(1) "He knew that black people could not go outside of the Black Belt to rent a flat" (Wright, p. 161).
(2) "They built a big school and then drew a line around it and said that nobody could to it but those who lived within the line, that kept all the colored boys out" (Wright, p. 327).
(3) “Crimes such as the Bigger Thomas murders could be lessened by segregating all Negroes in parks, playgrounds, theatres, and street cars” (Wright, p. 177).

Texts as in data (1), (2), and (3) are describing the discrimination of the whites over the blacks. From the text we can conclude that Thomas Bigger (protagonist of the novel) is a poor black man who could not afford a house in the white’s people society. Bigger is considered as a villain. This shows that the black people have no power while the white people as the more superior race can treat the black people as they wish.

1.2 Modal "Should"
The modal "should" is used to express something that has supposed to be done. The negative form of it is "should not". This is a deontic modality which is used 83 times in Native Son.

(4) "He felt that there should be a direction in which he and all other black people could go wholeheartedly" (Wright, p. 83).
(5) "What should I want to do anything, I ain't got a chance, I don't know nothing, I'm just black and they make the laws" (Wright, p. 218).

The use of "should" in Native Son was to show that black people were supposed to do what white people order them to. In the novel, Bigger was constructed a black guy who realize the discrimination from the whites. Bigger had to do what had been ordered even though he did not want to.
1.3 Modal "Will" or "Would"

The modality "will" or "would" were used by Wright in *Native Son* to express the statement or the attitude of the white people. "Will" and "would" are also deontic modalities. Wright used the modal "will" or "would" in *Native Son* 851 times, as shown in the following examples:

(6) “No white real estate man would rent a flat to a black man other than in the sections where it had been decided that black people might live” (Wright, p. 161).

(7) "What would prison mean to Bigger Thomas; It holds advantages for him that a life of freedom never had; to send him to prison would be more than an act of mercy” (Wright, p. 243).

The modal "would" in the data (6) and (7) shows the discrimination that black people would never be treated in the same way as the whites. This discrimination happened because of the hatred of the white people to the blacks. From the data (7), we can see that as a black people, Bigger was stated that he would never get to taste freedom in his life.

1.4 Modals "May" and "Might"

Modal "may" was used as much as 41 times in the novel. Modal "may" shows the superiority of the white people over the black people. There are so many suspecting on the black people just because they are black. On the other hand, the author used the modal "Might" 51 times. This shows that white people always think badly of black people and take them in custody. "Might" in data (10) and (11) are epistemic modality. As shown in the following examples:

(8) “She was dead; she was white, she was a woman, he had killed her, he was black, he might be caught, he did not want to be caught, if he were they would kill him” (Wright, p. 70).

(9) “They might think he would steal a dime, rape a woman, get drunk, or cut somebody” (Wright, p. 82).

(10) "If your plea is guilty, "the Court may sentence you to death," or the Court may sentence you to the penitentiary for a term of not less than fourteen years" (Wright, p. 229).

(11) "Some self-human black ape may be climbing through the windows of our homes to rape, murder, and burn our daughters” (Wright, p. 245).

The use of modal "might" in *Native Son* was to show that Bigger as black person exposes racial discrimination in law enforcement or law protection. Bigger was constructed a black murder who realized the discrimination from the whites; in other words, black citizens were often treated unfairly. Such condition enabled white citizens to commit violence against the blacks. In addition, the modal "may" in the data (10) and (11) is a deontic modality. This modal shows the domination of the white over the black people. In this case, the black stereotype as Bigger Thomas, for instance, could be manipulated by the whites to state that he was always wrong. Richard Wright, through his characters in *Native Son*, present a lot of social injustice committed by the white people such as racial prejudice, discrimination, segregation, and bad or unfair treatments such as subordinating, oppressing, exploiting, and violence against blacks.
2. Racist Ideology Discourse

Racism “as a social system in a society is a manipulation of power by a group of dominant race, in this case, the white people” (Jismulatif et al. p. 198). The dominance of a race is realized in the form of discriminatory practices against minority racial group. The dominance of an ethnic has two dimensions, namely social and cognitive dimensions. The social dimension of the practice of discrimination seen in the daily lives of different ethnic groups, while the cognitive dimension looks at beliefs about a group of ethnic prejudice, stereotypes, and ideology which serves as a motivation to legalize the practice of discrimination against an ethnic. Racist ideology is seen in the fields of education, employment, law, and the use of public facilities. As van Dijk states:

Racism is a complex system of social inequality in which at least the following components are combined: a) ideologically based social representations of (and about) groups. b) Group members’ mental models of concrete ethnic events. c) Everyday discriminatory discourse and other social practices. d) Institutional and organizational structures and activities. e) Power relations between dominant white and ethnic minority groups. (Dijk, p. 91)

The discourse analysis of Native Son texts shows “the practices of the racism ideology against blacks like different treatments in education, employment, law, the use of public facilities, and culture” (Jismulatif et al., p. 199). Those injustice treatments were realized in the form of discrimination, prejudice, and separation. The blacks were prohibited to live side by side with the white race. The Blacks were considered coming from a different planet to the whites. The ideology of racism from Native Son discourse can be seen from various aspects of social life of the blacks, such as the occurrence of discrimination, segregation, prejudice, and stereotypes in education, employment, legal protection, housing, and the use of public facilities.

2.1 Educational Aspect

Bigger as the central character in Native Son realized the importance of education for the black race in America; because, it was expected that the life of black race could be changed into a better one through education. As a result of discrimination against blacks in education, it was hard for them to get a better education. It was “strongly felt by Bigger when he wanted to continue his education to the higher level” (Jismulatif et al., p 200). The discrimination against blacks in education aspect can be seen from the following discourses:

(1) “The white neighbor decided to limit the amount of education his black neighbor could receive” (Wright, p. 5).

(2) “If you wasn’t black and you had some money and if they’d let you go to that aviation school, you could fly a plane, I could fly a plane if I had a chance” (Wright, p. 20).

(3) "I wanted to be an aviator once, but they wouldn’t let me go to the school where I was suppose’ to learn it" (Wright, p. 327).

The quoted discourses (1), (2), and (3) above show that "Bigger" which is derived from the blacks tells that the blacks were not allowed to continue their education by the white race. Richard Wright “showed that the discrimination among the white and the black races occurred in education aspect”
(Jismulatif et al., p. 200). It indicates that the ideology of racism influenced the education of blacks in America, where the blacks were not allowed to attend school with the white people. Besides, the black people were not allowed to continue their school to the higher level of education as recorded in the history of the black community’s life in America.

Oon account of this racism and according to Jismulatif, “the black race was very difficult to get equal rights in education whereas the education was very important for blacks to improve their lives” (p. 199). Education can uplift the level of the blacks into a good status by the white race. The discrimination experienced by the blacks in education aspect didn’t only happen in term of prohibition in attending school with whites but also occurred in school segregation, the blacks were only allowed to study with the blacks fellow 'black school' and so was the whites "white school."

The similar happenings were also experienced by Bigger when he and his peers wanted to study in the white race school, because of he was black that he was forbidden to go to school there, as shown by the text stated in the discourse of Native Son "They built a big school and then drew a line around it and said that nobody could to it but those who lived within the line; that kept all the colored boys out" (Wright, p. 327). The text above shows the “dominance of the white race who distinguished treatment in education aspect between the whites and the blacks, where there was separation between the children of the blacks and the white race children” (Jismulatif et al., p. 200). This different treatment was due to the racist ideology which developed by the white race in America at that time.

### 2.2 Employment Aspect

The racist ideology bears a serious influence on the work of the black race in America, where they got a lowly job while whites get better jobs. As a result of this discrimination in employment aspect, many people who came from the blacks got jobs as slaves and as laborer like maid, gardener, and cooks. Native Son's discourse also shows the practice of discrimination against blacks in the employment aspect. Richard Wright “wants to describe the discrimination experienced by bigger as descendants of the black race. It can be seen from the following texts of the discourse” (Alwi, p. 131).

(4) He had no job, for he regarded digging ditches for fifty cents a day as slavery; "I can't live on that," (Wright, p. 4).

(5) “It was reported that several hundred Negro employees throughout the city had been dismissed from jobs” (Wright, p. 159).

(6) “Most Negro businesses were funeral parlors; white undertakers refused to bother with dead black bodies” (Wright, p. 162).

The quotations (4), (5), and (6) are the examples of the racism in Native Son linguistic expressions which indicate the racism in the employment aspect. The Blacks were often treated unfairly in the employment aspect. To realize the injustice of the treatments, the white race made rules known as Jim Crow Laws (separate but equal). This happened in nearly all aspects of life, for example, education, social assistance, political, and legal protection. It can be described as two races that did not have a relationship, sense of sympathy, and they felt as though from a different planet, so
that the black race felt the "black world" and the "white world" and even they also believed the "black god and "white god."

2.3 Legal Affairs

The dark skin “were also often treated inhumanly in term of legal affairs, for example, in the South United States the blacks were often hanged without passing through the process of law or what is known as lynching” (Alwi, p. 127). It was very clearly seen in the 1930's, that as many as 154 blacks in the south were hung on wild gallows. At that time, the lynching punishment on blacks was customary in the southern part of United States. The racist ideology also affected the blacks’ life in America. As the inferior race, "the blacks were often treated unfairly in term of legal affairs. When the blacks broke the rules, they were usually treated differently to the white race. It can be seen from the texts of the racism in Native Son novel. In this case, Wright wanted to show how whites treat blacks in the legal affairs.

(7) "That’s all I ever did, and now I’m in this; they looking for me and when they catch me they’ll kill me?" (Wright, p. 211).

(8) "What should I want to do anything? I ain't got a chance; I don't know nothing; I'm just black and they make the laws" (Wright, p. 218).

(9) "Kill 'im!"

"Lynch 'im!"

"That black sonofabitch!"

"Kill that black ape!" (Wright, p. 173).

The quoted texts of the Native Son (7), (8), and (9) above show that Wright poses that the Bigger as blacks were treated unfairly due to the reason that they are black and poor. The texts show that the blacks are powerless to fight the legal decision which is received from the court.

2.4 Public Facilities Use

The Racism had led to discrimination, segregation, and prejudice against blacks. As a result of this situation, the blacks’ life was miserable. The treatment can be seen from the use of public facilities aspect, where the black race was prohibited from using public facilities belonging to the white race. The difference of using a common facility between the blacks and whites can be seen in the use of toilets, bus waiting rooms, churches, schools, hospitals, prisons, theaters, hotels, restaurant, etc. Racism raised the separation of the public facilities use among the blacks and whites. A similar different treatment can be seen from the event of the school separation between white and black children at Columbia in 1947. The separation of public facilities can also be seen in the texts of Native Son discourse which are as follow:

(10) "There are white schools and black schools, white churches and black churches, white businesses and black businesses, white graveyards and black graveyards, and, for all I know, a white God and a black God" (Wright, p. 5).

(11) "He lived in the dingy shacks of the white landlords and refused to pay rent" (Wright 4).
The texts of (10), (11), (12), and (13) above indicate that racism had made the blacks’ life so miserable. The blacks were treated separately by whites. The above texts show as if the relationship of blacks and whites as human beings were from different planets. The impact of this racism was very influential on all aspects of the blacks’ life. The injustice of the treatment had made the relationships of whites and blacks were against each other.

3. Metaphor
A metaphor is a figure of speech that identifies something as being the same as some unrelated thing for rhetorical effect that usually provides clarity and uncovers hidden crisis about a personal identity. We will study the metaphor in *Native Son* from the following perspectives.

3.1 The Rat
Book one opens with Bigger stalking, killing and disposing of a black rat. The rat represents Bigger as the predator that violently kills the helpless victims Mary and Bessie. On the other hand it represents American society which preys upon Bigger, entraps him and finally executes him. After the murders, the police ruthlessly chase Bigger like a rat through the labyrinth of the Black Belt of South Side Chicago. They move through the burned out, abandoned and barely habitable buildings in a methodical manner, block by block, moving inward and inward until they trap him. Then, they lock him up and torture him by breaking him down psychologically until he signs a confession. They surround him by a mob that cries out against him in animal terms, "kill that black ape," and they finally execute him through electrocution. Simply, they dispose of him as Bigger once disposed of the rat. And, just as Bigger cried out "son of a bitch," when he captured the rat, so too do the police cry out "son of a bitch" when they ensnare Bigger.

3.2 Hubris
Hubris is the word given to the excessive pride exhibited by the tragic hero in ancient Greek drama, which brings about his downfall. It is hubris that ultimately causes Bigger's death. Filled with excitement after committing the seemingly ultimate crime killing and decapitating a white woman Bigger puts aside his doubts and his instinctual desire to run and save himself and repeatedly returns to the scene of the crime, the Dalton house. After he kills the Dalton girl, he buys cigarettes and beer for his buddies at the drug store with the murdered Mary's money which he took from her purse before stashing it in the garbage can. Then he shows off the roll of money to Bessie so she will consent to have sex with him after he snubbed her the evening before at Ernie's Kitchen Shack. Not content with the bank roll, he decides he is invincible and that he can gain a much larger sum of money if he pretends Mary has been kidnapped. Convinced he will succeed, he blames a man who attempted to become his friend. In a sense, he defies those in authority over him: Mr. Dalton, who lived "somewhere high up, distant like a god," and the preacher later on who comes to his cell. Before his capture, Bigger continually disregards his own voice of reason which calls on him to flee. Indeed, time and time again, he dampens down his own warning system, even when the reporters find the basement filling up with smoke. And, even though lawyer Max attempts to
explain poverty as an underlining cause of his crime: "Bigger's eyes lit with a bitter and feverish pride." Ultimately, it is his pride that traps Bigger like the rat at the opening of the novel.

3.3 Blindness

In the ancient Greek drama, Oedipus the tragic hero is convinced he can overcome the Oracle's predication that he will unwittingly kill his father and marry his mother. He blinds himself in a fit of rage after the prophecy is fulfilled. Throughout most of Native Son, Bigger seems to see everyone else as blind: "he did not look at them; they were simply blind people, blind like his mother, his brother, his sister, Peggy, Britten, Jan, Mr. Dalton, and the sightless Mrs. Dalton" (Wright, p. 329). The Daltons are blinded by their wealth which they make from the poor residing within Chicago's Black Belt and appease their guilt by helping African Americans with charity contributions. And, certainly the courtroom mob is blinded by racism in America, his mother is blinded by religion, Britten by fear and Jan by ignorance. However, throughout most of the novel, Bigger remains unaware of his own blindness, and this prevents him from taking advantage of the opportunities that are offered him in the form of jobs that will support his family, and schooling that will enhance his life and increase his employment opportunities. In Book three, Bigger is finally forced to confront his own blindness, and just when he finally gains insight, his vision becomes dimmed once more before being put to death.

Conclusion

The results of the analysis discourse found the artistic features of language in Native Son, through modality, racist ideology discourse and metaphor. Through the utilization of modalities "can," "could," "should," "will," "would," "might" and "may," the dominance of the white race as a superior race and the black race as inferior races is demonstrated. The results of the analysis of the social dimensions of cognition were named the dimension of analytical discourse. The analytical discourse dimension showed the whole process of production, use and dissemination of Native Son. The Blacks were treated by discrimination, segregation, and separation in education aspect, employment, legal affairs, public facilities use and socio-cultural. In the education aspect, the blacks were not allowed in white schools. In the work field, the blacks were given jobs as laborer or inferior. In term of legal affairs, the black race was not given legal protection, threaten injustice toward punishment given, and given a severe punishment when breaking the law. In term of public facilities use, the blacks were not allowed to use the facilities belong to the white race, and were not allowed to be in the same place with the whites. Finally, the application of metaphor as a figure of speech in the novel suggested the rebellion of power in Bigger against the impotent blacks around him while still impotent himself facing the whites.

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References


A Review of Research into Google Apps in the Process of English Language Learning and Teaching

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Abstract
GALL (Google Assisted Language Learning) refers to Google as a collaborative and communicative tool that supports online and blended language learning. This research paper presents an overview of previous studies on using Google Apps in the process of learning and teaching of English language. A systematic search on ERIC digital library and Google Scholar reviewed the previous studies published during the last ten years. There were one hundred seventy-eight articles, and thirty-four studies were sorted and analyzed using NVivo software. This systematic review showed that using some Google Applications, resulted in developing English language learning and teaching. The writing was the most language skill investigated. Translation practices have changed due to using machine translation with the help of Google Translate website. Besides, more studies with concern for reading skills, speaking skills, oral reading, and the Google speech recognition system emerged as a promising field for further research.

Keywords: Blended learning, English Language learning and teaching, Google Apps, Online learning

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A Review of Research into Google Apps in the Process of English Language Learning

Introduction

Background

Nowadays, learners expose to information technology that shapes their learning styles and methods of learning. Net Generation students consider that using technology in the learning environment is essential. Most of them have experience of using online tools in their education (Roberts, 2005). They learn best through interaction, and they need a particular use for technology to communicate quickly with each other. Moreover, they learn by creating, editing, commenting, and sharing documents and ideas. (McNeely, 2015). All these requirements are available through web 2.0 applications and tools.

Web 2.0 means the second generation of the internet, which gives users access to add, modify, comment, and share content and information. Several web 2.0 applications developed for open use. Examples include Wikis, DropBox, Blogs, Evernote, SkyDrive and Google Apps, etc. These web-based Apps for learning are productive and collaborative. Besides, all these applications are exciting and easy to use for both learners and their instructors. Previous studies concluded that most students have positive attitudes towards the learning that utilizes web applications (Lin & Jou, 2013). Google offers some types of these web Apps for education and communication (Downes, 2007; Miller, 2011).

Chinnery (2008) introduced the acronym GALL (Google-assisted language learning). He emphasized that Google has pedagogical uses since its tools are communicative, informative, productive, and collaborative. Examples of Google tools and Apps are Google Docs, Google Calendar, Google Groups, Google +, Google Earth, and YouTube. Researchers concluded that Google offers many tools that give learners opportunities to collaborate from anywhere and at any time (Covili, 2012). Sun (2003) affirmed that learners preferred using Google apps in their learning than traditional methods. Kovalik et al. (2014) found out that students had a positive attitude towards lessons that used free web 2.0 tools such as Google tools and bloggers. Thus, there are remarkable researches that investigated the effect of using Google Apps in the processes of English language learning. So, it is necessary to review some of these researches in this domain of investigation.

Literature Review & Key Concepts

Google Apps

In 1998, Google was a new search engine, and then its features continued to improve until it became the most-visited world web site. Later on, new Google tools and Apps developed. It included Google Apps for business, Google for Work, and Google Apps for Education. The latter comprised promising Apps for learning and teaching (Chinnery, 2008). Among Google Apps for education, Google Docs is a free web-based office set that anyone anywhere can use it. Google Docs tools are Documents, Presentations, Spreadsheets, Drawings, and Forms. They are secure web applications that save data automatically with minimal chances of losing them (Taprial & Kanwar, 2011). Furthermore, they offer free templates that enable users to complete complex and powerful tasks (Strasma, 2010).
Google Documents offer collaborative web-based word processing for formatting texts and paragraphs. With Google Documents, learners can work together in the same document at the same time (Conner, 2008; Oishi, 2007). It allows learners access, creates, writes, collaborates, and edits their documents from their computers, tablets, or smartphones. Therefore, it is an easy way for communication (Zhou, Simpson & Domizi, 2012). Moreover, learners can add links, insert images and drawings, and then share their Google Document or save it as a Microsoft Word or a pdf file. Google Docs represent valuable online collaborative group work tools that have a positive effect on students' sense of a learning community (Abdelmalak, 2015). Another application of Google is the spreadsheets, which is similar to Microsoft Excel sheets. It can be used for doing mathematical or statistical functions. With Google Forms, learners can gather and organize information easily. Learners have different options to design their forms, surveys, and quizzes. Once learners have responded to Google form, their responses appear as a summary or in a separate spreadsheet to show details. Google forms and spreadsheets are always current and saved on the web (Conner, 2008; Siegle, 2007).

Google slides have the features of Microsoft PowerPoint, which allow learners to introduce their topics and subjects through a variety of presentations, themes, different fonts, embedded videos, and animations. As with other applications, learners can view, share, and collaborate with others on the same presentation online (Taprial & Kanwar, 2011). To add more features to Google Docs, learners can install add-ons. They can click the Add-ons menu to browse the store to install the tools they want. Wen (2014) figured out nine useful add-ons for Google Docs. Examples are clipboard, translate Easy Bib, and Track Changes.

Google Apps include other applications used in the learning and teaching processes. They provide a medium for sharing teacher-created lessons and activities. Among these applications are Google Drive, Gmail, and Google calendar. Gmail is the Google most secure free web-mail where learners can compose, send, and receive emails. Also, they can attach files and insert links from their Google drive. Furthermore, teachers can create a list of contacts of their students and assign them to groups (Conner, 2008). Google Drive is an online storage device where learners and teachers can create folders to upload files and documents for a view, comment, or edit with others. Besides, it saves all Google Docs created by them. Furthermore, all access to Google Docs and applications take place through Google Drive (Lamont, 2015).

Google Calendar is a reliable online application that can be accessed anytime to record significant events. It has a reminder option that sends a notification to users' emails or smartphones (Darbyshire & Darbyshire, 2010). Inside classrooms, Google Calendar is as a method of reminding students of important dates such as exam or quiz times and deadlines for assignments.

Google Classroom is a free and promising educational suite that supports both online and blended learning. Teachers can easily create classes and invite students using their Gmail accounts or class code. Then teachers can add assignments, tests, questions, and a class Drive folder to receive students' files. Teachers also can communicate with their classes by using the Stream icon where they can share posts and create and schedule announcements. Heggart and Yoo (2018) concluded that Google classroom improved students' participation and learning.
Thus, Google has positive educational and social consequences (Vise & Malseed, 2005). It provides web Apps that bring classrooms and educational institutions into the 21st century (Lawrence & Lawrence, 2007). With little training, Google tools run most activities inside and outside classes. Thus, they are suitable for project-based and online or blended learning (Leh, 2014). The study by Abdelmalak (2015) concluded that Google Docs developed students' sense of learning community. To sum up, Google is changing the way students interact and learn.

**Google Apps and language learning and teaching**

Previous studies investigated the effectiveness of using Google apps in teaching and learning of foreign languages such as Gunn, 2005; Geiller, 2014; Leh, 2014; Lin & Yang, 2013; Starsma, 2010). They have indicated the effectiveness of these Apps in improving learners’ English language skills.

Therefore, a systematic review is needed to get a proper insight into the significance of Google Apps. Moreover, the study sheds light on the gaps that need more empirical researches.

**Research objectives**
The objectives of this systematic review are:

1. to present previous studies that have employed Google Apps in the process of English language learning and teaching,
2. to identify the language skills included in these studies,
3. to explain the objectives and the results of these studies,
4. to classify the participants and tools of these studies, and
5. to find out gaps in current researches that may lead to further investigations.

**Research questions**

1. What are the published articles on Google Apps and the English language between 2009 and 2018?
2. What are the language skills explored?
3. What are the participants and tools of these studies?
4. What are the objectives and results of these studies?
5. What are the language areas that need more investigation?

**Methodology**

**Inclusion criteria**

The initial aim of this research was to review all possible previous research studies focused on using Google Apps in the learning and teaching of foreign languages during the last ten years. A systematic online search on Eric Online Digital database and Google Scholar conducted to collect data for the present study. For the last ten years, there were one hundred seventy-eight articles. The majority of them (129) were from journal articles, (15) dissertation and theses, (86) reports, (4) books, (32) detailed reports, (18) evaluative reports, (13) information analyses, and (2) proceedings. These analyzed studies were to meet two criteria: the published researches on Google Apps and English language learning and teaching, and the language skills involved.
This analysis excluded irrelevant studies. Finally, there were thirty-four studies selected for this review. They were further managed and analyzed by NVivo software. They were from the following journals: "Computer Assisted Language Learning, CALL-EJ, Language Learning & Technology, English Language Teaching, International Association for Development of the Information Society, Advances in Language and Literary Studies, Educational Technology & Society, JALT CALL Journal, The EUROCALL Review, Turkish Online Journal of Distance Education, Turkish Online Journal of Educational Technology, International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Higher Education, TechTrends: Linking Research and Practice to Improve Learning, and International Journal of English Linguistics, Electronic Journal of e-Learning, Indian Journal of Science and Technology, and Teachers College Record."

As shown in Table 1, they covered five areas: learning and teaching of English language, writing, reading, speaking, and translation. For conducting a systematic review, the author grouped, compared, and contrasted all these studies according to a coding scheme that includes authors, date of publication, research objectives, participants, and results. These groups formed the Node classification in Nvivo software. Each study coded into its relevant node. Table 1 presents the classifications of these studies.

Table 1. In-depth review studies by research field

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<tr>
<td>English language teaching &amp; learning</td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>23%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Teaching writing</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>11</td>
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<td>35%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading skills</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Speaking skills</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>13%</td>
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<tr>
<td>Translation studies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-</td>
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<td>7</td>
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</table>

**Results and Discussion**

*Researches on Google Apps and learning and teaching of English language*

In this section, eight analyzed previous studies dealt with Google Apps and English language learning. Six of them examined the effect of Google Docs on EL learning and their related motivation (e.g., Al-Tawil, 2016; Liu & Lan, 2016; Lin & Jou, 2013; Starsma, 2010). Studies by Alakurt and Bardakci (2017) and Alnujaidi (2017) pinpointed that learners had positive attitudes and acceptance towards Google Apps. The study by Dourda, Brattis, Griva, and Papadopoulou (2014) concluded that using Google Earth in a game-based learning class improved students' vocabulary acquisition, reading skills, and language learning. The participants in these
studies are from high school, university levels, and staff members. For details, see Appendix A, Table 2

As shown in Table 2, using Google Apps and Docs improved students' English language learning and increased their motivation. Students had positive perceptions of using Google Docs and Google + inside their classes (Alakurt & Bardakci, 2017). The tools used included a motivation questionnaire (Lin & Jou, 2013; Liu & Lan, 2016), reading and writing tests (Dourda et al., 2014), and attitude or perception questionnaires (Alakurt & Bardakci, 2017; Alnujaidi, 2017; Kelsen, 2009). Further researches may investigate the effect of Google Docs on children and primary school students' English language learning. More studies may explore teachers' suggestions for improving the utilization of Google Docs.

Studies that utilized Google Apps in the learning and teaching of writing

This section examines thirteen studies on Google and writing skills, published between 2012 and 2018. The source of data collected was questionnaires, such as studies of Zhou, Simpson, and Domizi (2012), Seyyedrezaie, Ghonsooly, Shahriari, Fatemi (2016), Suwantarathip, and Wichadee (2014), Han and Shin (2017) and Alsubaie and Ashuraidah (2017). Other studies used tests (e.g., Alsubaie & Ashuraidah, 2017; Geiller, 2014; Han & Shin, 2017; Seyyedeh & Seyyedrezaie, 2017; Seyyedrezaie et al., 2016; Suwantarathip & Wichadee, 2014). Two studies conducted interviews (Alsubaie & Ashuraidah, 2017; Ebadi, & Rahimi, 2017). The study by Kessler, Bikowsk, and Boggs (2012) used students' reports and classroom observations.

As shown in Appendix B, Table 3, most previous studies on writing were for college students, for instance, Alsubaie & Ashuraidah (2017), Ebadi and Rahimi (2017), and Kessler, Bikowski, and Boggs (2012). Further studies can investigate other levels, such as primary, preparatory, and secondary students. Almost all of the previous studies focused on the process of collaborative writing. The results affirmed the effectiveness of Google Docs and the Google search engines in improving students writing performance. Students showed positive attitudes towards integrating Google Docs in the process of writing (Seyyedrezaie et al., 2016). The Google search engines also helped learners to identify and correct their writing errors (Acar, Geluso & Shiki, 2011; Geiller, 2014; Yoon, 2016).

Studies on reading comprehension and Google intervention

Two studies, represented in Appendix C, Table 4, focused on reading comprehension and the use of Google Docs and Apps. The participants were college students in Park's study (2013) and undergraduate learners in Karnal and Vera's research (2013). The tool was a reading instrument to check learners' comprehension and use of reading strategies. More experimental studies can examine the effect of Google Docs and Apps on improving students' reading comprehension, oral reading, and engagement in reading tasks.

Studies on speaking skills and using Google Apps

The review found only four studies about speaking skills and the use of the Google speech recognition system, and one study employed Google earth. Appendix D, Table 5 represents the details.
As shown in Table 5, the participants in those studies were from higher education. A grammatical performance test was the tool of Ashwell and Elam's study (2017). Daniels and Iwago (2017) used a speaking test in their research. The results of these studies showed that the Google speech recognition system was a valuable tool in English language learning researches. More studies may investigate the effect of GSR on developing speaking skills and oral reading.

**Studies on translation**

Appendix E, Table 6, represents reviewed seven studies on translation and Google machine translation. Results show that some previous studies investigated the quality of Google machine translation, such as Azer and Aghayi (2015), and a few others examined its effect on translation performance El-Banna and Naeem (2016). The participants were beginners in Garcia and Pena (2011), but they were college learners, as in El-Banna and Naeem (2016). The qualitative study by Kadhim et al. (2013) employed a questionnaire to evaluate the output of machine translation.

**Conclusions and recommendations**

This paper reviewed some studies that used Google Apps in English language learning and teaching. The finding of the reviewed studies illustrated the importance of Google Apps in the process of English language teaching and learning. These Apps can be used as online learning tools and are applied quickly to support blended learning practices. Researchers showed that using Google Docs, Google Machine Translation, Google speech recognition systems, and Google Earth had significant effects on improving the English language among learners. The language areas of investigation were writing, reading, speaking, and translation with a focus on vocabulary acquisition, pronunciation, the accuracy of speech, lexical knowledge, error correction, collaborative writing, engagement in reading classes, using reading strategies, and quality and accuracy of the translation.

The tools used for data collection included surveys, questionnaires, tests, students' reports, and classroom observations. The participants in most studies were college students, followed by high school students and staff members. Few studies dealt with primary school students. Pedagogical activities included cooperative, situated, communicative, task-based, game-based, and learner-based learning. As for the affective aspects, positive results were for students' motivation, attitudes, self-esteem, encouragement and enjoyment, and reducing anxiety. Reviewed studies indicated that the advantages of Google Apps such as ease and usefulness of use and affordance and cost encouraged practice among learners.

This review may be an introductory guide to researches in the field of e-learning applications such as web 2.0 tools, including Google Apps in the English language learning and teaching processes. It may enable researchers to explore new domains for further investigation. The potential areas of research include the Google speech recognition system and the Google machine translation. More examinations are needed to promote students' engagement in language classes where Google Apps are employed. Studies can investigate the effect of the Google search engines and Google scholar in facilitating language researches conductivity. Other experimental studies may explore the integration of Google Apps with other social media applications such as Twitter, Facebook, or Instagram in enhancing language learning and improving English language teaching. In the field of English language assessment, researchers can investigate the effect of...
designing class tests using Google forms in reducing students' exam anxiety. As for online and blended learning platforms, studies can develop course materials that incorporate Google Apps to facilitate learning. Other studies are needed to investigate teachers' perception of using Google classroom suite in English language learning and its impact on students' engagement.

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About the author:
Eman Abdel Reheem Amin is an assistant professor at the department of English, Zulfi, Majmaah University, Saudi Arabia. She earned her Ph.D. from Benha University, Egypt. She is the author of several publications related to applied linguistics and English language teaching.

References


Al-Tawil, A. (2016). Exploring How Digital Media Technology Can Foster Saudi EFL Students' English Language Learning. Paper presented at the International Conferences on Internet Technologies & Society (ITS), Education Technologies (ICEduTECH), and Sustainability, Technology and Education (STE) (Melbourne, Australia, Dec 6-8, 2016)


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**Appendices**

**Appendix A**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Date of publication</th>
<th>Research objectives</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Kelsen</td>
<td>2009</td>
<td>The objective of the study was to investigate students’ attitudes towards using YouTube in EFL classes.</td>
<td>College students</td>
<td>Students reported positive attitudes since they found YouTube was motivating and beneficial.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Starsma</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td>The researcher studied the effect of using Google Docs on students' engagement in language classes.</td>
<td>College students</td>
<td>It recommended using Google Docs to engage students in primary research in composition courses.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lin &amp; Jou</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>Their study developed students' performance and motivation for learning English.</td>
<td>University level students</td>
<td>Students’ motivation for learning and performance developed by applying</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Summary</td>
<td>Findings</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dourda et al.</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>The study aimed to improve students’ reading and writing skills through online games.</td>
<td>Primary school students showed that using game-based learning that incorporates Google Earth improved students writing and reading skills.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Tawil</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>The study sought to find out how Digital Media can improve learners' English language learning.</td>
<td>Results indicated that Google Machine translation could support intentional language learning outside of the school.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liu &amp; Lan</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Their concern was to investigate an individual learner vs. a group of learners' motivation, vocabulary acquisition, and perceptions on using Google.</td>
<td>Google Docs enhanced students' motivation and involvement in EFL learning in a collaborative context.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Alakurt &amp; Bardakci</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>The study aimed at examining academicians' metaphorical perceptions related to Google applications.</td>
<td>Academicians have a positive perception of Google applications.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Alnujaidi</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>The author investigated learners’ attitudes</td>
<td>Students had overall positive</td>
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</table>
towards social network sites and their effectiveness in English language learning.

Appendix B

Table 3. *Studies concerned with Google Apps and writing skills*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Date of publication</th>
<th>Research objectives</th>
<th>participants</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acar, Geluso &amp; Shiki 2011</td>
<td>They studied the effectiveness of using the Google search engine in identifying and avoiding grammatical errors in writing.</td>
<td>EFL college students</td>
<td>The study concluded that the Google search engine helped students correcting their writing mistakes and identifying their errors.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kessler, Bikowski &amp; Boggs 2012</td>
<td>Their study investigated how web-based collaborative activities (i.e., using Google Docs) change the nature of collaborative writing.</td>
<td>College students</td>
<td>Students concentrated on meaning rather than form, and their grammatical uses became accurate. They were encouraged to participate more in the process of writing.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zhou, Simpson &amp; Domizi 2012</td>
<td>Using Google Docs to develop students' collaborative writing.</td>
<td>Undergraduate students</td>
<td>Google Docs is a successful tool for collaborative writing. Students also preferred the use of Google Docs in learning writing skills. Google helped a group of EFL learners to self-correct several untreatable written errors.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Geiller 2014</td>
<td>The aim was to use web search engines such as Google to self-correct writing errors.</td>
<td>Post-secondary EFL students</td>
<td>Post-secondary EFL students</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Study Title</td>
<td>Methodology</td>
<td>Results</td>
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<tr>
<td>Suwantarathi &amp; Wichadee</td>
<td>2014</td>
<td>The study compared two groups to find out the effectiveness of using Google Docs in students' writing performance.</td>
<td>The study explored EFL learners' perception of integrating Google Docs in a collaborative writing course. Thompson et al. (2015) The study examined the effect of Google Docs in the writing process. It also investigated students' perceptions of the causes of failure or success in writing courses.</td>
<td>Students reported a positive attitude towards the implication of Google Docs, and they considered it as a cause for success in their writing performance. Besides, Google Docs led to an improvement in students' writing performance. Students showed positive attitudes towards using Google Docs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jeong</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>The study explored EFL learners' perception of integrating Google Docs in a collaborative writing course.</td>
<td>The study compared two groups to find out the effectiveness of using Google Docs in students' writing performance. Thompson et al. (2015) The study examined the effect of Google Docs in the writing process. It also investigated students' perceptions of the causes of failure or success in writing courses.</td>
<td>The study proposed Google Docs as a collaborative tool used to enhance learners' communication and collaborative learning. Google Docs group achieved better results in writing classes than the face-to-face group. They also showed positive attitudes towards using Google Docs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seyyedrezaie et al.</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>The study compared two groups to find out the effectiveness of using Google Docs in students' writing performance.</td>
<td>The study compared two groups to find out the effectiveness of using Google Docs in students' writing performance. Thompson et al. (2015) The study examined the effect of Google Docs in the writing process. It also investigated students' perceptions of the causes of failure or success in writing courses.</td>
<td>Students reported a positive attitude towards the implication of Google Docs, and they considered it as a cause for success in their writing performance. Besides, Google Docs led to an improvement in students' writing performance. Students showed positive attitudes towards using Google Docs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yim, Warschauer, &amp; Zheng</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>The aim was to explore the challenges that affected how Google Docs integrated into classes.</td>
<td>The study compared two groups to find out the effectiveness of using Google Docs in students' writing performance. Thompson et al. (2015) The study examined the effect of Google Docs in the writing process. It also investigated students' perceptions of the causes of failure or success in writing courses.</td>
<td>Results showed that Google Docs provides accessibility for writing practice.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yoon</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>The aim was to explore the challenges that affected how Google Docs integrated into classes.</td>
<td>The study compared two groups to find out the effectiveness of using Google Docs in students' writing performance. Thompson et al. (2015) The study examined the effect of Google Docs in the writing process. It also investigated students' perceptions of the causes of failure or success in writing courses.</td>
<td>Results showed that this reference suite aided the participants in solving both lexical and grammatical problems. However, students showed positive attitudes towards using Google Docs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Study Overview</td>
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<tr>
<td>Alsubaie &amp; Ashuraidah</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>They reported differences between the students' individual and collaborative work using Google Docs. Results indicated significant achievements in using Google Docs. Students considered it as a useful tool for their work.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ebadi &amp; Rahimi</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>They explored the effectiveness of using Google Docs for online peer-editing on EFL learners' academic writing skills. Results showed students' positive perceptions towards the use of online peer-editing in academic writing.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Han &amp; Shin</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>The aim was to teach Google search techniques (GSTs) in a writing course. Results indicated the importance of integrating GSTs in teaching writing and providing teachers' guidance and feedback to facilitate the writing process. Students reported that using the Google search engine was beneficial.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Seyyedeh &amp; Seyyedrezaie</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>The study compared the effect of Google Drive versus face to face. Google Drive group outperformed face to face one, and the latter had more writing apprehension.</td>
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environments on students' writing performance and writing apprehension compared to the other group.

Table 4. Studies on Google Apps and reading comprehension

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Date of publication</th>
<th>Research objectives</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Results</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Park</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>The aim was to present a practical guide for instructors to promote students' engagement in reading classes by using web 2.0 tools such as Google Docs.</td>
<td>College students</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karnal &amp; Vera</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>The study examined the extent to which it is possible to comprehend a text translated by using a machine Google translator.</td>
<td>Undergraduate learners</td>
<td>The results represented the reading strategies that non-proficient readers use to comprehend translated texts.</td>
</tr>
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</table>

Table 5. Studies on Google Apps and speech recognition system and speaking skills

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Date of publication</th>
<th>Research objectives</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Ashwell &amp; Elam</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>The aim was to use the Google Web Speech API to score elicited imitation (EI) tests.</td>
<td>EFL learners</td>
<td>The Google Web Speech system helps in assessing pronunciation and the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Review of Research into Google Apps in the Process of English Language

Daniels & Iwago 2017
The study aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of Google Speech Recognition (GSR) in transcribing L2 learners' speech. Results reported the accuracy of speech recognition engines.

O'Brien 2017
The researcher aimed to develop a system to design material for CALL courses that incorporate the Google speech recognition system.

Awada & Diab 2018
The aim was to investigate the effect of Google earth and Wikis on developing oral presentation skills and motivation. Results showed that integrating Google earth and Wikis led to an improvement in students' oral presentation skills, active learning, and motivation.

Appendix E
Table 6. Studies on translation and Google Machine translation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Authors</th>
<th>Date of publication</th>
<th>Research objectives</th>
<th>Participants</th>
<th>Results</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O'Brien</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Daniels &amp; Iwago</td>
<td>2017</td>
<td>The study aimed at evaluating the effectiveness of Google Speech Recognition (GSR) in transcribing L2 learners' speech.</td>
<td>EFL undergraduate students</td>
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</tr>
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<td>EFL higher education learners</td>
<td>showed that integrating Google earth and Wikis led to an improvement in students' oral presentation skills, active learning, and motivation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Authors</td>
<td>Year</td>
<td>Study Description</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Garcia &amp; Pena</td>
<td>2011</td>
<td>The study investigated the effectiveness of Google machine translation (MT) in students' second language learning. MT helped learners to communicate more in the target language.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kadhim et al.</td>
<td>2013</td>
<td>The aim was to test the translation quality of the Google machine and Babylon systems in translating Arabic news headlines into English. Results indicated the clarity and accuracy of Google MT.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Azer &amp; Aghayi</td>
<td>2015</td>
<td>The aim was to evaluate the translation quality of machine translation systems in translating from English to Persian. Results indicated that Google machine translation produces an intelligible and acceptable translation.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al-Tuwayrish</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>The study examined the role of Machine Translation in everyday situations. The study demonstrated the pros and cons of MT.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>El-Banna &amp; Naeem</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>Their study aimed at using machine translation to help students avoid common errors in translation. The Google machine translation enabled the students to improve their translation performance.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Darancik</td>
<td>2016</td>
<td>This study examined the NA The Google machine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
effect of a data-based Translation Program on the correct use of language.

Ghasemi & Hashemian 2016

The main aim was to conduct an error analysis to investigate the errors found in the translation from Persian into English and vice versa.

They found no differences between the quality of Google machine translation from Persian into English and vice versa.
A Thorough Examination of Teens Drug Slang in Algeria

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Saida University, Algeria

Abstract
Investigating the world of the drug through providing a linguistic scholarship on the coded forms employed by addicts is not an easy task because they tend to form the slang lexis that keeps them out of trouble with the law and their parents when it comes to teenagers. Several research works showed that drugs become prevalent among schoolers in comparison to cigarettes; for this reason, teens tend to develop street drug expressions commonly known as slang names to ease their access into the very dark and secretive world of drugs and steroids. In this vein, the present research paper pursues to shed light on Algerian teens and their use of drug slang terms. It also provides a thorough overview of the slang created by Algerian youngsters to facilitate the exchange of drug products. In this tight, the researcher made a profound investigation by taking Tlemcen speech community as a case in point. The researcher collected data through a semi-structured questionnaire and an interview. To this end, the results provided an in-depth look at what is behind the backdrop of the drug world. The analysis revealed that there is increasing use of slang terms between teens at secondary schools, especially words for selling and buying drugs. The findings also demonstrated that teens have created slang terms for the most widely employed types of drugs like ecstasy, heroin, L.S.D, and barbiturates.

Keywords: A sociolinguistic investigation, drugs, slang expressions, Tlemcen society, youngsters

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol11no1.28
Introduction

There is no doubt that the world of the drug has dropped even the innocent generation to its dark and deviance folds and resulted in their total life destruction. Yes, it is the world of drug that violates all social and religious values. It puts the younger generation at the center of the concerns of those, who make humans at a laboratory to experiment different kinds of drugs and steroids under the umbrella that these products help them to overcome and neglect all the social problems affecting their lives as individuals. Therefore, it prevents them from being effective persons in their societies. In this regard, Mayr and Machin (2012) pinpoint that drug “maps the social world for us by foregrounding the association of well-behaved ordinary young people. These drugs are therefore a threat to the foundations of society” (pp. 39-40).

Admittedly, the invasion of drug products becomes relatively apparent, and a real fatal threat that threatens all sorts of human natural lives in the whole globe. Most recent studies have revealed that drug addicts are suffering from psychological and social pressures; consequently, they try to fetch for substitutions to overcome their dilemma. These studies also confirm that children and youngsters are the first leaders in using drugs due to parental and social problems such as divorce and poverty. In a study conducted by the American National Institution on Drug Abuse (2016), researchers discovered that 1 in 16 high school seniors reported daily marijuana use, about 5% of high school seniors have abused opioid painkillers (The Treatment Center Lifelong Addiction Recovery, 2018).

Like other groups, addicts have built their world by creating codes and slang expressions to buy and take drugs. These expressions keep them out of sight of their parents, their teachers, schools, and the law. These terms have considerably increased with the invasion of new projects and markets. The use of slang expressions may result in a fertile terrain that needs scholars to investigate thoroughly. In the light of this tight, the present research paper draws attention to terminologies related to drug slang that has recently appeared in the field of language studies and which has triggered the intention of sociolinguists in the last few decades. The use of these codes has paved the path for easy access to drug products and has called for an urgent scholarship that can help other fields like sociology and psychology to overcome the increasing nature of this catalyst. As such, this small scale study strives to present a systematic investigation that confirms the reliability of many assumptions set on the future of the Algerian teens after the emergence of drug addiction. This survey tries to provide some scholarship on drug slang terms developed by Algerian teens. These concerns present the following research questions:

1. Why do Algerian teens develop drug slang?
2. For what reason are these street terms utilized?
3. What is the nature of these expressions?

The researcher put forward the following hypotheses to confirm the reliability of the above research objectives:

1. Algerian youngsters may have developed drug slang to expedite their access to drug markets.
2. Algerian teens may create these street words to keep them safe from the control of the law and their parents. Through these terminologies, teens can protect their privacy and ensure their belonging to a specific group.

3. These terminologies may form a set of words taken from Algerian dialectal Arabic (AA) employed metaphorically to hide the real meaning of drug terms and names.

To bring this study into the light, the researcher took about three years in data collection due to the sensitive nature of the topic at hand. The researcher found difficulties in data collection, especially in selecting the appropriate research tools and where the research can take place.

**Review of the Related Literature**

Providing an account of drug slang expressions is not enough without understanding the motives that drive teens to engage in a dirty world and destroy their whole future. Perhaps the first reason revolves around their rebellion against the parental and societal systems because they feel losing control over their own lives. Through the use of drugs, they think that they can break the societal taboos and mix all the rules and norms set by their society. Another driving factor is fetching for a sense of popularity and fame. Scientists proved that youngsters are always trying to create their own identities that differentiate them from the whole members of society; this may lead them to fall in the trap of the drug world. Competition is another incentive that encourages youths to take drugs, especially in sports. Henceforth, these motives are the first impetus that develops their positive attitudes towards engaging in a world that has easy access (What parents must know about teen drug abuse trends and drug slang, n.d.).

Bringing cues on the main culprits responsible for leading teens to the other corner of the world where norms and values have no place, one has not to forget to talk about the place where they can get drugs. Studies have demonstrated that teens can find these illegal products in streets, parties, and online. Indeed, the most widely used drug products between youths are ecstasy and marijuana.

Expressions like candy, snow, glass, brown, and sugar become old-fashioned between teens because these idioms become a part of daily speech, i.e., they are longer seen as drug slang. Therefore, youths have created their new coded terms that are not easy to detect (What parents must know about teen drug abuse trends and drug slang, n.d.). Indeed, slang terminologies are developed depending on the type of drug and its shape. Table one sheds light on some street words produced in the English language:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of Drug in English</th>
<th>Slang Expressions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amphetamine</td>
<td>Benz, black and white, blackbirds, blue boys, coasts to coasts, crisscross, roads, footballs, French blues, pink hearts, speed, sweets, whites, and wake-ups…etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cocaine</td>
<td>Angel powder, Angie, aunt Nora, baby powder, beach, Blanco, Coca-Cola, cookie, coconut, mosquitos, powder diamonds, late-night, paradise white, and Rambo…etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Heroin</td>
<td>Chocolate, dark girl, curly hair, foolish powder, the</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
black pearl, blue hero, brown crystal, black, bitch, black sheep, and dead on arrival…etc.

LSD

Acid, Alice, Angels in a sky, blue chair, mellow yellow, robots, pink wedges, pizza, potato, pure love, square dancing tickets, white dust, wedding bells, and yellow sunshine…etc.

Marijuana

Blue cheese, Arizona, blueberry, Christmas tree, Doobie, cookie, blue jeans, black gold, little green friends, little smoke, young girls, Zambi, wheat, and white-haired lady…etc.

MDMA

Adam, baby slits, chocolate chips, moon rock, Scooby snacks, sweets, and vitamin E…etc.

Methamphetamine

Chicken powder, clothing cleaner, eyeglasses, fire, walking Zombie, witches teeth, yellow barn, Colorado Rockies…etc.

Note.1. A list adapted from: (Drug slang code words, 2017, pp. 2-3-4-5-6)

The subject of street terms related to drug abuse has called for immediate research because addicts do not stop at the level of employing metaphors and nicknames, but it passes to more complicated codes. Criminals and drug merchants utilized these codes. As such, decoding these coded expressions is not an easy task for linguists. It needs to understand the social and geographical variations where they can use these expressions so that they can be able to understand their meaning. What also makes the task of drug detectors hard is that drug dealers employ some terms to refer to different types of drugs. The following table shows some coded forms employed in the English language:

Table.2. Coded words referring to drugs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coded Forms</th>
<th>Meaning in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>007s or 69s</td>
<td>Ecstasy/MDMA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100s or 25s</td>
<td>LSD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>151</td>
<td>Crack cocaine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>420</td>
<td>Marijuana use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Al Caone</td>
<td>Heroin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Arnolds</td>
<td>Steroids</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Atom Bomb</td>
<td>Marijuana mixed with heroin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babysitter</td>
<td>Marijuana</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.2. A list adapted from (Drug Policy Information Clearinghouse, n.d.)
Drug users also tend to develop terminologies to describe not only drugs and their various kinds, but also merchants and all those who participate in their production, prescription, and trade. The following table gives some examples found by linguists and drug detectors:

### Table 3. Coded words referring to merchants and users in English

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Coded Forms</th>
<th>Meaning in English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Author</td>
<td>The doctor who writes illegal prescriptions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baby habit</td>
<td>Occasional use of drugs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Babysit</td>
<td>Guide someone through the first drug experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bag man</td>
<td>The person who transports money and supplies narcotics or other drugs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Baker</td>
<td>A person who smokes marijuana</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bean</td>
<td>A capsule containing drugs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bing</td>
<td>Enough drug for one injection</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. 3.* A list adapted from (Drug Policy Information Clearinghouse, n.d)

**Drug Slang in the Arabic Language**

There is no doubt to confirm that the Arabic language, mainly; its dialectal forms are rich in colloquial words which are employed to describe the use of drugs, various sorts, and addicts, etc. A good example, the term زاطل or مزطول in Algerian Arabic (AA) refers to a stoned person, and the name الزطلة is used to name drugs. The term الزطلة is employed to describe a kind of drugs called cannabis resin. This term is used, mainly in the Algerian borders with Morocco, where drug trade has flourished, and most people are suffering from its effects. Other colloquial expressions mostly exist in Algerian dialects are الكيف، الحشيش، التكروري، الجريفا، العقار, to describe drugs with its different types. Indeed, there is a little difference between these names in another Arabic dialect; for example, the Egyptians employ مسطول and السطلة referring to drug users and drugs in general (Djazairess, 2009).

Standard Arabic, like other languages, has also created certain expressions to describe new emerging phenomena like المخدرات، المنشطات، المهدئات، المنشطات، المخدرات، الكسل، والفوتوور referring to drugs with its diverse forms. The term المخدرات is taken from the term مخدراً i.e. some of the human organs are under drug effects. This means in Arabic الكسل والفوتوور (laziness), and the most known sorts of drugs are /hɑːʃɪ/) /bn3/, and /ʔafjuːn/، the بنج، الحشيش والآفيون, in addition to newly employed forms, include المهدة و المنشطة المواد المعدة، المواد (hypnotic and stimulant substances).

In Morocco, where eight hundreds of people are drug users, new terminologies and slang expressions entered the Moroccan dialects. Statistics have shown that most of the addicts are children and youths. Those addicts have created new terms such as المسطول، الوالد، والفيتوور، الكسل، والفوتوور، اليوسف، والآفيون، and /bula ʔmara/،
El Ashref (2016) further highlights that الكالة is the most used among teens and children since it is cheap in comparison to المعجون. El Ashref has also added that المعجون was widely used in North African countries, mainly, Morocco where people were able to prepare it with walnuts and almonds. Still, they began to add some drug products to this mixture in the last few years. The following table provides an overview of the slang expressions found in Arabic dialects to describe drugs:

Table 4. Drug slang terms existing in Arabic dialects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms in English</th>
<th>Terms in Arabic Dialects</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marijuana</td>
<td>الحشيش in Syria, Egypt, and Lebanon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>الكريتر in Algeria and Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>الـقوقاز in Morocco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecstasy</td>
<td>زبدة الحجي in Egypt, Syria, and Lebanon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Amphetamines</td>
<td>الحلوى in most Arabic dialects</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

However, these expressions have become old-dated, and youngsters and drug traders start searching for new codes and slang forms that appeared in the market so that it keeps them out of the law and family members. The following table provides some examples of newly employed terms in the world of drugs:

Table 5. New drug slang in Arabic dialects

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Terms in English</th>
<th>Slang Expressions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marijuana</td>
<td>الثمره، السجارة، ابوهنك، المعجونه، السوداء، الشفره</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seconal</td>
<td>البازوكا، ايوجنير، ابو حزام، ابو لمعه، الأحمر، الفشق، اربعين، ايوقالب، الفراولة، الشبح، جمس، بسام، الشماغ، الصواريخ، الشياطين الحمر</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD</td>
<td>الكرستال، النلنج، الاسيد</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PCP</td>
<td>تراب الملاكمة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Cepagon</td>
<td>ابو ملف، ملف شقراء، الابيض، ابو داب، القشطه، ابو قوسين</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note 4. A list adapted from Hassen Jan (2015)

In the guise of conclusion, drug addicts and traders have formed their world where everything illegal is appreciated, and they consider youngsters as the first victims to ruin the bases of any nation. To hide their deviant practices, they tend to create coded forms and slang terms that are subject to change every time, i.e., they have no permanent forms used in their daily interaction.
Research Methodology and Design

Sampling and Population

The researcher selected the sample randomly. She based her research on youngsters in three secondary schools at Maghnia town since it is in the borders with Morocco and it witnesses a great use of drugs both in trade and addiction. The researcher did not want to mention the names of these schools due to the sensitive nature of the case study. The sample contained 80 schoolers. The researcher has conducted the study during the years 2013-2016. It took three years because people did not want to answer the questionnaire; as a matter of fact, the participants were asked to reply anonymously due to the sensitive nature of its questions. In this sense, the researcher depended on two research instruments, mainly, a questionnaire and an interview.

As far as the interview is concerned, the researcher was not able to conduct it. For this reason, she asked for the help of some relatives. The interviewer conducted the interview for 8 months with 20 informants whose ages were between 15 and 20 years old.

Questionnaire

The participants’ ages vary between 15, 18, and 20 years old, and were from both genders as table six shows:

Table 6. Distribution of participants according to their gender and age

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between 15-17</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 17-19</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Between 19-20</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table six reveals that participants were distributed depending on certain variables, namely, gender and age, although the number of male informants was more than females because girls refused to collaborate with the researcher.

The questionnaire consists of two parts; the first part contains information about their age, gender, and the name of their secondary schools. The second one consists of questions on drugs, including whether they took them or not, where they can be found, for what reason, and what are the mostly employed terms to name the different types of drugs.

Discussion and Interpretation of the Questionnaire

The current study aims to investigate slang terms used in the world of drug, for this reason, the researcher took just four questions that can confirm the reliability of the research hypotheses. Question One: Do you have an idea if your colleagues are taking drugs?

- Yes
- No

Table 7. Pupils’ knowledge of the existence of drugs in their schools

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Thorough Examination of Teens Drug Slang in Algeria

**Table 8. Types of drugs taken by teens**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Percentages</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cocaine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marijuana</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ecstasy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Zombie drug</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Seconal</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LSD</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 1.** Pupils’ knowledge of the existence of drugs in their schools

This question was difficult to get its answers; in fact, it took about three months to have their responses after promising them that the researcher will not inform the administration about the problem. On the other hand, females refused to answer this question; only four girls agreed and cooperated. The results showed that about 69.11% of the informants helped the researcher and declared that some teens are drug addicts. They added that most of those youngsters are studying at the baccalaureate level. They stated that their age is between 17 and 19 years old. They also declared that some of them are always getting in trouble with the administration.

Question Two: Do you have an idea about which type of drugs pupils used is school?
- Cocaine
- Marijuana
- Ecstasy
- Zombie drug
- Seconal
- LSD
A thorough examination of teens’ drug slang in Algeria

Due to the sensitive nature of this question, female informants refused to answer. The researcher found it difficult with male respondents; she had to explain the different types of drugs with pictures to the pupils since no sessions are provided by the administration to raise their awareness about the negative impacts of drugs on their health and future as individuals. They informed that ecstasy is the most used. They also reported that it is named as ‘ambiance’. They added that seconal or what is called الحمره الطوماطيش and ‘madame courage’ is another type of producing drugs that they saw it in school. Furthermore, they informed that drug dealers give a new type for free outside schools, i.e., in the street. This type is called Zombie drug and its name in the dialectal form varies between groups, but the most widely used are الحمسه، البصمة فالاكا الزمبيي the lattice, the palm print and زمبي.

Question Three: You mentioned some expressions which are not understood, according to your opinion, for what reason is it used?

- To protect their privacy and belonging to a specific group
- To get drugs
- To ease its trade

Table 9. The reasons behind the use of slang drug terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answers</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Expressed in %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To protect their privacy and belonging to a</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Types of drugs taken by teens

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<tr>
<td>To protect their privacy and belonging to a</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is evident from the statistics mentioned above that most of the participants claimed that teens are always looking for ways to protect their privacy from the old, especially their parents; for this reason, privacy is their concern. In contrast, about 25% of the informants maintained that to get drugs, some persons tend to employ codes to hide the real names of some drug products such as سفرجل/sferjing/ and كران/karen/, etc.

**Question One:** What are the terms which are employed to talk about Marijuana?

About 16 of the respondents informed that the term كيف/fi3f and الزطلة/jazzala/ were the mostly employed terms between drug users to describe marijuana. Still, this idiom is no longer employed, especially by youngsters. They added that they tend to use new slang words like طبيسلة/tb3sila/, كران/kara:n/, and chicoula /ʃiku:la/. In contrast, four informants reported that each group of drug users created coded forms that are not mutually intelligible even by other
drug addicts. They gave the interviewer other terms such as /e3a:jha/, السكينة /emasku:na/, الغالية /eyalja/, النزهة /enazfa/, الخردلة /eherdla/, الزينة /ez:i:na/, الدومينو /d63minda/, الصبونية /e3abu:nija/.

Question Two: What are the most preferred types of drug and what are their names?
Nine out of 20 interviewees informed that there are new products in the streets. They sold these drugs in libraries, free markets, on the university campus, in nightclubs, and public phone cabinets. They added that some drugs are given for free to engage youngsters like Zombie drug which is named as /dz3ambi/, and داعش /da:fi:/ in Arabic. They also declared that there is a newly introduced type called الحوت الأزرق (the blue whale) (which is a name given to DMT taken from tryptamine). This term was used because of its blue colour, while in Middle East countries; it is named عقار الشيطان (the devil drug) and الفيل الأزرق (the blue elephant). They added that this type is mostly found between university students, mainly females. They further insisted on the point that teens still regards ecstasy as the most preferred type of drugs. They also tend to find out some street words to describe it as السعادة /esa:jfa:da/, السعادة /pla:zma/, النشوة /ena:jwa/, and ‘ambiance’ /embi:jans/ which is a French word, while the expression الحلوى /elhalwa/ becomes old-dated.

Question Three: It is agreed that the government has made tremendous efforts to diminish drug trade in the last years so that getting them becomes impossible. In this sense, are there any alternatives that drug users find to take? If yes, what are their names?
The interviewer faced many constraints in getting answers to this question because most interviewees refused to provide their responses; as a matter of fact, it took about two months to get a reply. In this sense, only five out of 20 interviewees acquainted the interviewer about a new technique that teens used to get new drugs. This technique involves mixing soft drinks like Coca-Cola or Pepsi with a medicament called lyric to produce a drug named as الصاروخ /e3a:ru:xi/, /ema:ru:xi/, كوكو /ku:ku:, المصروب , /d3i:f/, الصغير /alaxaf/, كوكو /e3a:jzin:3a/, الغيرة /elrbra/, آزيتا /elfari:na/ in French. They also mentioned names for other drugs that they did not know their real scientific names including الخضرة /elx3dra/, الخضراء /elu3dra/, الارطاطة /eru:3/, الرش /eregla/, and lozino taken from Spanish. They added that there is another type which came from Morocco called ‘superman’. This type is named as الحماة /l3ma:/ in Morocco and is regarded as the most dangerous type of stimulants because it gives the user enormous energy so that he will feel like a bird. They claimed that this sort is taken mostly by criminals and thieves. They further reported that there are some drug users who take even barbiturate when they want to commit crimes because it helps them to behave unconsciously. Its name differs between users, but the
most commonly employed is /laːrˈtæn/ لارتان, without forgetting codeine which is also found among their favoured drugs. This type of drug is named as //braːʼæ/ برارة.

They also enriched the researcher’s knowledge about some products that take the same names as in the Middle East such as عش الغراب (the crow nest) for ‘LCD’, عقار الحب (love drug) for MDA, and غبار الملائكة (angels’ dust) for both PCP and LSD, and الكريستال (crystal) for both LSD and methamphetamine.

**Limitations of the Paper**

Entering this dramatic world for a female researcher is impossible because the subject itself is seen as a taboo topic to deal with. The topic is linked to mafia, and illegal trade that opens the gateway for other taboos like prostitution and adultery. After all, the trade of drugs also becomes the concerns of prostituted women under the reason that they are cast away by society. Although the researcher made all her efforts to help in understanding the world of drugs, her contribution is not sufficient; as a matter of fact, she decided to carry on her investigation of drugs slang, hoping that she can understand how youngsters prepare these terms and how they communicate. Another stumbling block in this research is conducting the interview with teens in streets which is dangerous and seems unattainable; hence, the researcher decided to work in cooperation with some male relatives who told the interviewees that they are drug addicts. Thus, this is the main claim that makes them confident and provided the interviewers with some information.

Another limitation of this research is that most participants in both the questionnaire and the interview have no idea about the real scientific names of these drugs and their effects. For this reason, the study seemed to fail in its beginning because the researcher cannot relate each slang word with its real type. For this reason, the subject is still under investigation, waiting for the acceptance of authorities to enter the world of drug without any legal constraints.

**Conclusion**

Although this piece of research was hopeless to achieve in the first step of its kickoff, the researcher strived to make it true, wishing that this forgotten angle can find a place between Algerian linguists to understand the changing core of the Algerian society which is based on the young generation. Grasping slang idioms means detecting whether a youth is taking drugs or not because teens are always innovative in terms of language use in comparison to the old people when they want to hide their private lives.

The results of the current research under scrutiny cannot be generalized for all Algerian teens or even for Tlemcen society because drug users are forming groups and each group has developed shared idioms to easy access and trade of drugs; for this reason, these expressions are subject for change every time and cannot be mutual intelligible between all groups. This is the case of gang slang in England which paved the way for the dawn of a new field of research in sociolinguistics and drives sociolinguists to create of a new term to name slang field which is ‘slanguage’ because the nature of slang expressions is changeable, dynamic and is affected by certain social and linguistic variables including gender, age, educational background, and the social status of the societies under investigation. In light of this idea, one can inform that the
terminologies, which are collected by the researcher of this study during three years, can no longer exist in the future. The fruits of the work can be taken as a roadmap by the researcher of the work at hand and other sociolinguists, psychologists, and sociologists for more scholarship in the field, hoping that it can save youngsters from entering the whirlpool of drugs.

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Dr Nadia GHOUNANE is a lecturer of English language and literature at Dr Moulay Tahar University of Saida, Algeria. Her teaching area includes academic reading and writing, English pronunciation, research methodology, grammar and sociolinguistics. She published several articles in fields of sociolinguistics, TEFL and literary studies. She also published two books in sociolinguistics and academic writing. Her recent activities are devoted to developing an approach to teach pronunciation in relation to MALL. ORCiD: https://orcid.org/0000-0002-9491-7981

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https://www.thetreatmentcenter.com/resources/drug-slang/
The Influence of Implementing Reciprocal Teaching in L2 Classes on Female Students' Perception of their Reading Skills and Motivation to Read

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Abstract
This study aimed to investigate the effectiveness of reciprocal teaching (RT) in improving high school female students’ attitudes toward reading in a second language as the results might shed light on effective teaching practices in the L2 classrooms. To this end, a self-report questionnaire was developed and validated by the researcher. A quasi-experimental design was used, whereby the study sample was divided into two groups, experimental and control. The experimental group was taught reading in English classes by means of RT strategies, whereas the matched control group was taught reading by means of traditional instructive techniques. Both groups completed the self-report questionnaire on reading skills and motivation during term time, ensuring that the participants in the experimental group completed the questionnaire within ten weeks of the intervention. The findings show significant correlations between RT strategies and both reading comprehension and motivation to read, and are also effective in improving students’ perception of their reading skills and motivation to read. Accordingly, the study recommends other researchers to investigate the effect of RT on students’ performance and considering implementing RT with the use of technology in English as foreign language (EFL) classrooms.

Keywords: clarifying, EFL, motivation, reading comprehension, predicting, questioning, reciprocal teaching, students’ perception, summarizing, teaching methodology, teaching strategies

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Introduction
It is essential that 21st-century students are able to communicate fluently with interlocutors from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds. Given that English is the world’s principal lingua franca, and used by most scientific publications and media outlets, many non-native English-speaking education systems have introduced English instruction to school-age learners. Within tuition for this age range, reading comprehension is considered the core skill which will enable every student to build their knowledge and achieve better outcomes. The Arabic language is different from European languages in many ways, including lexicon, sentence structure and direction of writing. For all these reasons, Arabic speakers face particular challenges in learning English.

Reading is one of the most difficult language skills to acquire, as it requires students to visually perceive words, process their phonological codes and understand the semantic meaning of a word itself as well as its meaning within the sentence. This complex procedure demands a high level of both skill and motivation from English as a foreign language (EFL) learners. The current study, therefore, aims to shed light on how teaching can improve non-native English learners’ perceptions of their comprehension skills and motivation in relation to reading English texts. In particular, it will examine the effectiveness of reciprocal teaching (RT), an educational strategy which has seen increasing use, in improving such perceptions.

Literature Review
Over the past few decades, studies have investigated a range of strategies to improve reading comprehension. These include questioning (Rosenshine, Meister & Chapman, 1996), clarifying (Graesser & Lehman, 2011; Ishiwa, Sanjose & Otero, 2013) and summarizing (Bean & Steenwyk, 1984; Doctorow, Wittrock & Marks, 1978; Head, Readence & Buss, 1989; Wang, Sabatini, O’Reilly and Feng, 2017). McCrudden, Magliano and Schraw (2010) found that readers must be given appropriate instructions to improve their deep processing of texts saying, "relevance instructions affect reader goals, processing, and comprehension" (p. 229) (see also Ramsay and colleagues, 2010). Other researchers concur, agreeing that when teachers implement an appropriate strategy, students become engaged and motivated in the reading class (Ilter, 2009; Soufi, Saad and Nicolas, 2015).

Other scholars have extended this line of research to strategies and factors which improve reading comprehension within EFL, given the importance, as noted above, of acquiring this core skill (Ahmadi, Ismail & Abdulllah, 2013; Krashen, 1989; Ninsuwan, 2015). Reading comprehension can be regarded as the process of getting meaningful information from a written language (Zablocki, Horn & Cuenca-Carlino, 2017) and, as Ahmadi, Ismail and Abdulllah (2013) point out, has a positive impact on language acquisition and communication skills. Krashen (1989) similarly states that reading comprehension helps vocabulary acquisition and spelling.

Since successful EFL teaching depends on both teachers and learners being and remaining strongly motivated, it is crucial to consider the impact of teaching strategies on students' motivation. Gulbinskiène and Dubovičienė (2015) state that motivation is best performed in classrooms; therefore, it is imperative that EFL teachers make their classrooms enjoyable by applying motivating strategies that suit today’s learners. Soufi, Saad and Nicolas (2015) discovered that using blogs in reading classes had a positive impact on EFL learners’ motivation.
to read, as well as boosting critical thinking skills. Moreover, Ilter (2009) concludes that the use of technology significantly contributes to an increase in motivation as regards EFL learners’ reading.

Reciprocal teaching was started by Palincsar and Brown (1984). It is a guided reading comprehension instruction technique, where the teacher models the required learning behaviours, after which students themselves become the teachers by forming small groups to discuss the texts and support each other’s learning. Palincsar and Brown (1984) selected the following four engagement strategies to represent RT within small discussion groups in which students themselves take the lead:

1) Predicting what will come next in the text being read, which allows students to draw inferences;  
2) Clarifying, which improves students’ critical thinking;  
3) Questioning, which helps students to comprehend ambiguous concepts in a text; and  
4) Summarizing, which guides students to focus on comprehension.

Additionally, the four main components of RT have recently been applied to the tuition and practice of reading in EFL classes (Al-Harby, 2016; Ashegh, 2018; Pilten, 2016; Sheng-Shiang & Hui-Chin, 2018). Ninsuwan (2015) suggests that RT skills are of particular use in aiding EFL learners to comprehend new words, as well as master different approaches to learning English.

Palincsar and Brown (1984) conducted two studies on different groups of the same age (seventh grade) at separate times, and revealed the beneficial effect of RT strategies on pupils’ reading comprehension skills in different subjects. Many studies have since been carried out to examine the effectiveness of RT on the comprehension of participants of different age groups (Liu & Bu, 2016; Pilten, 2016; Reichenberg & Kent, 2014; Schünemann, Spörer, Völlinger & Brunstein, 2017; Sheng-Shiang & Hui-Chin, 2018). A quasi-experimental study carried out in Sweden by Reichenberg and Kent (2014) suggests that RT improves third-grade students’ comprehension, while similar results with elementary students were found by Pilten (2016) in Turkey and Schünemann, Spörer, Völlinger and Brunstein (2017) in Germany. Moreover, Liu and Bu (2016) found that RTS improved language proficiency among first-year university students in Shanghai. Finally, RTS outside the regular education system was investigated by Ashegh (2018), who verified its effectiveness within a continuing education programme on the reading comprehension skills of intermediate adult EFL students. Ashegh (2018) stated, "reciprocal teaching could improve reading comprehension performance of EFL intermediate learners in Iran" (p. 28).

There has been some debate over whether all four of the elements within RT are of equal benefit. For example, the theoretical paper by Ahmadi and Gilakjani (2012) emphasizes the benefits to be gained by implementing all four RT strategies. On the other hand, Sheng-Shiang and Hui-Chin (2018) indicated, using reflective essays produced by undergraduate students in Taiwan after RT sessions, that the questioning and predicting strategies were the most useful for their comprehension of English texts.
Other researchers have examined the achievements of RT on students with different proficiency levels and reading abilities (Huang & Yang, 2015; Zablocki et al., 2017). Huang and Yang (2015) state that RT improved the skills of students with a low English level at the Technical University in Southern Taiwan. On the other hand, Zablocki et al. (2017) examined teenagers from various ethnic backgrounds and of low social status in an alternative school in the USA and found that they gained only slightly in proficiency. Soonthornmanee (2002) conducted an experiment on high and low reading achievers among Thai university EFL students, and found that the low achievers expressed a preference for RT, which helped develop their skills. An experiment conducted on disabled students also advocated the use of RT (Gomaa, 2015). Other studies have been conducted on the efficacy of RT on certain groups of Arabic-speaking students, for example, undergraduate students (Al-Harby, 2016).

Moreover, using RT has been seen to bring additional benefits to students. For example, first-grade students in Canada became significantly more engaged in the learning process by interacting and involving themselves in discussions with the teacher (Mandel, Osana & Venkatesh, 2013). Tarchi and Pinto’s (2016) study of third-grade students from different schools similarly concluded that RT fostered an interactive environment, while Schünemann and colleagues (2017) noticed an increase in team spirit, with peers supporting each other by offering constructive feedback.

**Research Question**

Given the body of research supporting the use of RT within EFL classrooms, the author of the current study investigated high school EFL students’ opinions of this pedagogical approach as a means of improving their reading comprehension and increasing their motivation to read. A quantitative research method was used.

This research developed a self-report questionnaire to assess the effects of RT on the ability of 11th-grade female students’ reading comprehension and motivation to read in a second language. The following research question was formulated: “Can applying RT in reading comprehension classes motivate second language (L2) learners and improve their reading comprehension?”

As several studies have assessed the effect of RT on non-Arabic EFL students’ skills and attitudes (e.g., Mandel et al., 2013; Schünemann et al., 2017), the current study predicts similar findings among high school Arabic speakers.

**Significance of the study**

To date, no similar study has been conducted on high school students in Jeddah. Therefore, the current study adds to the field of research into EFL teaching by considering uncovered aspects in previous studies in RT with regard to age, methodology and context. The participants are middle-class females at a private school in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

**Methodology**

The present study implements a quantitative quasi-experimental design to investigate the effects of RT on students’ reading strategies, reading comprehension and motivation to read. Additionally, it examines EFL students’ perception of RT in relation to improving their reading comprehension and increasing their motivation to read.
Participants
A total of 192 EFL female learners, aged 15-16, attending a private high school in Jeddah, Saudi Arabia, completed an electronic questionnaire. The participants are all Arabic speakers from a middle-class background, learning English as a foreign language. Although the average English proficiency of respondents is high B1, students’ levels also included C1, B2 and A2, according to the Common European Framework (CEFR) scale of English Proficiency. Equal numbers were selected from six 11th-grade classes (15-20 participants from each class), across two terms. The students were taught by a teacher with a bachelor’s degree in English and 18 years’ high school teaching experience. The teacher applied RT and used the same materials and curriculum for all students.

Instruments
Questionnaire. A questionnaire of 13 items was developed for this study based on a 5-point Likert scale, where 5 = “strongly agree” and 1 = “strongly disagree”. The questionnaire has three dimensions - reading strategies, reading comprehension and motivation - and addressed the four RT strategies, namely predict, clarify, question and summarize. After the course instructor had reviewed the questionnaire, the items were translated into Arabic to ensure that the students understood them fully, and stored in electronic form on Google drive.

Procedure
All the students had been taught using RT in 10th grade EFL classes; thus, all were already aware of each strategy. However, as the study aims to compare reading strategies, comprehension and motivation across two groups of students, exposure to RT in the 11th-grade was controlled. In the control group, students were taught reading by traditional methods. In the eleventh week, this group was given an electronic questionnaire addressing students' perceptions of their reading abilities and motivation.

In the experimental group, the English teacher introduced the RT strategies prior to the reading course. RT strategies were used for 10 weeks (45 minutes per week), after which the questionnaire was administered. Moreover, the teacher clarified the meaning of each strategy and gave examples, in collaboration with the students. Each time the teacher gave a reading lesson, she reinforced the strategies and supplied the students with an RT group worksheet. In addition, she ensured that the students received worksheets of different formats to motivate them to work. In week 11, students completed the electronic form of the study questionnaire in the computer lab of the school. None of the students, across either group, were asked to provide personal data. Although there was no time limit for completing the form, most students took around five minutes.

Reliability and validity
The researchers confirmed reliability by calculating Cronbach’s alpha using SPSS 21.0 software, which was also used to ensure validity by calculating internal consistency and examining the correlation between each individual item and the total score of the dimension and questionnaire. Furthermore, Pearson’s correlation was used to verify the concurrent validity of the questionnaire and the study’s hypotheses concerning the relationship between RT and reading comprehension and motivation. Additionally, independent sample t tests were used to compare the reading abilities and motivation of the two groups.
Results
Each item in the self-report questionnaire was assigned a score ranging from 1 to 5, where 5 = “strongly agree” and 1 = “strongly disagree”. As stated above, the questions were divided into three dimensions: (1) RT strategies (4 items); (2) reading comprehension (4 items); and (3) reading motivation (5 items). Therefore, each student was given a total score and three sub scores for the dimensions. As there are 13 items in the questionnaire, the lowest possible score was 13 and the highest 65.

Reliability and validity. The questionnaire has a high level of reliability, with a Cronbach's Alpha of 0.85. Pearson's correlation was used to calculate the validity of the questionnaire, with items overall showing a significant correlation, with a total score of $p < .001$. Additionally, the researchers carried out a series of correlations between each item and the total score of the dimension within which they fell. Table 1 shows the correlation scores and significant level of each item with the total scores of both dimension and questionnaire. All items show a significant correlation with their dimensions, of $p < .001$. Hence, no item was eliminated from the analysis. The scores of the dimensions also positively correlated with the total score, at $r = 0.87$, $r = 0.87$ and $r = 0.89$, for RT skills, reading comprehension and motivation to read respectively.

Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimensions</th>
<th>Items</th>
<th>Correlations with the Dimension Score</th>
<th>Correlations with the Total Score</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson's Correlation</td>
<td>Sig</td>
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<td>RT strategies</td>
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<td></td>
<td>1</td>
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<td>.001</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.547</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<td>3</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>.656</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Reading comprehension</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>.683</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>.569</td>
<td>.001</td>
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<tr>
<td>Motivation to read</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.001</td>
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<td></td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>.001</td>
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</table>
The role of RT in reading abilities and motivation. An independent sample $t$ test was performed to compare the means of the questionnaire scores of the experimental and control groups. This revealed a significant difference between the total score of the experimental group ($M = 44.49$, $SD = 9.42$) and the control group ($M = 41.46$, $SD = 19.51$), $t (190) = 2.11$, $p < .05$. A series of comparisons between the scores of the experimental and control groups in each dimension (reading strategies, reading comprehension and motivation to read) reveal significant results, with the experimental group scoring more highly than the control group in every case: $t (190) = 1.71$, $t (190) = 1.76$, and $t (190) = 1.98$, respectively, $p < .05$. Figure 1 gives means and standard errors of the total score of the questionnaire and sub scores of dimensions for each group.

![Figure 1](attachment:image.png)

Figure 1. This figure illustrates the means and standard errors for each dimension of the self-report questionnaire for both the experimental and control group.

Correlations between reading abilities and motivation. Pearson’s correlations show that students' perceptions of their RT skills are positively correlated with their perception of reading comprehension, $r = .69$, $p < .001$, and with motivation to read, $r = .63$, $p < .001$. Similarly, students' perception of their reading comprehension shows a significant positive correlation with motivation to read, $r = .62$, $p < .001$. 
Discussion

In this study, the researcher investigates the impact of RT on high school students’ perceptions of reading comprehension and motivation to read. Participants were recruited from one high school and were divided into two groups. One group was taught reading in English classes by means of RT strategies, while the other group was taught reading by means of the traditional instructive technique. Both groups completed a self-report questionnaire consisting of 13 items grouped in three dimensions: RT, reading comprehension and motivation.

The findings showed that RT had a significant effect on the students’ attitude toward reading, shown by the significantly higher total scores of the questionnaire for the experimental than the control group. Additionally, the sub scores of the three dimensions of the questionnaire show similar significant differences, indicating that RT strategies influence variant components of students’ perception of their reading attitudes. In addition, the results illustrate that there is a positive correlation between students’ perception of RT skills and reading comprehension, and between RT skills and motivation.

Before implementing RT, teachers are assigned to workshops to practise the strategy (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). Thereafter, the teacher introduces the strategy to the students by defining the meaning of each part and giving examples to engage students in the new method before it is applied in practice. As in the case of the participants in this study, the teacher and her students are familiarized with the new strategy prior to its use. Furthermore, the teacher reinforces the components of the strategy with students at the beginning of the course which, in turn, leads to smooth implementation.

Applying RT as a teaching strategy in EFL classrooms is meant to improve students’ reading comprehension (Palincsar & Brown, 1984). The current study supports the use of RT strategies in the EFL classroom to enhance reading as a tool to develop vocabulary (Mandel et al., 2013). It is clear from the results that most students agree that they are able to clarify words within context and find answers to comprehension questions.

The students engage well in group discussions due to the cooperative learning environment which fosters a motivation to establish communication with peers regarding the text (Tarchi & Pinto, 2016). Consequently, students tend to read more about the topic provided in class, as this kind of strategy encourages autonomous learning (Liu & Bu, 2016). These attainments provide scaffold learning and enhance a learner-centred environment, as students are responsible for their own learning process (Mandel et al., 2013) while the teacher remains the facilitator (Ahmadi & Gilakjani, 2012).

The quantitative results can be generalized to the same age group of EFL learners with an Arabic background. Accordingly, EFL teachers may consider applying RT in their reading classes, as it produces effective outcomes with regard to comprehension skills and improves students’
achievements when compared with the direct instruction strategy (Huang & Yang, 2015). Additionally, Tarchi and Pinto (2016) consider communication skills to be among the advantages of RT, a finding which is also supported by the current study. The results can also be generalized for high achievers and low achievers in reading comprehension, as RT is effective with groups of different proficiency levels (Ahmadi & Gilakjani, 2012).

The researcher suggests that sharing these findings with the students might generate motivation to participate to a greater extent in reading comprehension classes. Moreover, when the teacher becomes aware of students’ perceptions, she will be encouraged to find ways to increase students’ willingness to engage in such classes. In addition, structured interviews with the teacher and students may be carried out to obtain further data. Unfortunately, the survey did not evaluate students’ achievement in reading comprehension, accordingly, the researcher suggests using the questionnaire in combination with other achievement measures.

The results could shed light on how to make the best use of RT in EFL classrooms. Moreover, the current study can pave the way for future research to thoroughly investigate the underlying cognitive mechanisms of reading comprehension and motivation and how they are linked to RT. Based on the results presented here, teachers can also decide on a comprehensive method for the teaching of reading and will research the problems posed by learners’ lack of comprehension of reading texts and poor motivation to undertake reading. This research will thus contribute to TESOL innovation to improve levels of comprehension among EFL learners.

**Conclusion and recommendations**

The aim of this study is to examine whether implementing RT in English classes changes students' perception of their RT skills, reading comprehension and motivation to read. The study also hypothesizes the existence of correlations between RT and reading comprehension, and RT and motivation. The results show that RT is effective in improving students' perception of their reading skills and motivation. However, the current study is limited by the age, gender and first language of its respondents, and lacks the results of tests carried out on reading comprehension. It also lacks teachers’ opinions on RT. Therefore, the researcher recommends research be continued into optimal methods to enhance students' reading skills and motivation to read. In particular, the following studies are proposed:

1) A comparative research across different school grades with the aim of applying pre-test and post-test scores to the effect of RT strategies on students’ achievements, and to correlate these to students’ attitudes towards RT.

2) A study that focuses on teachers’ perceptions of the difficulties they face when implementing RT.

3) A study that implements a quasi-experimental design to test the effects of external motivations on teachers' readiness to apply RT strategies in reading classes.
4) A comparative study that compares the effects of RT with other teaching strategies, such as collaborative learning, to determine the most successful and applicable method for teaching reading in English to native Arabic learners.

Overall, the current findings are informative as concerns the importance of RT in teaching native Arabic speakers reading in English classes. Hence, the researchers recommend the following applications:

1) To offer training courses on RT strategies to English teachers. Training courses should cover the importance of using RT, implementation techniques and how to evaluate students' achievement and RT skills in reading.

2) To use successful experiences in using RT as models, and as benchmarks for other schools and educational centres.

3) To integrate the use of RT in EFL reading classes with the use of technology, which is becoming increasingly essential for 21st-century classes.

About the Author:

Maysa has an MA in TESOL form the English Language Institute in King Abdulaziz University, Jeddah, KSA. She has 24 years of experience in the field of education as she has worked as an English teacher for all grades and an English supervisor for high school at Albayyan Model School, Jeddah. She is also the program coordinator for the gifted students and the academic accreditation coordinator for the diploma students at the same school. She is a certified internal audit from Mohammad Bin Rashid College, Dubai, AEU. She looks forward to working on more research that adds value to English teaching. ORCid ID: http://orcid.org/0000-0003-1716-2316

References


Appendix A
A Self-report Questionnaire of Reading Abilities and Motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Motivation</th>
<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>partly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I tend to read more about difficult topics.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>I enjoy discussing the reading comprehension with my classmates.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I am not embarrassed to read out loud in front of my class.</td>
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<td>If the topic is interesting in class, I tend to read more about it.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I like the reading comprehension class.</td>
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</table>

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<th>Reciprocal teaching strategies</th>
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<th>disagree</th>
<th>partly agree</th>
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<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can give precise predictions on the topic.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I can clarify meanings of words through context.</td>
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<td>I can ask questions to expand my knowledge.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I find it easy to summarize the reading text to convey the main ideas.</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
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<th>strongly disagree</th>
<th>disagree</th>
<th>partly agree</th>
<th>agree</th>
<th>strongly agree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I can elicit specific information from a reading text.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I can refer ideas of text to real-life experiences.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I can find answers to the comprehension questions.</td>
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<tr>
<td>I can comprehend the main idea of a text by referring to the title and the illustrations.</td>
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</table>
Teaching and Testing English in the Algerian Educational System

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Abstract
The relationship between teaching and assessment seems to be direct since they both complete each other. This current paper is an attempt to provide a systematic description of instruction and evaluation in the Algerian educational context within the License-Master-Doctorate reform (LMD reform). The present study has significant benefits in terms of researching the adequacy of applying new approaches in the classroom-as a new envision-for assessing the learners’ competences. Using a multiplicity of modes enables the teacher to evaluate his learners’ capabilities elaborately and consequently fulfill their needs. This paper is an attempt to answer the question, how can EFL teachers assess their learners’ competences with the implementation of new approaches that foster their communication skills. First, it tackles the status of English in the globalization era and the effect of this latter on evaluation. Second, it sheds light on the LMD reform with its main changes that affects teaching and testing, finishing up with speaking about English Language Teaching (ELT) in Algeria and, more precisely in Biskra, to provide data about the implemented methodology of measurement. In the present study, we employed classroom action research to assess the learners’ communicative competence using a range of multimodal speaking tasks (videos, games, songs, role-plays, oral presentations, and discussion tasks). We opt for the use of both quantitative and qualitative methods for two chief reasons; first, to investigate the effectiveness of using the multimodality approach while assessing learners’ competences and performances, second to explore the area under study. The findings revealed that EFL Teachers might evaluate their learners’ abilities using a multiplicity of modes (visual such as videos, auditory such as songs, kinesthetic such as role-plays). Consequently, teachers are highly recommended to use innovative approaches to assess their learners’ competences.

Keywords: Algerian educational system, assessment, English Language Teaching (ELT), License-Master-Doctorate (LMD), teaching, testing.

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Introduction

Languages are taught for “communication purposes” but –paradoxically– when it comes to the learners’ evaluation, only the linguistic aspects are taken into account. This serious educational problem drives the researcher to ask the question of how can EFL teachers assess their learners’ communicative competence with the implementation of new approaches that foster their communication skills?. So, why is this research relevant? The answer to this question is that most of the teachers’ implemented strategies are monomodal and are one side-oriented and addresses only one learning preference. All this seems unfair to the learners who expected the test to be alternative and multimodal. So the researcher felt it was necessary to get out of the usual (handouts, role plays, drilling, etc.) and apply a new approach in line with the needs of learners and their lacks.

These days, people have little opportunity to choose whether to globalize or not to globalize. The situation is out of hand due to the fast expansion of this newly emerged and profoundly impacted phenomenon that has negative and positive effects on every aspect of life. Being able to derive the maximum advantage of this phenomenon is the mission of society and stakeholders nowadays. There is no doubt that globalization has a profound effect on education in general and the English language teaching in particular. Throughout this section, the researcher investigates the impact of globalization on the English language. Moreover, we portray the vital role played by the English language in the globalization era, and we examine the effect of this phenomenon on teaching and learning in a broad term, we specify the influence of globalization in the assessment process.

English in the Globalization Era

In the previous paper, attention was drawn to the implication of globalization for language learning and teaching. Kubota (2002) argues that people learn languages for economic motives; some commentators go further by saying that foreign languages are treated as an industrial commodities rather than ethnic and national identity. This economic change has its influence on education, culture, and technology. Technological changes impact the language learning and teaching directly. Globalization is defined as a widespread phenomenon in society, economy, and politics. It has its multifaceted influence in our modern life, as stated by Kubota (2002), who puts forward the view that globalization is a trendy term—that influences the economy, the society, the technology, and the culture.

It should be clear right from the beginning that it is hard to define globalization because it is related to other aspects (economics, politics, and culture). Giddens (1990) defines globalization as “the intensification of worldwide social relations which link distant localities in such a way that local happenings are shaped by events occurring many miles away and vice versa” (p. 64). Globalization implies that diverse nations have specific cultural patterns such as food, music, and advertising, while Americanization is quite different; it is when different countries adopt the culture of the United States by acquiring numerous parts of the American culture and permitting multinational organizations such as Coca-Cola, Disney Land. In this context, Friedman (1994) believes that “Americanization is the diffusion of American values, consumer goods and lifestyles” (p. 195). Knowing the difference between ‘globalization’ and ‘Americanization’ is not enough to answer the question of whether the World is becoming globalized or Americanized.
The raised question after defining globalization is investigating the relationship between globalization and English language education. English has increasingly achieved a global status among languages that were dominated before its spread as a universal language, by the time; those languages were downgraded due to the expansion of English as a lingua franca. The following figure shows the world’s ten most spread languages (2017)

![The World most spoken languages (McCarthy, 2018)](image)

From value one, Chinese is by a good deal the most spoken language in the World with 1.28 billion speakers (i.e., 16% of the world population), then Spanish with a total of 437 million speakers. At the same time, English has 372 million language speakers. Arabic takes the fourth position of widely spoken languages, and it includes 19 various varieties; Egyptian Arabic (64.5 million speakers) then Algerian Arabic (29.3 million speakers) (see McCarthy, 2018 for more details).

**The Effect of Globalization on English Language Teaching and Learning and Assessment**

The spread of English as a global language is a convincing reason for teaching and learning this highly demanded and fully honored language. Thus, the stable relationship between the English language spread and ELT is apparent. English nowadays is learned for pragmatic reasons. In other words, it is a commodity for a lot of people; English learning equals a better job, a higher position, and maybe a future promotion. English language learning and teaching are also related to culture since it provides teachers and learners with an insight into what is happening around them in other cultures (Alfehaid, 2014).

Further, Globalization support communication with millions of people who come from entirely different cultures and connect teachers with experts and specialists who adopt different methodologies and use different materials, the benefit in this way is undoubtedly massive. The experience sounds to be exciting through online interaction between teachers and experts and the application of computer networks in ELT. At this level, teachers have to think about the suitability of such methodologies and materials, in addition to the appropriateness of any form of culture to ELT classrooms (Alfehaid, 2014).
Does globalization have any impact on the assessment? How can assessment procedures change to meet the educational demand of the 21 century? Kamen and MCNeely (2010) add that globalization led to the extension of international testing. Volante (2007) puts forward the view that overemphasis on test scores contributes to the rise of unhealthy competition between teachers and school, which might lead to the lack of cooperation, for example, sharing experiences and methods of teaching (Rigas, 2013).

The test is standardized when the learners are being assessed for scoring, to see their performances and compare it with the achievements of other learners, the federal law “No Child Left Behind” (2001) emerged to put the responsibility of learners’ results on the school stuff shoulders; to check whether the learners meet the given standards, the learners’ results decide whether or not to move to the next grade. There are two main attributes for conducting a standardized test. First, they are objective in terms of design; second, they evaluate the learners’ academic knowledge appropriately. A lot of researchers tackled The advantages of standardized testing, Grant (n.d) is among those who support ST, and he assumes that ST is created by people who are not part of the classroom environment which indicates that learners’ scores are highly reliable and free from subjectivity, simply because teachers do not prepare the tests. Yet, they point to what extent teachers achieve their objectives. In the same vein, Gawthrop, (2014) assumes that:

Because standardized tests are created to be unbiased and objective, they supposedly ensure that the score a student receives is an accurate measurement of ability and progress. Validity and reliability are critical components test makers need, to create assessment tools, which create usable inferences about the knowledge and skill of learners in a particular area (p. 6)

Despite this, standardized test strikes terror into the soul of many teachers who fear poor results, regrettably, this leads them to focus on teaching to the test instead of quality teaching (Grant, n.d, p.7). Standardized criteria for Gawthrop (2014) helps to assess and not to determine the learners’ real level of performance:

However, test data is certainly more useful to administrators than learners, because a competent teacher can evaluate a student’s proficiency level based on homework, quizzes, or classroom participation. If standardized tests are not necessary to decide on a learner’s academic level, it raises an important question, whether test results (versus other sources such as teacher input) are the best source for determining policy or curriculum changes. Since standardized tests can only assess, not define, a student’s academic status, it is dangerous for policymakers to rely predominantly on the data provided by these tests.

In light of the drawbacks of standardized testing, a new approach of the assessment called assessment for learning has arisen to wrap up the debate among researchers and educators. Assessment for learning is a procedure used from the part of teachers and learners to modify their used strategies (What is an assessment for learning? / underlying principles of assessment for learning / Assessment for learning / Home - Assessment, n. d.).

Assessment for learning is undoubtedly not assessment of learning which aims to gather information about the learners at the end of the learning process, and grading them based on a set of
standards. AOF is a way of rating both teachers and schools. The future of the assessment seems to be more inspiring when talking about assessment AS learning where learners are in charge of their learning process (Siedlecki, 2012).

It is worth noting at this stage that the 21st-century skills should foster the learners to solve problems and enhance their critical thinking and promote their creativity, innovation, and collaboration skills. Additionally, Trilling and Fedel (2009) emphasize the need to shift the focus of attention from summative assessment to formative assessment and evaluation (cited in Rigas, 2013). But before testing learners on their subject matter, stakeholders, teachers, learners, and even parents should convincingly answer the following question:

Are schools helping learners to develop the required 21-century skills?

Ways of Thinking, which encompasses creativity and innovation; critical thinking, problem-solving, and decision-making; and metacognition or learning to learn

Ways of Working, which includes communication and collaboration or teamwork

Tools for Working, which addresses information literacy and information and communication technology (ICT) literacy

Living in the World, which provides for citizenship, life and career skills, and personal and social responsibility (Lai, 2012, p. 4)

21st-century skills refer to the core skills required by society, educators, and business leaders to accomplish success in today’s world, among those skills; Collaboration, Communication, Critical thinking, and Creativity, all of which called the 4 C’s (Lai, 2012)

Figure 2.21st Century learning balance (Retrieved from Trilling & Fadel, 2009, p. 38)
Overall, teachers have to prepare learners with both the left side and the right side of the charts of learning practices because the two must work hand in hand (Trilling & Fadel, 2009). Those radical changes in teaching and testing in the 21st century drive us to think about its influence on the Algerian educational context.

It is becoming evident that globalization has become a challenge for education and a debatable issue in modern research, especially the theme of globalization’s impact on culture. It is worth mentioning that, in the current paper, we precisely tackled the influence of globalization on culture; (English teaching, learning, and assessment). As a step towards globalization, the most noticeable change in the educational system in Algeria was the implementation of the LMD system (2004). So, what is the LMD system? How it impacts teaching and learning in general, and assessment in particular? The following section answers the mentioned inquiries intensively.

The LMD System in Algeria
The gap between the market demand and the University production is instead fostered by the old traditional method. This led the government and the stakeholders in Algeria to re-consider the classical system and to consolidate with the social-economic demand of the country (Sarnou, Koc, Houcine, and Boudiba, 2012). The final decision was to implement the European educational system in the Algerian universities, thus the LMD system (License, Master, and Doctorate). The LMD system was applied in September 2004; it fosters the curiosity of the academic society concerning the efficiency of this newly executed reform, putting in mind that its implementation is costly with the lack of human and material resources (Bouhadiba, 2013).

![Figure 3. Organization of the training cycle according to the LMD system (the University of Boumerdes, n.d.)](image-url)
As can be noticed in Figure two, the training cycle during the LMD system is composed of three stages (License, Master, and Doctorate):

- **License**: (BAC +3) Three years of study: six semesters.
- **Master**: (BAC +5) Two years of study: four semesters
- **Doctorate**: (BAC +8) Three years of research: six semesters

The main objective of the LMD reform is the openness to the World of globalization and to respond to the changing demands of the 21st century.

Thanks to globalization, English becomes the most powerful language nowadays, this noticeable overspread led the government to adopt this language in their universities, and Algeria is across the board. English is taught as a foreign language which allows the learners to take part in the globalization. The LMD system brought innovative teaching and assessment practices with a radical change in the learners-teachers role (Šarnou, Koc, Houcine, and Boudiba, 2012).

The LMD system has proved its efficacy in all the European countries, that is why it is implemented in most countries nowadays. The local Algerian authorities demonstrate their readiness to adopt such a significant reform to develop their educational system and to move towards globalization. After 1962, Algeria had taken various changes, and the most noticeable one was in 1971, where higher education was Arabized and Algerianized to remove all traces of French colonization. This paves the way for teaching English as a foreign language.

The pre-LMD system is based on four years (license), Two years (Magister), five years (doctorate). This classical system creates a gap between the market demands and University production, and it does not keep up with the new changes of economy, politics, and society in Algeria. This led the policymakers to integrate a new reform that proves its success in other countries. Algeria has coordinated the standards of the Bologna Process which were set in Europe in the year 1999 as a trial to enable Algerian universities to respond to the new changes of globalization, and to cope with the advancement of Science and Technology (Reguig, 2014).

*Teaching and Learning and Testing English under the LMD Reform*

The application of the LMD system in teaching and learning relies on the following essential elements:

- **Pedestrianisation** (Semestrialization): The LMD system relies on semesters rather than years of training; each year is divided into two semesters. Learners attend around 400 hours, thus, 25 hours per week.

  ⇒ **Educational Unit (EU)**: learners are exposed to four central teaching units in each semester; (the fundamental group, the methodological group, the discovery group, and transversal group)
  ⇒ **Fundamental Unit**: it embraces the primary subject for a particular field.
  ⇒ **Methodological Unit**: it highlights the methodological tools necessary for completing the training
⇒ **Discovery Unit:** it includes all the training materials needed in the learners’ specialty
⇒ **Transversal Unit:** it comprises the exposition of learners to other languages.

- **Credits:** the full number of credits for each semester is 30/180, these credits are granted when all examinations are all successfully passed.

⇒ **Level 1:** License: three years of essential learning, six semesters (180 credits)
⇒ **Level 2:** Master: two years, four semesters (120 credits)
⇒ **Level 3:** Doctorate: three years, six semesters (180 credits)

- **The Module:** a fundamental unit of University education allocated in one semester. Courses are to be taught theoretically or practically (TD: Tutorial session).
- **Capitalization:** a new principle which acknowledges the learners’ ownership of a validated module.
- **Fields:** the diploma obtained by learners must require the name of the specialty or the field (Science, law, language, etc.)
- **Assessment:** learners sit for half-yearly continuous assessment; they have the chance to catch up exams.
- **Validation:** the validation takes place when the learners’ global mark is superior or equal to 10.
- **Transferability:** the flexibility of the system paves the way for the learners’ mobility.
- **Course-type:** the learners may profit from the movement they pick up to other establishments and even nations.
- **Progressive Orientation:** orienting the learners to new disciplines depending on their progress, outcomes, and academic achievement.
- **Teaching Team:** refers to a group of teachers responsible for a given program (license, master, doctorate)
- **Tutoring:** the teacher role is a guide and a knowledge provider, this does undoubtedly pave the way for a learner-centered approach. (Reguig, 2014).

In addition to the changes at the level of the teaching-learning process, The LMD system brought several changes at the level of curriculum design which can be summarized as follows:

1. Planning and evaluation of the learners’ needs as well as those liaised to the socioeconomic market,  
2. Developing multimedia at the level of oral expression and vocabulary,  
3. Encouraging students' enhancement with mobility,  
4. Creating cooperation between universities who share the same objectives and interests.  
5. Create listening cells and audits to register learners’ propositions.  
6. Prepare learners for vocational education through the choice of English.  
   (Mami, 2013, p. 913)

Despite the significant changes actualized in 2004, such as implementing the LMD reform and the encouraging language switch from French to Modern Standard Arabic. Despite these endeavors, the 2015 UN special rapporteur on education inferred that the nature of training in Algeria stays low
because of a lack of teachers’ training and overcrowded classrooms, all of which make quality education harder to achieve.

After having a look at the whole system to understand the current situation better, one should consider the evaluation process under the LMD system. The evaluation of learners learning during each semester is continuous; it takes place at the end of each term. The assessment method used is summative assessment through examinations, quizzes, homework, oral presentations, and essays. Hanifi (2018) assumes that the evaluation of learners’ learning cannot conduct well and at will, without considering the following challenges:

In a nutshell, assessment is an integral part of the teaching process. That is why the teacher has to find its principles taking into account the learners’ interests and providing them with the needed information and guiding their improvement using motivation and self-assessment procedures.

This newly implemented reform faces a plethora of drawbacks and challenges since 2004, among them the lack of a clear understanding of this reform from the part of both the teachers and learners, the utility of this reform and whether it can be implemented in Algeria are still confusing inquiries. The lack of teachers especially in English department in Biskra University (24 permanents teacher and 41 full-time teachers) all of them (65 teachers) are not trained to teach at the University. The vast number of learners enrolled each year - taking the example of 2017-2018 - which consequently leads to overcrowded classes, the lack of materials such as the Data shows which are not available all the time. Another problem is the sparse library and the lack of English books (1632 edition) in comparison to French books (2189) and Arabic books (5988 edition) one more serious problem is the lack of net accessibility. Table three illustrates what has been mentioned before, and it describes the case of the English department at “Biskra University” in the academic year (2017-2018):

Table 1. The number of Arabic, English and French books in the department of Literature and Foreign Languages in Biskra (2017-2018 .p.15)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The Departments</th>
<th>Number of Titles</th>
<th>Number of Copies</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>The Department of Arabic</td>
<td>6148</td>
<td>38743</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Department of English</td>
<td>1059</td>
<td>4899</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Department of French</td>
<td>2234</td>
<td>9446</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

The goal of this current section is to give an insight into the LMD system in Algeria, and to determine its changes in terms of teaching, learning, and assessment.

**ELT in Algeria – The Case of Biskra University**

English language teaching in Algeria has gained a noticeable improvement since 1962. Since independence, Algeria has struggled to improve her educational policy to fit with the increasing demands of the globalized era. Globalized Algeria has adopted a new educational system of higher education (LMD system), which brought new changes to English language teaching in Algeria. This
section is a general presentation of the Algerian educational system under the LMD reform. It highlights the English language situation at the Three levels of education (Middle school, Secondary school, and University) with an emphasis on teaching and testing at the level of English Department –University of Biskra.

Before speaking about English teaching in Algeria, it is wise first to look back 60 years ago to figure out why French become the Lingua Franca of Algeria. The French colonization in Algeria increased illiteracy, which reached 90% of the population in 1962. To fight ignorance, Algeria made compulsory education. The Algerian administration consolidated the process of Arabisation to weaken the status of the French language in the Algeria, but the Algerian linguistic cleaning has failed. The French language continued to exert its authority due to several reasons, the Algerian immigrant in France was at the top of the list (Sahel, 2017, p. 1), the Algerian government still faces the same phenomenon till the time of writing this paper which drives us to argue that reducing the use of French language in Algeria and achieving her linguistic independence requires an acute, severe and professional work from the part of stakeholders. Despite its status, English in Algeria is considered as a foreign language, and it is taught after French.

English is considered a foreign language in Algeria in middle school, secondary school, and at the University. In the pre-university education (middle and secondary schools), English is interiorized, the learners’ marks in English do not affect their achievement because of its low coefficient (Arabic, Math, Science...). That is why learners lose interest in learning English at both levels.

**ELT at University**

At University, for learners who study English, all the four skills are essential in addition to fluency and accuracy, they study English for general purposes. As for the specialties, they are different between Universities. In other streams like; Science, Math, or Biology, learners study English for specific purposes (ESP).

**Research Methodology and Design**

**Participants’ Profile**

**Teachers’ Profile**

The teachers at the University of Mohammed Khider -Biskra are divided into two categories:

- **Full-Time Teachers:** Who are between the ages of (28-60) with a teaching experience of (5-25) years. Some maintain a Magister degree (32 teachers), while others carry a doctorate (9 teachers)

- **Part-Time Teachers:** are freshmen masters or doctoral learners with a mid-level experience (1-4) years who usually work temporarily for one semester or the whole year to cover the deficit in the teaching staff, which is a severe problem at the level of the department.
Third-year learners at Biskra University are judged by their teachers to have an intermediate level in English; they are between the age of (21-40). Learners at the department of Biskra can are sorted as follows (35 learners):

- Visual learners: learn by seeing and reading
- Auditory learners: learn by listening and speaking
- Kinesthetic learners: learn by touching and doing

Based on the belief that knowing the learners’ learning preferences helps the teacher to better plan his lessons, and consequently to better assess the learners, a modality questionnaire was distributed to third-year learners at the beginning of the academic year (2017-2018) to figure out their learning styles. The following diagram reveals the findings:
English learners at the University of Biskra appear to rarely participate, ask questions or respond to the teachers’ comments; only a few are motivated and active. The reason behind this, we assume, is the drilling technique (DT) adopted by most teachers at the level of the University. Another point is their lack of self-confidence to speak English because they are usually afraid of making mistakes and being laughed at by their classmates. Considering all of these elements in the learners’ profile, the researcher conducted action research, implementing multimodal classroom tasks (videos, songs, games, role-plays, and discussion) to get the learners engaged, overcome their fears, and, most importantly, promote their communicative competence. Table 2. demonstrates the exact number of learners in the departments of (English, Arabic, and French).

Table 2. The number of learners in the English, French and Arabic Departments (2017-2018)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Departments</th>
<th>Arabic</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>French</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Learners’ number</td>
<td>3893</td>
<td>2021</td>
<td>1697</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The Total</td>
<td>7611</td>
<td></td>
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</table>

As it is noticed, the number of learners studying English is higher than the number of those studying French and lower than those studying Arabic.

**Teaching and Testing at University**

Learners are evaluated for certification for three years to hold the license degree and for two years to maintain the master’s degree through yearly examination that takes place twice at the end of each semester. As for those who fail to get the average, they are supposed to have another chance through makeup examination. The primary purpose of assessment at University is to place learners for the next level (placement test). Tests are generally conducted to measure the degree of mastery of what was taught; some of the tests are oral others are written:

- **Oral Tests**: they take place usually in the verbal expression module; learners are assessed at the level of fluency. They are generally asked to prepare a PowerPoint presentation, to act a dialogue or, to tell a story... The examination takes more than one session due to the overcrowded classrooms. Each student speaking time is between 15-20 minutes.

- **Written Tests**: Most tests at University are written; all of them tend to assess the learners’ literacy (one hour and a half in most cases). Some tests come in the form of direct questions that require short answers or ticking up the right box.

**The English Department of Biskra**

Before speaking about the English Department of Biskra, it is worth talking about the University of Mohamed Khider. Among the 26 universities of Algeria, the University of Mohamed Khider is composed of six faculties and 32 departments and 1383 full-time teachers distributed in the different departments. The Faculty of Arts and Humanities and Social Sciences was established by Executive Decree No. 98/258. Of: 17/08/1998.

- Education at the level of graduation and post-graduation.
- Scientific research activities.
- Training and renewal of knowledge.
The above decree was amended by Executive Decree No. 09/90 dated 17/02/2009. And the Faculty of Arts and Languages was separated from the Faculty of Arts and Humanities and Social Sciences, and it consists of two sections and two divisions and specialization, they are as follows:

![Diagram of the English Department of Biskra](image)

*Figure 5. The English Department of Biskra.*

**Conclusion**

The journey’s end is only the beginning. The current research paper represents a brief overview of “English language teaching and assessment” for the sake of promoting quality teaching and learning, this is hopefully achieved through an elaborate presentation and description of education and testing in Algeria. It tackles the situation of English language teaching and testing in the globalization Era and under the LMD system. Before rushing to a conclusion about English Language Teaching in Algeria, it is worth remembering that feeling uneasy about the way of assessing the learners’ communicative competence was the reason behind conducting the current action research project. This paper provides an elaborate, yet brief description of ELT in Algeria and more specifically in Biskra, it describes the context of globalization and the implementation of the LMD reform. It is critical to conclude that teaching and testing in Algeria need an extra, a profound, and a crucial adjustment in terms of methods and approaches.

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References


The Effect of SPAWN Strategy in Developing Persuasive Writing Skills and Productive Habits of Mind

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Jeddah, Saudi Arabia.

Abstract
This research investigated the effect of SPAWN strategy in developing persuasive writing skills and productive habits of mind in the English language among second secondary grade students. The study adopted the quasi-experimental design, which involves two groups: experimental and control. For data collection, the researcher designed the following instruments and materials: the teacher's guide to teach persuasive writing and develop productive habits of mind by using SPAWN strategy, persuasive writing skills test and rubric, and the productive habits of mind scale. These instruments were applied to a sample of sixty students in the second secondary grade. Data were analyzed through Pearson's correlation coefficient, independent samples t-test, paired-samples t-test, and ETA squared. The findings revealed statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental and the control groups in the post-administration of persuasive writing test and productive habits of mind scale in favor of the experimental group. Also, the results obtained through the paired-sample t-test and the Eta squared showed that the experimental group students achieved significantly higher scores in the post-tests. Besides, Pearson's correlation coefficient revealed the strong positive correlation between persuasive writing skills and the four selected productive habits of mind, which are: Thinking flexibly, Questioning and Problem posing, Apply prior knowledge to new situations, Creating Imagining and Innovating. In recommended, include the persuasive writing skills in second secondary grade students’ textbook and teachers’ guide to help teach, develop and evaluate students' persuasive writing skills effectively. Besides, including the procedures of SPAWN strategy in the teachers' manual to enhancing students persuasive writing and promote productive habits of mind.

Keywords: SPAWN strategy, writing skills, habits of mind, persuasive writing, Saudi EFL students.

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Introduction

Teaching English as a foreign language achieves wide increasing interest; since the English language is considered as the global language that facilitates communication between people around the world. It is also the first language of science, technology, industry, and economy. Moreover, mastering English language skills is an essential requirement in many fields of work and study, as it is a condition that students must attain to proceed with their higher education in universities. And a need posed by many labor markets on many applicants (Rhman, 2011).

In response to the global trends in English language learning, the ministry of education in Saudi Arabia is making significant efforts to develop English language teaching practices in all educational stages. These efforts were demonstrated through The English Language Development Project in General Education. Besides, universities are holding conferences and workshops that aim to exchange experiences in the field of teaching English as a foreign language (TEFL). The first international conference of EFL education at the University of Jeddah, which was held on 31st of October 2016, was an example of the exerted efforts to promote efficiency level of TEFL and enhancing learning outcomes.

Fuller (2011) emphasized the importance of the English language as a requirement for scientific and economic progress, which assures the need to reconsidering teaching practices and learning objectives of the English language to keep up with the current demands, by preparing students for social and practical life through developing higher thinking and communication skills to help make a qualified generation that will be able to contribute effectively in their country's progress.

Effective teaching of English requires practicing all language skills through real-life situations. However, the writing skill is the most important and challenging skill; it is a process of exploring and paraphrasing ideas to construct meaning. It is an activity to solve a problem rather than just being mean of communication (Maarof & Murat, 2013). Mastering writing skills is an indicator of language proficiency. It requires a language learner to be able to write his ideas, convey meanings, and organize them to express his feelings (Ng, 2003).

Besides, several studies conducted in Saudi Arabia revealed students' weak mastery of writing skills in general education as well as university education. Javid & Umer (2014) and Alkhairi (2013) asserted that there are severe problems in students' academic writing due to the superficiality of ideas and inappropriate use of lexical items, grammar and, vocabulary besides the inability to write different kinds of essays.

Shukri (2014) emphasized that writing activities, which include problem-solving, reading, and critical writing, are still challenges in writing instruction. She added that Saudi students often hesitate before writing about some issues of their everyday life, when related to religion, politics, and customs. Moreover, they do not experience "writing transforming approach", which reflects the writer's creativity and critical thinking. In contrast, they are using "knowledge telling approach" that depends on retelling information without analyzing and with apparent absence of a student's voice in writing.
Persuasive essay is one type of challenging writing for students. It requires students to express points of view and consider the perspectives of other people on a specific issue that needs to be clarified and supported by evidence to persuade the reader. This type of writing is different from descriptive or comparative essay. It requires high order thinking skills as an explanation, logical analysis, problem-solving, and critical thinking (Philippakos, MacArthur & Coker 2015). Persuasive essay improves analytical and critical thinking skills and leads students to creativity and using logic. It also qualifies students to act effectively and to make the appropriate decisions in situations they may face in everyday life. It enhances students' ability of meeting an audience and communicate their ideas with explanations and providing real reasons to support views. Besides, improving listening and speaking skills during discussion and criticism. Thus, it encompasses multiple strands of language arts (Dickson, 2004).

The ability to persuade becomes an essential component of our everyday life. With the rapidly changing world, and due to the spread of social media, students used to write for a real audience and express their opinions on relevant topics. In contrast, these opportunities are limited inside classrooms (Atkins, 2011). The need for developing students' ability to express opinions and assure persuasion is increased as one of the necessities in the written communication.

Despite the importance of persuasive writing, it doesn't receive sufficient concern in our schools. Shukri (2014) stated that the method of teaching depends basically on textbooks with very familiar topics and don't provide students with the chance to experience creative and critical writing. Thus, students may not have adequate experience in developing problem-solving skills and critical analysis. She also recommended adopting teaching methods and curriculum that enable students to be independent writers.

Because writing is connected to thinking, developing persuasive writing skills requires developing high order thinking skills through various writing activities that depend on a text or a discussion on a specific issue, which can be achieved by providing students with chances to reconstruct meaning from documents and employ their knowledge and views to produce excellent writings. Then, these skills become mental practices that occur habitually in their daily life. This idea was assured by Tremmel (1992) emphasized the connection between the habits of mind and arts of language, specifically writing.

Productive habits of mind are the intelligent behaviors, guides, and motivators that are practiced by individuals in a new situation and require employing the previous experience to make final decisions. Productive habits of mind include; persistence, managing impulsivity, listening to others with understanding and empathy, think flexibly, thinking about their thinking, striving for accuracy, questioning and posing problems, applying past knowledge to new situations, thinking and communicating, gathering data through all senses, creating and imagining, responding with wonderment, taking responsible risks, finding humor, thinking interdependently and learning continuously (Costa & Kallick, 2008).

With the increased attention to the need for adopting effective learning instruction, the SPAWN strategy is an effective multi-purposes learning strategy. It is a cognitive instructional strategy that integrates reading and writing to target different subject areas. It is designed to engage
students in a flexible and critical thinking while examining a text and forming their targeted writing responses. This learning strategy provides students with opportunities to recall previous knowledge, generate ideas and, employ them in new situations (Seidel, Perencevich & Kett, 2005).

SPAWN strategy helps to consider multiple perspectives, assess and evaluate reasons and consequences of a particular issue to persuade others with points of view by responding to the given writing prompts including (S: special Power – P: problem-solving -A: alternative points of view – W: What if – N: next!) (Rojas, 2007). Additionally, this type of integrating reading and writing, as in SPAWN strategy, helps improve the quality of written argumentation and promote critical thinking skills (Newell et al. 2011; Standish, 2005; Moore, 2009). SPAWN as a cognitive strategy is linked to critical thinking; since the goal for teaching critical thinking is to use cognitive strategies to promote reasoned and goal-directed thinking that help students in making correct judgments based on a careful weighing of available evidence (Dunn, Halonen, & Smith, 2009).

The researcher can conclude that SPAWN learning strategy with its five different types of writing prompts can help in enhancing students' persuasive writing by giving them a chance to analyze reading material and form their conclusion on a particular topic. Besides, engaging with SPAWN writing prompts can help to promote thinking and productive habits of mind.

Statement of the problem
Recently, developing writing skills has received ample concern due to the role of academic writing in the learning process and knowledge transformation. Indeed, many studies in Saudi Arabia investigated students writing performance in different stages and recommended the importance of reconsidering writing instruction in English language teaching to treat serious weaknesses among students. Besides, adopting new methods to enable students to write different types of essays to demonstrate the own writer’s voice through a variety of topics (Alkhairi, 2013; Javid & Umer; 2013; Shukri, 2014). Accordingly, it is essential to improve persuasive writing skills since persuasive writing is one of the most common types of writing prompts in many writing textbooks (Barzanji, 2016). Many researchers emphasized the importance of developing thinking skills as habits of mind among students and providing them with opportunities to practice a variety of habits of mind based activities through contexts; since developing habits of mind is reflected positively on students' learning performance (Bee, Seng & Jusoff, 2013; Swart, 2008; and Khoon, 2006).

Hypotheses
1- There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) level between the mean scores obtained by students of the experimental group and those of the control group in the post-test of persuasive writing skills.
2- There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) level between the mean scores obtained by students of the experimental group in the pre and posttest of persuasive writing skills.
5- There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) level between the mean scores obtained by students of the experimental group and those of the control group in the post administration of the productive habits of mind scale.
6- There are no statistically significant differences at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) level between the mean scores obtained by students of the experimental group in the pre and post administration of the productive habits of mind scale.
7- There is no statistically significant correlation at ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) level between the mean scores obtained by students of the experimental group in the posttest of persuasive writing skills and post administration of the productive habits of mind scale.

**Literature Review**

*The Role of Reading in Writing Instruction*

Before exploring the role of reading in the writing instruction, it is essential to illustrate reading-writing connection. According to Hirvel (2004), reading and writing have various common constructs such as rhetorical structure, linguistic features of written text, examining lexical and characteristics of the writing. The writing and reading processes followed a similar development. Tavares (1990) illustrated the connection between these skills:

"These two skills involve some analogous aspects in two levels: the surface and deep levels. The surface level involves the mechanical skills which students are required to master. In reading they focus attention on decoding and subskills, while in writing they have to master punctuation spelling, grammar, etc., these mechanical similarities, however, do not go beyond the importance of deeper similarities which involve the transaction between reader and writer. Both skills entail composing: we have to reflect, read, make the message meaningful" (p.59).

Tsai (2006) stressed the importance of linking writing and reading in college EFL courses. He stated that teachers of English as a foreign or second language have managed to teach writing and reading independently. Nevertheless, writing and reading share similar features, and learners are more likely to benefit from the teaching program that merges writing and reading activities in a way that make them complete each other. Implementing this concept in real teaching conditions would not be a problematic challenge when EFL writing teachers are conscious of the advantages of the reading-writing linking, and wisely device teaching practices.

According to Tuan (2012), the correlation between reading and writing helps EFL students improve their writing skills. However, despite the fair amount of studies conducted in this field. Horning and Kraemer, (2013) still believed that even in the United States, where English is spoken as a first language, connecting reading and writing to facilitate learning is not paid sufficient attention by teachers. Hao & Sivell (2002) claimed that teaching writing in isolation of reading might affect the development of writing skills. When reading and writing are not integrated into the writing instruction, students may struggle to transform knowledge and skills they have acquired from reading into their writing. Fageeh (2003) also recommended connecting reading and writing as a pedagogical phenomenon to overcome the weakness in the students' writing abilities.

Furthermore, (Carson, 1993) stated that reading was recognized as the basis for writing, especially in academic settings. The integration of reading into writing enables students to develop both critical thinking and critical literacy through the ability to transform information for their own
purposes in reading and to synthesize their prior knowledge with another text in writing. Employing reading in writing instruction is one model that results from this connection. Reading –to- write, is an approach arose from the relationship between the two skills, also underscores the fact that most writing, particularly in academic contexts, depends to a large extent on reading input, either directly from source texts or indirectly from background knowledge, which itself results from experiences with texts. Additionally, Grabe (2001), clarified that " reading –to–write " is a notion which requires writers to examine resources and read them in many perspectives as if they search for specific information and apply reading strategies to match task expectations for the writing.

The connection was well demonstrated in the two general directions that reading -to-write has followed since its foundation in the 1980s. They are input-based and output-based approaches. The input-based is in which learners use reading as input tool for learning about writing in the target language. The output based approach is one in which students must transfer content from the material they read to a text they write. (Hirvela, .2004).

**SPAWN Reading-Writing Strategy**

SPAWN is a post-reading, reading, and writing strategy that was found by Martin, Martin, & O’Brien 1984 and introduced later in 2003 by Brozo. It is a series of writing tasks that require students to examine the content of reading from multiple perspectives, and then creatively apply their knowledge to their writing or discussion tasks (Alvermann, Phelps & Ridgeway, 2007; Rasinski, Blachowicz & Lems, K. 2006). It is a cognitive instructional strategy that is targeting different subject areas. It is designed to engage students in a flexible and critical thinking and encourage creativity by moving beyond the text and manipulating aspects of the reading selection to produce new possible responses and create new results. SPAWN assignments cues bring complexity and engagement to student-text interaction. It encourages students to be responsible for extending learning (Kett, Perencevich & Seidel, 2007).

SPAWN is stands for five categories of writing prompts (Special Power, Problem Solving, Alternative Viewpoints, What If? and Next), which can be used in numerous ways to stimulate students’ predictive, reflective, and critical thinking about content-area topics (Fisher, Brozo, Frey, & Ivey, 2011);

**S (Special Power):** Students are allowed to change some aspects of the text or topic. Their writing should explain what was changed, why, and the effects of this change.

**P (Problem Solving):** Students can write possible solutions to problems that suggested in the text

**A (Alternative Viewpoints):** Students write about a topic or re-tell a situation from a unique and alternative perspective.

**W (What If?):** The teacher introduces a change in some aspects of the topic, then asks students to write new responses based on that change.

**N (Next):** Students can write anticipation of what the author will discuss next, explaining the logic behind their conjecture.
SPAWN writing prompts are tailored to fit the learning goals in any subject area. The goal is to encourage students to write thoughtfully and verifiably about a topic, the writing prompts are designed in a way that help students use the textual evidence in their written responses and promote critical thinking about aspects and ideas behind the content (Brozo, 2017).

According to Fisher et al. (2008), the procedure of SPAWN strategy are as follows:
1- Start by targeting the thinking skill students should be exhibiting, such as anticipating, reflecting, solving a problem, or analyzing information.
2- Next, select the prompt of SPAWN that target your learning objective. For example, if you want your students to express their opinions in critical ways, the Alternative Viewpoints prompts writing of this nature. If, on the other hand, you want students to brainstorm to find new resolutions, the Next and Problem Solving prompts may work best.
3- Then present the SPAWN prompt to whole students by writing it on the board or displaying it from the computer. For anticipatory prompt, students should see it and start writing before presenting the new material. For reflective prompt, it should be presented after covering the new content.
4- Allow students to form their responses within a reasonable time. In most cases, adequate responses take 10 minutes..
5- Students can discuss and share their SPAWN responses with the class to encourage discussion and check for logic and accuracy.

SPAWN strategy entirely engages with Bloom's taxonomy of cognitive learning objectives as follows:

Remember: recalling what has just read from the text in as much detail as possible.
- Understand: summarizing parts of the reading material.
- Apply: determining how this information is useful to his/her understanding of the subject.
- Analyze: determining how your suggestions are different from the author.
- Evaluate: Why do you believe your ideas might be better than a classmate's idea? Do you think your ideas were better than what the character did within the text?

Additionally, Kett et al. (2007) stated that SPAWN is an exciting approach to reading that serves to extend learning. By using this strategy, teachers can engage students in creative and critical thinking in an organized way. When attaining far-term goals of the SPAWN strategy, the student will use the ideas learned in SPAWN to examine texts more critically and will have more creative options. As a result, SPAWN strategy helps students produce creative works by responding to the prompts. For example, based on the teacher's prompt of SPAWN category "Next", students can write new stories, anticipate new actions or create original ideas as new series for the reading. These outcomes represent the category "create" in Bloom's taxonomy.
SPAWN strategy offers limitless opportunities to enhance students thinking. Its effectiveness is based on teachers ability to create effective writing prompts to help students elicit deeper-level thinking about the material under discussion, this ability is one of the necessary skills of good teaching (Adler 1982 as cited in Sujariati, Rahman &Mahmud, 2016). Rojas (2008) highlighted the benefits of using SPAWN strategy as demonstrating comprehension of texts and develop ideas through brief written responses. It helps supporting interpretations and explanations with evidence from the text. Through discussion, students can express opinions and make judgments that demonstrate point of view, and make connections between text writing and own lives. SPAWN helps in producing imaginative responses that show development, organization, insight, and effective language beside allowing students to share the process of writing to respond to written texts.

**Persuasive Writing**
Writing is a mixture of cognitive processes and social factors. In the course of its process, writers are involved intellectually and emotionally in the experience of writing, (Kristmanson, Dicks & Le, 2009). Therefore, when students experience the process of writing, the teacher needs to find out a challenging context in which argument is a natural part of classroom discourse, to give students authentic opportunity to write and enhance self-expression to motivate students (Bruton, 2005; Herrera, 2002). Persuasive writing is one specific genre of expository writing, and in comparison to other writing genres, persuasive writing is a complex and challenging task with the purpose of convincing the reader to accept a particular position or point of view. Novero (2015) provided the following definition of persuasive writing as presented in The National Assessment Governing Board. It is "the ability to express one’s opinion by arguing in favor of or against a particular viewpoint in a logical manner, thereby changing and affecting readers’ point of views or actions" (p.8). The difficulties of persuasive writing are represented more in students' little experience of reading persuasive texts. Moreover, the challenges of considering opposing positions create new challenges to writing, since people used to pay attention to reasons that confirm their opinions and ignore conflicting reasons. But on the other hand, critical thinking, which is one of the main reasons for teaching persuasive writing, requires careful consideration of different perspectives (Philippakos, MacArthur & Coker 2015).

Besides, persuasive writing and argumentative writing are sometimes used interchangeably, But Moore (2009) stated that "persuasion is designed to cause an audience to act and argumentation is designed to act on the audiences’ beliefs and understandings of an issue" (p.48). Sachar (2013) illustrated the difference " in differentiating the two, argumentative writing uses claims and evidence to develop the argument, while persuasive writing uses techniques that appeal to emotions or credibility" (p.31). Additionally, persuasive writing is a challenging communicative task that requires the writer to have sufficient knowledge of the topic and "perspective-taking skills"; which means the ability to weigh both sides of an issue, the ability to integrate multiple points of view, and oral language competence (Nippold & Ward-Lonergan, 2005).
For many adolescents, persuasive writing poses linguistic challenges because effective persuasive writing involves organizing discourse by developing argumentation structure through a series of ideas. Indeed, the academic persuasive text merely goes beyond expressing emotions or actions towards real events and require writers to illustrate positions towards particular issue (Berman & Nir-Sagiv 2004). Andrews, Torgerson, Low and McGuinn (2009) stated that writing to persuade, argue or advise is considered as "part of the meta-genre of non-fiction writing including essays, reviews, opinion pieces, and advertisements", because these types of writing are all generally concerned with 'argumentational' writing (p.292). One explanation for the difficulty in composing the persuasive text, is the need for anticipating the attitudes, beliefs, and arguments of the audience without dialogic feedback. Writers need to appeal to their audience by presenting their position clearly, delivering arguments in a coherent and logical way, supporting their claims with relevant justification and elaborations, considering counterarguments that might be raised by the audience, and finding ways of refuting them (Rieke & Sillars & Peterson, 2001, p. 109). Other discussions of the persuasive writing genre have focused on aspects of text structure. Graham and Harris (2005) stated that persuasive writing involves taking a position on a particular topic and defending it through writing. The quality of persuasive writing depends on a large extent on the quality of the evidence offered to support a claim.

Recently, persuasive writing is all around us, in advertisements, newsletters, TV programs, social media, and even in everyday conversation. Researchers and practitioners have increasingly demonstrated that mastering persuasive writing skills is essential for developing academic writing in all content areas. Mastering persuasive writing skills prepares students for college entrance examinations such as the Scholastic Aptitude Test (SAT), (IELTS), and (TOFEL), which contains parts of persuasive writing tasks. It is a new demand in the recent economic and social environment that can empower individuals at work and in social life (Little, 2007; Bakry & Alsamadani, 2015; Elson, 2011; Nippold, Ward, Lonergan & Fanning, 2005).

Teaching persuasive writing requires choosing effective strategies to help students generate ideas, discuss and evaluate viewpoints, and collect appropriate reasons and evidence in collaborative work. Indeed, being a reader and examining persuasive text as a starting point of writing have a positive effect on students writing, especially when combined with any writing instruction (Read et al, 2014; Standish, 2005; Moore, 2009). Besides, Al-Shaer (2014) and Gardner (2015) emphasized the positive effect of prewriting strategies and concept mapping on improving students' persuasive writing. Employing these strategies in the writing process help make the relationship between ideas more apparent and meaningful, and foster students' recognition of organizational patterns within the provided texts.

**Productive Habits of Mind**

Teaching students thinking skills to promote behaving positively and productively when facing problems have become a significant part of the learning process. In the 21st century, it is essential to use deep thinking activities that enable students to go beyond situations to reasoning and
applying knowledge to solve problems and create new meanings in and outside schools. Today’s life and work environments require more than core content knowledge. Students should be prepared with skills such as innovation, communication, productivity, flexibility, collaboration, leadership, social skills, critical thinking and problem solving (Costa & Kallick, 2008). Burgess (2012) informed that curriculum guidelines adopted numerous approaches to enhance student thinking skills and incorporate critical thinking skills, flexible and creative thinking, problem-solving and reflective choices, he stated that Costa’s habits of mind approach incorporate most of these beneficial elements.

The habits of mind framework has been developed through Costa and Kellick's work, and subsequently through the work of Marzano in 1992. Marzano developed "Dimensions of Learning", and in his fifth dimension of learning, he presented the habits of mind. Initially, Costa and Kellick's work started with a professional discussion in 1982. Then, developed their ideas through classroom experiments that have shaped the current habits of mind concepts (Campbell, 2006). Costa & Kallick (2008) define a habit of mind as "a pattern of intellectual behaviors that leads to productive actions, it is a composite of many skills, attitudes, past experiences, and proclivities that leads to valuing one pattern of intellectual behaviors over another" (p.17).

Table 1. *Productive Habits of Mind*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>habits of mind</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Costa &amp; Kallick 2008</td>
<td>1- Persisting. 2- Managing impulsivity. 3- Listening with understanding and empathy. 4- Thinking flexibly. 5- Thinking about your thinking (metacognition). 6- Striving for accuracy and precision. 7- Questioning and posing problems. 8- Applying past knowledge to new situations. 9- Thinking and communicating with clarity and precision. 10- Gathering data through all senses. 11- Creating, imagining, and innovating. 12- Responding with wonderment and awe. 13- Taking responsible risks. 14- Finding humor. 15- Thinking interdependently. 16- Remaining open to continuous learning</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Developing productive habits of mind prepares students to be problem solvers, knowledge transformer, and a lifelong learner. Elyousif and Abdelhamied (2013) recommended teachers to establish a link between the content, developing thinking skills, and developing habits of mind through building an attractive environment that helps apply thinking skills in authentic situations, designing challenging tasks that require students to think, communicate, anticipate, search,
explore, solve a problem, and make a decision, and encourage students to ask questions such as why, how, what if, collect and evaluate different perspectives from class discussion.

Habits of mind have been implemented through English language teaching as well as all subject cores. According to the National Council of Teachers of English (2011), preparing students for postsecondary education requires fostering 21st-century skills as well as habits of mind through reading, writing, and critical analysis. These habits of mind help students succeed in a variety of fields and disciplines. One way to present the process of critical thinking is developing critical reading and writing which demand to move from surface-level interpretation to critical response to written text. The framework emphasizes the relationship between habits of mind and critical thinking. It suggests some procedures such as generating a variety of questions concerning to the text, using inquiry as a process to develop writer's questions in relation to authentic audiences, and examining multiple perspectives to build new meanings. Obviously, and unlike Science and Mathematics, research in implementing habits of mind in the field of English language teaching and learning seems to be rare. Despite of that, there was an attempt by Shu Hong Bee, et al. (2013) to investigate the use of habits of mind in English as a second language reading. Through the analysis of the data, he found that students engaged in all of the habits of mind throughout the reading sessions. The habits most frequently observed were: questioning and posing problems, thinking and communicating with clarity and precision, and thinking flexibly. Many habits of mind were found to be utilized in clusters, meaning that a couple of the habits would be used together, or possibly lead from one habit to another during the sessions. The findings suggest that through group discussion and habits of mind, the building of knowledge can be enhanced when effectively utilized within an ESL reading classroom.

Methodology
Research Design

It was the experimental method with a quasi-experimental design, which based on the pre-posttest of non-equivalent group design. According to Ary, Jacobs, Razavieh, & Sorensen (2009), this research design is best suited in educational research because subjects are usually divided into classes, and the random assignment of subjects by the researcher is often not possible.

The sample was selected purposefully from the eighty-eight secondary school, second grade. Two classes were selected randomly, the first class consisted of (30) students and treated as the experimental group, and the second class also consisted of (30) students representing the control group. The study sample reached (60) students.

Materials and Instrument
Teacher's Guide: the teacher's guide aims to help second secondary grade teachers prepare, and design effective writing prompts with SPAWN strategy to improve persuasive writing skills and some productive habits of mind. This guide was developed after reviewing the related literature, the previous studies, the Saudi English Language Framework (SELF), the second secondary grade textbook, besides consulting some specialists in the major of English language curriculum and
instruction. It is consisted of three parts: the first part describes SPAWN learning strategy, the second part explains the use of SPAWN strategy in improving persuasive writing and some productive habits of minds and the third part presents lesson plans for some persuasive writing activities from the required textbook of the second secondary grade (Traveller 3).

**Persuasive Writing Test and scoring rubric:** the test based on writing a persuasive essay in response to a given prompt. Consisted of one writing prompt with a brief introduction to the topic. Students should express their opinions by writing a persuasive essay in response to this prompt. They should maintain the main elements of persuasive writing in their essays. The researcher developed a four-points scoring rubric for scoring persuasive writing tests. The scoring rubric was derived from the prepared list of persuasive writing skills. Each main skill represented a main criteria of persuasive writing. The criteria were: Opinion or Position, Reasons and Support, Points of view, Organization, and Language Conventions.

**The validity of persuasive writing test:** the persuasive writing test was piloted on a sample of (25) second secondary grade students to compute the internal consistency of the test. The correlation coefficients of test items ranged between (0.77 - 0.84), the items of the test correlate with the total degree at the significant level (0.01), which confirms that the test was consistent and valid as a tool for the research.

**The Reliability of the Test:** the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was (0.87), which is very acceptable in educational and social studies and indicates that the persuasive writing test is reliable and can be applied to achieve the research aims.

**The Productive Habits of Mind Scale:** this scale aimed at assessing students' use of some productive habits of mind before and after the experiment of teaching by using SPAWN strategy. Only four habits were selected they are: Thinking flexibly, Questioning and Problem Posing, Apply prior knowledge to new situations and Creating, Imagining, and Innovating. Table (2) shows the reasons behind choosing these four habits of mind, specifically by describing the function of each category of SPAWN strategy concerning the selected productive habits of mind.

Table 2. *the similarities between spawn strategy categories and the selected productive habits of mind*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SPAWN Category Function</th>
<th>Productive Habit of Mind 's aim</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>S: special power. N: next.</em> Stimulate students thinking to predict, reflect and produce creative responses.*</td>
<td><em>Creating, imagining and innovating</em> Students can try different ways of generating new, original, and novel ideas.*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The scale designed to assess the selected productive habits of mind. For each habit of mind, there are two parts.

Part A: consists of a table with five expressions describing five behaviors. The student should choose the degree of practicing each behavior. There are three responses for each expression, always, sometimes and rarely.

Part B: contains a writing prompt. The student should respond to the prompt by writing a short paragraph.

The Productive Habits of Mind Scale Scoring: as mentioned above, part A involves three levels of responses, always (3 points), sometimes (2 points), and rare (1 point). Thus, the maximum score for this part is (15) points, and the minimum is (5) points.

The researcher designed a short holistic rubric that is based on Costa and Kallic's description of each productive habit of mind to assess responses on part B in the scale. Holistic scoring "assesses student's ability to construct meaning through looking at the piece of writing in its entirety" (Cooper et al., 2015). Thus, the holistic rubric is suitable for assessing a short writing paragraph. The rubric contained the four productive habits of mind. Under each habit of mind, there are three levels of performance. The levels assigned a score from "1" (the lowest), to "3" (the highest).

The Validity of internal consistency: the correlation coefficients for the items of the test ranged between (0.77 -0.85), the items of the scale correlate with the total degree at the significant level (0.00).

The reliability of the scale: the Cronbach Alpha reliability coefficient was (0.87), which indicated that the productive habits of mind scale is reliable and can be applied to achieve the research objectives.
Treatment
Two of the second secondary grade classes were randomly assigned, one treated as the experimental group, and the other as the control group. The experiment of teaching by SPAWN strategy was applied only in the experimental group. The two groups did the pre and post means of gathering data (a pre-posttest of persuasive writing and productive habits of mind scale). The results of the pretests of the two groups ascertained the homogeneity and equivalence of them. Implementing the experiment based on the prepared teacher's guide on the experimental group for four weeks. The first two classes provided an introduction to persuasive writing and productive habits of mind. It was important for the students to be aware of what they are going to learn. Lessons of the treatment include the following: Activity (4b), Writing based on an e-mail expressing opinion. Activity (7a) letter to the editor expressing an opinion. Activity (7a) Write an essay to the school principle expressing your view about English Language virtual classes. Activity (7a) write a letter to the editor expressing your opinion.

Results
Result of Hypothesis One
The researcher used the t-test to explore the difference in the mean scores between the experimental group and the control group on the posttest of persuasive writing skills.

Table 3. T-test results of the differences between mean scores obtained by the two groups in persuasive writing skills post-test

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>persuasive writing skills</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>T test</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>η2</th>
<th>Effect size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opinion &amp; Position</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td>4.38</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.28</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>0.46</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons &amp; support</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td>0.88</td>
<td>4.08</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.23</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>0.54</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Points of view</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>0.65</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.38</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>0.55</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing organization</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.13</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>5.26</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.32</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>0.43</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language conventions</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.80</td>
<td>0.86</td>
<td>4.02</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>0.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasive writing skills</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>11.56</td>
<td>0.68</td>
<td>5.83</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.37</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.80</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: (T)=1.293 at level α = 0.05 , degree of freedom =58

Result of Hypothesis Two
To validate the hypothesis, the researcher used the paired t-test to determine the significance of the differences in mean scores of the experimental group in the pretest and posttest of persuasive writing skills.
Table 4. *Paired sample t-test results of the differences between the pre and posttest of persuasive writing skills for the experimental group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Persuasive writing skills</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>T test</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>η²</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Opinion &amp; Position</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>.47</td>
<td>.76</td>
<td>4.17</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.10</td>
<td>.88</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reasons &amp; Support</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.46</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.30</td>
<td>.65</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Points of view</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>.50</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>5.22</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.86</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Writing Organization</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.46</td>
<td>1.43</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.06</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language Conventions</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>2.3667</td>
<td>.61495</td>
<td>1.23333</td>
<td>6.713</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.5000</td>
<td>.68229</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persuasive writing skills</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>10.3833</td>
<td>3.300</td>
<td>5.4501</td>
<td>6.594</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>15.8334</td>
<td>.4875</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Result of Hypothesis Three*

To validate this hypothesis, the researcher used the independent t-test to determine the significance of the differences between mean scores obtained by both groups in the post administration of the productive habits of mind scale.

Table 5. *T-test results of the differences between mean scores obtained by the two groups in the post administration of the productive habits of mind scale*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Productive habits of mind</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>T test</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>η²</th>
<th>effect size</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Thinking Flexibly</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.03</td>
<td>1.21</td>
<td>16.16</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.33</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning and Problem Posing</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.86</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td>17.29</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>.81</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.13</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply past knowledge to new situations</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.83</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>20.13</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.23</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating, Imagining and Innovating</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.10</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>14.50</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>.87</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.20</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive habits of mind scale</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>51.90</td>
<td>3.15</td>
<td>25.21</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>.91</td>
<td>High</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>experimental</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>68.90</td>
<td>1.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Result of Hypothesis Four

To validate this hypothesis, the researcher used Paired T-Test.

Table 6. Paired sample t-test results of the differences between the pre and post administration of the productive habits of mind scale for the experimental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Productive habits of mind</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard deviation</th>
<th>Mean difference</th>
<th>T test</th>
<th>p-value</th>
<th>η2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.63</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>23.03</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.33</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning and</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.26</td>
<td>.82</td>
<td>4.63</td>
<td>23.00</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Problem Posing</td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.13</td>
<td>.73</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apply past knowledge to</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.40</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>4.70</td>
<td>19.02</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>new situations</td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.23</td>
<td>.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creating, Imagining and</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>12.56</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td>4.86</td>
<td>15.78</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Innovating</td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>17.20</td>
<td>.84</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Productive habits of</td>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>49.71</td>
<td>3.35</td>
<td>19.18</td>
<td>25.11</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mind scale</td>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>68.89</td>
<td>8.95</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table \( T \) = 1.293 at level \( \alpha = 0.05 \), degree of freedom = 58

Result of Hypothesis Five

To validate this hypothesis, the researcher used Pearson correlation coefficient to determine the relation. The table shows the value.

Table 1. Correlation between posttests scores for the experimental group

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pearson correlation coefficient ( r-value)</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0.79**</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

Considering the effect size values, which indicated a strong positive effect of SPAWN strategy on persuasive writing skills, the effected skills can be ranked from the highest to the lowest as follows: Points of view skill recorded the highest degree of change. It showed students' ability to consider alternatives points of view on particular issues. The category "A" in SPAWN strategy, which means (Alternative Viewpoints), provided students with prompts to write about a topic or re-tell a situation from unique and alternative perspectives. SPAWN’s Alternative Viewpoints prompts created by the teacher help students share and discuss opinions with classmates and compare them to what provided in the given materials. Language organization recorded the second highest degree of change, as a consequence of SPAWN focused activities that require reading and examining
persuasive essays before responding to the prompts. Students examine essay patterns, styles, and organization every time they respond to SPAWN strategy. "S: Special Power" prompt of SPAWN strategy help students form the main opinion or position to be written in the introduction, "P: problem-solving", "A: alternative viewpoints", and "W: what if?" prompts help them generate ideas to form the paragraphs and "N: next" help formulate a call to action to be placed in the conclusion of their essays. Implementing reading in writing instruction improves students writing skills and the quality of the written production in a whole (Ferlazzo & Sypnieski, 2014; Tuan, 2012; Newell et al., 2011). Furthermore, the organizers and worksheets in the teacher's manual helped students to organize their ideas about opinions and illustrate the structure of the persuasive essay. Expressing opinion and position skills come third. According to Rojas (2008), SPAWN strategy helps students form opinions and make judgments by analyzing and evaluating texts from a critical perspective. The category "S: special power" in SPAWN strategy provided students with a prompt that requires writing a change on any aspect of the text according to their opinion and write the consequences. This procedure helps students overcome the fears of writing their own opinion or position toward some issues. Therefore, integrating reading in writing instruction, as in SPAWN strategy, provides reading sources to help students shape opinions about to the topic, which confirms that writers’ knowledge about a topic improves his writing performance (Plakans and Gebril, 2012, Lin, 2003). Language conventions skills came the fourth on the table. Examining persuasive texts enhances students’ ability to choose accurate words to support persuasive writing. And as mentioned before, this procedure allows them to notice a variety of well-developed sentence structures, correct grammar, spelling and punctuation in the reading materials. Reasons and support skills came the fifth in the table. Texts provided to be examined by SPAWN strategy were resources for information that help to support interpretations, and evidence to inform claims or opinions (Ferlazzo & Sypnieski, 2014; Plakans and Gebril, 2012; Rojas, 2008). The use of expository texts as content for an argument and a model for writing improves students’ persuasive writing (Gleason, 1999, as cited in Standish, 2004). In the current research, the use of SPAWN strategy prepared students to write persuasively by focusing on the reading material and seeking knowledge and structure. The five prompts of SPAWN promoted generating ideas and linking them to the available information.

Besides, considering the effect size values, which indicated a strong positive effect of SPAWN strategy on developing productive habits of mind, the effected habits can be ranked from the highest to the lowest as follows: Thinking flexibly recorded the highest degree of change. Students showed their ability to consider different points of view rationally and impartially, generate alternatives, options, and examples concerning the discussion. "A: alternative viewpoints" of SPAWN category help students think flexibly through finding more alternatives and possibilities. Creating, Imagining, and Innovating are ranked the second. Rojas (2008) mentioned that SPAWN strategy helps to demonstrate comprehension of texts through creative and imaginative responses. Applying past knowledge to new situations came the third. Through SPAWN integration of reading into writing instruction, students creatively used their experience in their writing or discussion tasks. Carson (1993) stated that through this integration, students can transform information for their purposes in reading and to synthesize their prior knowledge with another text in writing (Carson, 1993). Questioning and problem solving ranked the fourth. Students improved their questioning attitude, and start to form questions through examining the text and finding problems to solve. "W: what if?" category in SPAWN strategy allowed students to formulate their questions based on an urgent change in one of the text aspects. Generally, the literature reviewed in the field of reading,
writing, and thinking skills emphasized that students who engage in reading and writing integrated processes with a clear purpose in their mind, as in SPAWN strategy, improve their thinking skills alongside their learning (Standish, 2005). When students write about content, they use a complex process that requires them to use a higher level of thinking skills and connect their thinking to the material learned. Then, engage in writing activities that require students to think and reshape their knowledge about a topic (Alharbi, 2015).

Moreover, research shows that persuasive writing requires the writer to have a sufficient knowledge and skills to integrate information and evaluate opinions in the writing assignment. Persuasive writing assignments also involve clear awareness of the argument and require students to use thinking skills such as analyzing, anticipating, evaluation, and synthesis. Indeed, writing persuasively provide students with opportunities to promote a high level of thinking, through asking students to consider problems, find solutions, and advise a plan to address it (Nippold & Ward-Lonergan, 2010; Baines, 2014).

Conclusion
Results of the analysis revealed a significant improvement in students' persuasive writing skills (Opinion or position, Reasons and Support, Points of View, Organization and Language Conventions) and the productive habits of mind (Thinking flexibly, Questioning and Problem posing, Apply past knowledge to new situations and Creating, Imagining and Innovating). This improvement was attributed to the effectiveness of SPAWN strategy. Results also revealed a strong positive correlation between persuasive writing skills and the productive habits of mind for the experimental group; the revealed strong correlation can be attributed to the teaching by SPAWN strategy.

Recommendations
Based on the above findings, it is recommended:
1. Including persuasive writing skills in second secondary grade students' textbook and teachers' guide to develop and evaluate students' persuasive writing skills effectively.
2. Planners of teachers' training programs should emphasize the significance and necessity of promoting the productive habits of mind among students.
3. Designing professional development course for teachers to help them develop students' writing performance through the use of SPAWN strategy in the pre-writing stage of the writing process. Teachers should also practice to form an effective SPAWN prompts to maintain students engagement.
4. Teachers should encourage students to form their SPAWN writing prompts to enrich classroom discussion through expressing their opinions, employing their previous experience in new situations, and develop their thinking skills.
5. Contain English curriculum with SPAWN writing prompts to facilitate students' generating of ideas before composing their final persuasive writing texts. With the importance of addressing the productive habits of mind in each of SPAWN prompt.

Suggestions for further research
- Future descriptive studies are needed to determine the difficulties and challenges of persuasive writing faced by secondary grade students.
Further research is needed to assess the effectiveness of SPAWN strategy in developing the other productive habits of mind in English language classes. More research is needed to examine the effect of SPAWN strategy on developing the other type of writing, such as critical or creative writing among students of different stages. Further research is needed to investigate the effect of a suggested program based on SPAWN strategy on developing teachers' ability to form effective writing prompts to enhance students' writing performance.

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A Systematic Review of the Outcomes of Using Action Research in Education

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Abstract
Teaching, as a profession, is becoming more and more challenging every day, not only because the teacher has to deal with unpredictable difficulties in constantly changing uncontrollable cultural and social contexts in the classrooms, but also for the need, nowadays, to be a curious explorer, a systematic investigator, and a creative innovation to solve his/her problems while teaching, using a flexible, self-reflective, critical, and production-oriented approach. Educational Action Research can provide a chance for the teacher to develop his/her critical thinking skills to become effective self-reliant problem-solver to the actual unique challenges that no one, but him/her, can better understand and administer in the classroom. Thus, s/he becomes enthusiastically involved in structuring and sharing a more comprehensive view of education. This paper investigates the possible outcomes of using action research in education, with an emphasis on teachers, after highlighting main critiques. It starts by discussing first the early evolution of Action Research both as a notion and a structure. Then, it reviews primary literature and research findings on the benefits of using Educational Action Research for teachers. The paper suggests that taking the role of teacher-researcher may help in achieving sustainable development at the level of the classroom and contributes in promoting the professional careers of teachers.

Keywords: Educational Action Research, Professional Development, sustainable development, teacher-researcher role

DOI: https://dx.doi.org/10.24093/awej/vol11no1.32
Introduction
More than any time, Action Research, as a notion, is so often used in education nowadays to suggest solutions to real classroom problems that are faced daily by teachers, though the term is by no means new. This paper studies the early formulation of the Action Research theory as suggested by Lewin in 1946. It covers its echo around the world, including main critiques against it, especially during the second half of the twentieth century. The paper also stresses the importance of using Action Research in education through studying the promising effects for teachers.

1. Action Research: a Nutshell about its Early Evolution as a Concept and a Process
The term Action Research was coined in 1946 by Lewin, a social psychologist, and educator, in the United States who tried to enhance intergroup relations in some American communities (Bargal, 2006). He was particularly interested in developing social relationships to promote communication and cooperation to raise the self-esteem of some minority groups, using action research and other ways (Adelman, 1993). Lewin argues that democratic communities should publicly enquire about different social problems that were, at that time, mainly repercussions brought about by the devastating World War II (Dickens & Watkins, 1999). Nevertheless, there were some close notions to Action Research that were developed independently and sometimes simultaneously by other theorists as John Collier, a US anthropologist and social worker who emphasized principles of cooperation and collaboration, and John Dewey who stressed the importance of human interaction with his natural environment (Maksimović, 2010). But still, Lewin is the first to formulate the theory of Action Research that grew out of the Harwood Experiments conducted at Virginia-based Textiles Company. The experiments suggested an influential approach to organizational change through stressing the importance of encouraging principles of cooperation and communication among different participants (Burns 2007). Lewin concludes that respecting these simple principles can overcome employees turnover and social conflict, and thus, can achieve a better productivity level (Burnes, 2007). Lewin also discusses the chasm between social theories suggested by researchers and actions taken by practitioners. He criticizes the researchers for developing no application after conducting their scientific studies and disapproves of taking actions without prior theoretical background (Peters & Robinson, 1984). He calls for collaboration between them to obtain effective solutions to practical problems (Cunningham, 1993). In another word, he suggests, in his article, that doing research and taking action should be a simultaneous process which should not disconnect the investigation from the required work to solve the problem in real-life situations (McFarland & Stansell, 1993). He insists that there should be: “no action without research; and no research without action” (McTaggart 1997, p.81); thus, he clearly calls for advocating experimentation in action research. Lewin, indeed, gives a dominant consideration to the old scientific paradigm based on testing, along with the need to observe to be able to make valid changes that may end up by significant contributions towards solving the research problem (Clark, 1976). Furthermore, Lewin suggests a cyclical process that involves planning, data gathering, taking action, evaluating, and reflecting (Pelton, 2010). He describes this non-linear process as a: “spiral of steps, each of which is composed of a circle of planning, action, and fact-finding about the result of the action” (Lewin, 1946, p. 38).

Although Lewin was the first to introduce and formulate a definition for Action Research, many ambiguities and questions were left unanswered after his sudden death of a heart attack in 1947. Lewin had never clearly stated a systematic view of Action Research within his relatively short
article (about 22 pages). The chance, however, was open for several subsequent contributions to elaborate upon the original definition of Lewin, trying to re-interpret it and expand it to suggest distinct aspects of the process (Dickens & Watkins, 1999).

His students, Chein, Cook, and Harding, who worked with him as researchers in the Research Center for Group Dynamics in the Institute of Technology and the Commission on Community Interrelations, further developed his work after his death. They distinguished four types of action research: Diagnostic Action Research that focuses on problem-identification, Participative Action Research that engages individuals to examine local issues, Empirical Action Research to gather data and Experimental Action Research to test hypotheses (Hendricks, 2019). Nevertheless, Action Research, after Lewin, received intense critiques that doubted the validity of resolutions suggested by Action Research which, according to them, may not introduce any significant contributions to the body of knowledge. Action Research was even considered by some critiques as a non-social science research (Brooks & Watkins, 1994), for lacking the true spirit of scientific research (Cohen & Manion, 1980), having less internal and external control of the natural environment (Merriam & Simpson, 1984), in addition to the fact that solving an ongoing problem in a real-life situation may change before any solutions can be suggested due to the long spiral process of the action research (Dickens & Watkins, 1999). Despite these critiques, action research was applied in several projects within different fields after the mid-twentieth century. Most of these projects followed the Lewinian classical model, using his concepts of social engineering and re-education as vital tenets of action research, especially in USA and UK.

2. Applying Action Research in Education
Action Research was brought into education in USA in the late 1940s, based on the works of Kurt Lewin, by Stephen Corey, a chief principal of Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute at the University of Columbia. As an experimentation school, the aim of the institute was to improve curriculums at schools and bridge the existing gap between practice in classrooms and research findings (Olson, 1990). Corey and his colleagues worked closely with many district principals, supervisors, and teachers across the United States to spread ideas of cooperative action research, believing that teachers can obtain better educational results through collaboration, mainly if teachers conducted some studies to support the decision they took in the classroom. Corey followed almost the same Lewinian spiral steps of Action Research with the exception of the emphasis on the need to formulate and test hypotheses that included problem identification, hypothesis formulation, data collection, decisions and generalizations, and retesting these generalizations (Zeichner, 2001). Nevertheless, Corey’s suggestion to adopt Action Research as a form of inquiry of educational knowledge had been largely ignored in the US educational system until the late 1980s with the rise of the North America Movement that emphasized the teacher-researcher role. This movement started to receive, at last, an echo after the growing popularity of the use of case studies in research and education in general, and with the spread of some notable works by teachers like Nancy Atwell (Zeichner, 2001).

In the United Kingdom, the idea of using Action Research in education began to develop during the 1960s, as some teachers in modern secondary schools started to adopt the teacher-researcher role to enhance some curriculums of humanities (Elliott, 1976). Many teachers decided to adjust the content of curriculums to be closer to students’ lives, using an interactive way that stressed the
role of students through discussions rather than merely transmitting knowledge, as suggested by the traditional method (Zeichner, 2001). Academics further developed these ideas in the Humanities Curriculum Project, the Ford Teaching Project, and Teacher-Student Interaction and Quality of Learning Project. Many notable scholars were supporting these projects like John Elliott and Peter Holly, leading to the establishment of the Collaborative Action Research Network (Zeichner, 2001).

3. The Role of Educational Action Research in Promoting the Teacher’s Professional Career

Action Research in education, nowadays, can refer to studying any school situation with an attempt to deeply understand it and improve the quality of education (Hensen, 1996; Johnson, 2012). It uses a systematic process (McNiff, Lomax, & Whitehead, 1996) that is designed mainly to solve some classroom problems (Mills, 2011). This process, which entails as a fundamental step the identification of the research problem and the formulation of hypotheses before it proceeds with data collection and analysis, adopts mainly the participatory action research, as it involves many participants.

There are several studies which suggest that Action Research enables teachers to develop different skills and allows them to promote their professional growth (Baron et al. 1996; Hensen, 1996; Tomlinson, 1995). To illustrate, the educators can, for example, enlarge their theoretical knowledge by reading and making use of previous research findings as they take the role of teachers-researchers. Thus, they reduce the existing gap between research and practice (Mills, 2011; Johnson, 2012) to effectively solve some problems that they might encounter in the classrooms. Moreover, as teachers-researchers always keep reading about different issues related to the issues they have already identified, they become more open to new ideas and flexible in their teaching (Seider, 2004). Not only this, action research enables teachers to enhance their critical thinking skills as they observe different problems and difficulties that may stand in front of achieving better results in the education process (Davis & Broome, 2004). Some scholars also suggest that this empowers teachers (Finch, 2005), mainly when they contribute to enhancing different syllabi with their continuous reflections and observations in a top-down process where instructions and syllabi come from decision-makers. In another word, teachers, more than anyone, know better about the effectiveness of such guidelines and recommendations as they put them into practice. Teachers, indeed, can explore some possible defects through their daily contact with learners. This allows them to experiment with different things, in variables they can better understand and administer.

Being alone in the classroom compels teachers to be sufficiently flexible to deal with different possible scenarios and solve their problems which makes them more independent, confident, and self-reliant. In brief, Adopting educational action research can facilitate the suggestion of practical solutions to some daily classroom problems and helps teachers to promote their careers.

Conclusion

Even though most scholars and academics had been downright suspicious of action research and constantly mistrusted its findings for many years after Kurt Lewin had first formulated it in 1946, the field of Action Research knew some revivals by the end of the twentieth century. Many scholars tried to interpret and expand the theory of Lewin, accentuating the point that Action
Research should not separate theory from practice. They stressed also the importance of communication and collaboration to suggest practical solutions to real-life problems using a cyclical process. Educational Action Research, based on the theory of Lewin, began to be adopted in several projects in the United Kingdom and the United States. The growing use of Action Research in education was in parallel with the urgent need of teachers to deal with ever-increasing classroom problems that compel them to read, experiment, and reflect on possible findings after observing and identifying some research problems. Teachers became aware that to ensure better education outcomes they had to overcome many classroom issues. Or in another word, they realized the need to play the role of teacher-researcher which became, almost, a necessity that enabled many teachers, like Nancy Atwell and others, to present exciting action research findings. Such outcomes called for re-assessment of the widely-held view that teachers lacked basic knowledge of scientific research, and thus, cannot be trusted in their findings. Nowadays, more scholars and researchers than ever stress the importance of using action research in education to serve both learners and educators. From one side, educational action research can help in achieving sustainable development through suggesting practical solutions to varied classroom problems. It also helps teachers in their jobs, from the other side, as it raises awareness among them and makes them more collaborative, flexible, pragmatic, adaptive, self-reliant, and knowledgeable about issues related to pedagogy and education. Therefore, using action research in education empowers teachers and offers them the opportunity to develop different skills to promote their professional development while it effectively overcomes some real classroom challenges to achieve the pragmatic objectives set forth. Thus, teachers can work comfortably in a more variables-controlled environment.

About the Author
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References


The Effect of Local Arabic Dialects on Learning English Language Pronunciation

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Abstract:
Due to the variety of their local dialects and accents, Arab learners occasionally face some problems when pronouncing English letters and phonemes. These pronunciation errors are caused by the influence of native language interference. Each language in any part of the world has its linguistic characteristics and rules that control their pronunciation and even word-formation process, which distinguishes them from those of other nations. Modern linguists described this phenomenon as verbal behaviors because, by the end of a special stage of a child’s growth, it becomes as constant customs. As a consequence, generations inherit these verbal qualities from their ancient without having any choices to make a linguistic formation in particular. As they work to develop their English language fluency, Arabic ESL students, for instance, face several pronunciation difficulties such as adding or replacing new phonemes that do not exist in the target language. The linguistic differences between Arabic and English usually have a crucial impact on how simply a learner can study to form the English letter sounds.

Keywords: Arab learners, articulation, dialects’ variation, phonemes, instinctive, inventory, pronunciation

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1. Introduction
When a nation seeks to establish its position on today’s changing global, they need the right tools for communication. The language is undoubtedly the most important tool of contact between Nations and civilizations, especially in the present era, in which the world has become not just like a small village as it has been said, but even like a small room. Having the basic tools of communication is the fundamental source through which people can interact with each other and understand the various aspects of culture and lifestyles. Languages, which considered as a bridge of knowledge transfer in the present era, are central parts of today’s connected world with especial increasing interest towards mutual understanding and cultural exchange among both groups and individuals. The misunderstanding may sometimes occur, for instance, due to mispronunciation of some English vocabulary when people from various localities are trying to communicate with each other, which to some extent, related to the various dialects they locally speak. These home-grown dialects may affect the way they pronounce some words when learning new languages. Therefore, the way Egyptian people, for example, pronounce some English letters is different from Sudanese people do, and their pronunciation problems differ consequently.

2. Preliminary Considerations
2.1 The Arabic script
Arabic is the language of mutual understanding for about 150 and 200 million people who lived in Arabic countries and the verbal language of worship for many millions of Muslims. It has been considered to be the unique language of the Koran, which in the Muslim faith is exceptionally outstanding, simply because it is the direct expression of Allah (Mclouglin, 2003). There are 28 letters in the Arabic alphabet demonstrating consonants besides the three vowel symbols, which divided into two types: short and long vowels.

      Usually, the 28 letters are written from right to left, contrasting to English (from left to right). According to Chacra (2007) in the Arabic language, the letters are linked (merged) together from both sides when writing words. Most of the letters are written in different forms to some extent, depending on their position in the name whether: initially, medially, finally, or standing alone. There are no capital letters in the Arabic language.

3. Language Acquisition
Multilingualism is one of the most common phenomena that is well-known all over the world, and one of the apparent reasons is that the number of languages spoken all over the place at present (roughly 6000) is more than the number of countries (around 200). (Jordà, 2007.)

      As (Corbett, 2013) mentioned, there is strong evidence among linguists that L1 transfer cannot modify the course of L2 acquisition. On the other hand, it can influence the level of learners’ improvement along their natural developing pathways. The concept of whether the addition of language is an inherent or a learned behavior was one of the most controversial issues that Arabic scientists have concerned about for decades. Some of them believe that the language is instinctive (apparently unconscious or automatic) such as Abu Othman Al-Jahez, Abu al-Hasan al-Ash'ari, and Ahmad Ibn Faris. The latter mentioned in his book (Al-Sahabi) that language is a natural and intuitive process. The other team, headed by Ibn Jennie, consider that language is a
conventionally behavioral process. In his book (Al-Muqademah, p. 320), the Arabic sociologist Ibn Khaldun, thinks that the acquisition of communication takes place via a natural transmission of words from generation to another. The Arabic speaker first hears the vocabularies of his age and the methods to express their intentions, and then he/she learns how to form a structure.

In terms of modern human theories, many Intellectual multi-schools have been trying to explain the mechanism of language acquisition. Despite the multiplicity regarding language acquisition and the appropriate age to launch foreign languages, the following are two hypotheses of interest, namely: (Innate Hypothesis) and (behavioral hypothesis).

Figure 1. Illustrates the indirect but often considerable contribution output can make to language acquisition

![Figure 1. Output contribute to language acquisition](image)

3.1 The Innate Hypothesis of Language Acquisition:
This premise starts with the fact that language is not a behavioral skill, but it is a human mental ability.

Algeo’s (2010) study found the following:

Perhaps the most important word in the definition of language is the system. We speak in patterns. A language is not just a collection of words, such as we find in a dictionary. It is also the rules or patterns that relate our words to one another. (p. 2)

It gives a logical explanation of how children can form sentences they have not heard before. This ability, called Linguistic Acquisition Device (LAD), has been widely echoed by linguists, especially by Chomsky (1981), and become one of the critical hypotheses of language acquisition. This theory contains the most common aspects shared by all languages in the world, which found that to acquire and pronounce any words, only children need to expose to samples of that language. Since the Linguistic Acquisition Device (LAD) contains standard international general rules, linguists have tended to name it (UG) Universal Grammar.

4. The Effect of Arabic Phonetic Habits on Learning Foreign Languages:
As reported by Enam (2009), speakers of any language have their linguistic characteristics and rules that control their pronunciation and even word-formation process, which distinguishes them from those of other nations. Modern linguists described this phenomenon as verbal behaviors because, by the end of a particular stage of a child’s growth, it becomes as constant customs. As a consequence, generations inherit these verbal qualities from their ancient without having any choices to make a linguistic formation in particular. Although changes that have taken place in Arabic dialects, hundreds of years ago, the same universal rules almost certainly followed as today.
According to Egyptian (Arabic) dialect, for instance, the word format doesn’t begin with two consonants or mediate three consecutive sounds and end in such a manner. Thus, the word in the tone of the Arabic language usually starts with one consonant and does not mediate or end with more than two consecutive ones.

If an Egyptian child encounters an English word that begins with two or three consecutive consonants, he will fail to utter such words, because such sounds do not exist in his language. Therefore, he will try to overcome this by adding new English syllables, for example, he/she might use: shield, bered, grandefather, burnit
Respectively instead of: child, bread, grandfather, burnt

First, when we compare the phonetic habits in Arabic to the practices of English, we find that English contains consonants that have no equivalents in Arabic speech. Pronouncing these consonants is the first difficulty the Arabic children face when learning English. Examples of such sounds are: /P/, /V/, /Th/, /J/, /R/, /L/. The direct and easy way for Arabic learners is to find the closest similar sounds for these consonants. They use /b/, for instance, instead of /p/, /f/ to replace /v/, and /g/ for /j/ and so on.

Another unique complication that exists in Arabic is the number of throat sounds that do not occur in English, besides the fact that the vowels in Arabic are pure. However, in English, most of the so-called long vowels are diphthong. Figure 2 shows the shared letters between English and Arabic.

![Figure 2: Phonetic inventories](image)

5. English Pronunciation Problems for Arabic ESL Students

5.1 The reasons for making pronunciation errors

In his book ‘A Course in Language Teaching,’ Penny pointed out that learners’ errors of pronunciation derive from several causes:
First, a specific sound may not exist in the mother tongue. Therefore, the learner does not use to create it and hence tends to substitute the nearest equal sound he or she knows.
The second issue is that a sound does exist in the first language, but not as a single phoneme; that is to say, the learner does not recognize it as the individual sound that makes a difference to meaning. In Hebrew, for instance, both the /i/ and /i:/ (ship/sheep) sounds occur, but which to use depends only on where the sound comes in the word or phrase, not what the word means; and if one is replacing for the other, the meaning will not change. Finally, the learners have the real sounds right but have not learned the stress forms of the word or group of words, besides they use their mother tongue intonation rules and apply them to the second language they are learning (Ur, 1991).

5.2 Teaching Pronunciation

Scrivener (2005) remarks that the discussion about pronunciation is based mainly on the following preliminary points: firstly, students should know that they need to learn pronunciation to understand the contexts which they are most likely using in the language. Secondly, it is frequently applicable and authentic to draw the students’ attention to local distinctions and focus on the differences in accents in languages all over the place.

Most English language teachers encourage students to practice well-designed dialogues, take part in productive skill activities, study vocabulary, grammar and become proficient in listening and reading. However, some of these same teachers make a slight effort to teach pronunciation in any specific technique because they are worried about dealing with sounds and intonation; possibly, they think that teaching pronunciation will only make things worse. They may claim that many students look like being able to acquire pronunciation skills during their studies even without having a systematic pronunciation program of education, and without particular pronunciation teaching. It is worth mentioning that Pronunciation teaching not only makes learners aware of various sounds and sound structures but can also increase their speaking significantly. Harmer (2001) puts forward the idea that, in some specific circumstances, pronunciation help lets students get over serious intelligibility difficulties. Besides, teaching pronunciation will decrease the trouble with intonation or stress patterns in phrases and sentences. It will clarify many individual sounds, which cause problems for different first language speakers.

As they work to develop their English language fluency, Arabic ESL students face several pronunciation difficulties. The linguistic differences between Arabic and English usually have a crucial impact on how simply a learner can study to form the English letter sounds. In his book, Linguistic Phonology, (Anees 2007) noted that correct pronunciation is one of the problematic areas students sometimes face when they depend on their native Arabic language rules for guidance. Therefore, pronouncing English letters involves learning new sounds and new rules as well.

5.3 Stress

Linguists generally divide stress rules into two classifications: stress-timed languages such as English, Swedish, Russian, Arabic, European Portuguese, and syllable-timed languages as Spanish, French, Italian, Japanese, Finnish, Brazilian Portuguese. Languages, on the other hand, often have different rules and places of stress in words. Some of which have specific places where to pronounce the stressed syllables such as Arabic and French language, whereas others do not e.g., the English language. Hence, the right pronunciation of words conclusively does not take
place unless the speakers use the stress correctly. The French, for instance, usually pressure the final syllable of words; consequently, they try to apply the same rule when pronouncing English vocabularies. This misuse frequently produces unfamiliar sounds which seem to be strange to the English and consequently lead to misunderstanding between these two nations. In most cases, English words have different meanings according to the place of stress, for instance, the word: 

**insult** ‘verb’ /ɪnˈsʌlt/. (The first syllable is stressed). 

**insult** ‘noun’ /ˈɪnsʌlt/. (The stress is in the second syllable). Another example which shows that stressing a word incorrectly can change the meaning or type of the word:

"They will **desert** /dɪˈzɜːt/ the **desert** /ˈdez.ət/ by tomorrow." 

**deSERT** /dɪˈzɜːt/ (The stress is in the second syllable) means to leave behind. 

**DEsert** /ˈdez.ət/ (The first syllable is stressed) means a space, regularly concealed with rocks or sand.

Leslie (2003) observed that Arabic stress rules are relatively different comparing to the English language ones. According to the author, the most fundamental characteristics of Arabic stress rules are:

(a) Usually, short syllables have short vowels;  
(b) The first syllabus never stressed in Arabic;  
(c) If a word contains two syllables, then the stress tends to occur on the second syllable;  
(d) The stress falls on the nearest long syllable to the end of the word in words with long and short syllables;  
(e) Otherwise, the burden is on the first syllable in words with only one syllable. (Mclouglin, 2003).

Unlike English stress rules, Arabic stress usually occurs in the final syllable if it contains double vowels, for example, mubhóot (مبهوت); bayróot (بيروتوت).

Therefore, Arabic learners will apply the same rule when pronouncing English words such as contribˈute and constituˈte, trying to put the stress in the final syllable.

Arabic intonation likewise uses falling and rising pitch forms. On the other hand, pitch in Arabic does not drop the same low level as in English. This similar pitch patterns serve- various roles in the two languages, creating a major problem area for the Arabic student learning English.

In English, when the vocal sound modifies pitch levels, the change may affect either a single vowel or a series of vowels; whereas, in Arabic, a move possibly will occur on only one vowel at a time.

In the Arabic language, Word stress goes on entirely different rules than in English. The place where to put the pressure in Arabic words is determined by the structure of the word and the arrangement of consonants and vowels in that word. The following Arabic rules show this clearly:

1) The final syllable of the Arabic word is never stressed.
2) If the syllable before last is heavy, which means it contains either a long vowel or a short vowel plus two consonants, then that syllable is stressed.

3) If the last but one syllable is not heavy, the stress, in this case, falls on, the third tip-last syllable.

4) Any suffixes may change the structure when added to a word. When this occurs, stress then will relocate to meet the above-mentioned cases. The following examples of Arabic stress rules will show this clearly:

If the final syllable is super-heavy (CVVC or CVCC), then it bears stress. 
\text{darast} \text{دراست} \text{‘I studied’} - \text{raaseen} \text{رآسين} \text{‘two heads’}

Otherwise, if the penultimate syllable is heavy (CVV or CVC), it bears the stress.
\text{maktabha} \text{مكتبة} \text{‘her desk/office’} - \text{binsaameh} \text{بنسامح} \text{- ‘we forgive.}

Under other conditions, stress goes on the syllable before the final one.
\text{fabarada} \text{فيدير} \text{‘he got cold.}

One of the methods in which dialects vary is what occurs when the syllable before the final one is massive. The antepenultimate is then stressed, in most dialects as shown above, but in Cairene Arabic, the stress is on the light penultimate instead:

\text{madrasa} \text{(Cairene)} - \text{madrase} \text{(Beirut/Damascene)}

6. The Varieties of Arabic Dialects When Pronouncing English Consonants
Vowel and consonant are terms that by themselves spread over morally to talking sounds. Vowels have cleaned smooth ongoing airflow through the mouth, while with consonants, there is a particular kind of distinct compression that modifies talking sounds. Speaking about vowel symbols and consonant symbols, connected directly to symbols demonstrating vowel sounds and symbols indicating consonant sounds. (Pullum, 2007)

Besides the division of consonants into voiced and unvoiced, linguists have another category fundamentally:

(a) relating to the manner of their articulation,
(b) referring to the organs by which the utterance is affected (Gairdner, 1925; Mclouglin, 2003). Based on the assumption that there are stable differences between English Language and Classic Standard Arabic, it is typically expected some Arabic learners encounter the same difficulties when learning English pronunciation as a result of the varieties of Arabic dialects. One of these differences is clearly distinguished when pronouncing consonants in both two languages. Another unique complication that exists in Arabic is the number of throat sounds that do not occur in English, besides the fact that the vowels in Arabic are pure. However, in English, most of the so-called long vowels are diphthong.
Table.1 shows the IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet) of different Arabic letters.

Table 1: The IPA (International Phonetic Alphabet)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Palatalveolar</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Uvular</th>
<th>Pharyngeal</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>kg</td>
<td>q</td>
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<td>?</td>
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<td>Nasal</td>
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<td>Thrill</td>
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<tr>
<td>Tap or flap</td>
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<td>r</td>
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<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>0 ð</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>z</td>
<td>j</td>
<td>ʒ</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>h</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>h</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lateral Fricative</td>
<td></td>
<td>dʒ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Approximate</td>
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<td>j</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lateral Approximate</td>
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<td>1</td>
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</table>

The next patterns and examples explain the idea clearly: Egyptian Speakers, for instance, often have these teething troubles with /dʒ/ and /ð/. In such case, spoken variations of Egyptian Arabic, /dʒ/ substitutes for /ʒ/, as in "job" and "jam" would correspondingly sound like /ʒab/ and /ʒæm/. Another tricky area exists with the consonant sound /ð/, which often replaces by its plosive equivalent /d/. Therefore, some English vocabulary such as 'though,' 'they,' 'then,' and 'there,' would respectively sound like 'dough' 'day,' 'den,' and 'dare.' Barros, 2003 in Hago & Khan (2015).

Sudanese students, on the other hand, have some inaccuracies with respect to some consonants that do not exist in Sudanese Spoken Arabic e.g. /θ/ /ð/ /p/ /v/ therefore they switch them with /s/ /z/ /b/ /f/ respectively. They don’t distinguish between (s-sound and θ-sound); thus, they usually use /s/ as an alternative to /θ/. For example, they will pronounce words such as (bath, math, theatre) as (bas, mas, seatre) by replacing the dental /θ/ with the alveolar /s/. Furthermore, their mistakes with other fricatives (z and ð) they often substitute the dental /ð/ with the alveolar /z/, for this reason, words like (the weather, then) probably pronounce as /z/ instead of /ð/ as (za, weazer, zen). Likewise, other Arabs, Sudanese learners frequently replace bilabials (b and p) with each other. Consequently, they use /b/ instead of /p/ for instance words like (pupil, paper, apple) are pronounced as /bju:bl/, /beibəl/, /æbl/.

The following table shows the place and method of articulation when pronouncing different Arabic letters.
Table 2. The place and method of pronouncing various Arabic letters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>manner</th>
<th>voicing</th>
<th>place</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Bilabial</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stop</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricative</td>
<td>Voiceless</td>
<td>tʃ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>tf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Obstruent</td>
<td>Liquid</td>
<td>l</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Rhotic</td>
<td>r(ɾ)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Glide</td>
<td>Voiced</td>
<td>w</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. The Varieties of Arabic Dialects when Pronouncing English Vowels

Regarding the articulatory phonemics, (Yule 2010) investigates how speech sounds are formed using the properly multipart verbal tools we have. The air pressed out by the lungs up through the windpipe to the larynx to produce sounds. Then the air goes through the vocal cords or (vocal folds), which placed inside the larynx.

The consonants’ system contains significant lexical contrasts in the Arabic language. Consequently, the Arabic language has a prosperous consonant system and quite poor vocalic structure. Grammarians have divided vowels in Arabic into two main types:

7.1 Short Vowels:
According to classical Arabic, there are three short vowel phonemes; two close vowels, palatal (i) and labio-velar (u), and one open vowel, guttural (a).

7.2 Long Vowels:
Unlike short vowels, the opposition between /i/ and /u/ occurs in all dialects in the long vowels. All modern dialects of the Arabic language have at least three long vowels, /ā/, /ū/, and /i/. /i/ and /ū/ have an articulation which is closer than that of their short counterparts, and /f/ has a front articulation. (Watson, 2002)
The second type of vowel in Arabic, which does not exist in English, is called al-harakātu. They can be both short and long.

Arabic speakers normally write all these vowels as diacritic signs below or above the consonant letter to which they belong. The following are the three types of these vowels:

(a) Fathah: /a/ is a small diagonal stroke written above the consonant: 
\[ 	ext{káthaba}, \text{means: to write.} \] (كتَبَ)

(b) Kasrah: /i,l/ is a minor sloping stroke under the consonant /bi/, e.g. qabila, means: to accept. 
\[ 	ext{قَبِلَ} \] (قِبَلَ)

(c) Dammah: /u/ is a symbol like a comma written above the consonant: 
\[ 	ext{hasuna, to be handsome.} \] (حَسَنَ) (Chacra, 2007)

8. Conclusion:
One of the most challenges that Arabic learners face when learning English is their attempts to implement the same pronunciation rules of their mother tongue to replace the English ones. Utilizing these rules in the wrong places will cause mispronunciation of some vocabulary, which leads in return to misunderstanding occurs when people from various localities are trying to communicate with each other. Generally speaking, to acquire an accurate pronunciation of any foreign language involves a complete change in the innate traditional conducts of articulation. Arabic learners, in particular, should be aware of all these changes when learning a new language like English, as well as all other West European languages, in which the pronunciation differs completely from their local language. Besides, learners must recognize evidently from the outset that this change in pronouncing customs must cover the basics of articulation and impact consonants, vowels, and intonation.

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