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Against Multiple Agreement – Evidence from Standard Arabic

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Abstract
This paper provides evidence, based on the Case properties of verbless copular clauses in Standard Arabic (SA), against the Multiple Agreement Hypothesis proposed for languages such as Japanese (Hiraiwa, 2001), English (Chomsky, 2005b; Radford, 2006), and SA double-accusative structures (Al-Horais, 2013). It argues that the mismatch in Case value between the two nominal constituents – the DP “subject” and the DP or AP predicate - of verbless copular clauses is incompatible with the claim that a single probe can simultaneously agree with more than one goal. Rather, the Case phenomenon within the copular contexts considered appears to be consistent with, and follows from, an Agree relation between a single active probe and a single active matching goal. Some SA copular clauses which include a modal-like negative element - laysa - will also be used to address the key issue under investigation.

Key Words: agree, goal, multiple agree, probe, \( \$ \)-features

1. Introduction

The facts of copular structures are not new. The structures exist in many languages and have been the focus of analysis in several studies (Baker, 2003; Bailyn, 2001; Bowers, 2001; Adger & Ramchand, 2003). For practical considerations of space, scope and relevance, the studies cited cannot be adequately discussed in this introduction. Also, the author will not review previous approaches to the syntax of verbless structures in SA, referring the reader to chapter three of Benmamoun (2000) and to Benmamoun (2008) who includes a discussion of some of these earlier studies on the topic.

Rather, the author’s aim is to provide a theoretical contribution by attempting an analysis of such structures within an Agree-based approach where it is argued that one probe Agrees with one goal only. The Multiple Agreement Hypothesis (MAH) has been proposed for English (section 2.1), for double-nominative structures in Japanese (section 2.2), for double-accusative ‘Exceptional Case Marking’ (ECM) structures in SA (section 2.3), but not, to the author’s knowledge, for copular sentences in SA. Hence, it is important to test its applicability in the context of SA copular structures and explore the significance and wider implications of the results in future research.

The focal point around which the present study revolves is that multiple agreement relation between an active probe, such as (C)omplementizer or T(ense), and more than one active goal makes incorrect predictions about Case feature valuation, whereas agreement relation between a single active probe and a single active goal results in proper Case valuation.

2. Literature Review

The proposed analyses based on the Multiple Agreement Hypothesis for English, Japanese and SA are reviewed below.

2.1. Multiple Agreement Hypothesis

The Multiple Agreement Hypothesis (MAH) proposed in Chomsky (2001, 2005b) allows simultaneous agreement to take place between a probe and more than one goal. That is, when a probe locates the first active matching goal, it continues searching down for another active matching goal and undergoes simultaneous multiple agreement with both of them. Consider how Agree applies in the derivation (2) of the sentence in (1). Interpretable features are shown in boldface, and uninterpretable features are shown in italics (Radford, 2006, p. 194):

1. There were awarded several prizes.

2
The head BE serves as an active probe by virtue of its uninterpretable ω-features of person and number; it locates there which is an active goal by virtue of its uninterpretable person feature and it also locates the QP several prizes which is also active given its uninterpretable Case feature. In accordance with MAH, the probe BE agrees with both goals there and several prices in the ω-feature of 3rd person. As a result, the person feature on BE is valued as 3rd person. Given MAH, BE also enters into an Agree relation with several prizes resulting in valuing the number feature on BE as plural. At the same time, the Case feature of several prizes is also valued nominative by the T(ense) probe hosting BE. The EPP feature of T triggers the movement of there to Spec-T, and all the uninterpretable features are consequently deleted as marked by strike through (Radford, 2006, 194):

(3)

2.2. Multiple Nominative NPs in Japanese

A number of researchers (such as Tkezawa, 1987; Hiraiwa, 2001; Niinuma, 2000; and Ura, 2000) have observed that Japanese allows the occurrence of more than one NP in the nominative Case in a single sentence. This is illustrated by the following examples (example (a) is from Takezawa, 1987, p. 24) where both the subject and the object NPs are marked nominative:

(4)
(a) John-ga nihongo-ga wakaru
   John-NOM Japanese-NOM understand
   "John understands Japanese."

(b) Zoo-ga hana-ga nagai
    Elephant-NOM nose-NOM long
    "It is the elephant that has a trunk."

(c) Yoko-ga ha-ga itai
    Yoko-NOM teeth hurt
    "It is Yoko who has a toothache."
(d) Aiko-ga tensuu-ga ochi-ta
Aiko-NOM mark-NOM drop-past
“It is Aiko’s mark that has dropped.”

These researchers claim that the source of nominative Case of both the subject and the object is T, a claim which is supported by the fact that such double nominative NPs are attested in tensed clauses (Niinuma, 2000). Under Hiraiwa’s (2001) Multiple Agreement approach, T is endowed with a [+multiple] \( \omega \)-feature and therefore when it locates both matching goals, the T probe undergoes multiple agreement with the two active goals simultaneously. Agree between T and both the subject and the object NPs is thus seen as a single operation resulting in their nominative Case valuation in a single simultaneous application.

In addition to Multiple Agree, Hiraiwa (2001) also assumes a Multiple Move whereby the two goals undergo simultaneous movement from their base position to multiple specifiers of the probe, viz., the agreeing head.

2.3. Multiple Agree in Embedded Small Clauses in SA

Adopting Hiraiwa’s Multiple Agree approach and the notion of feature inheritance (Chomsky, 2008), Al-Horais (2013) provided an account of the agreement in Case and \( \omega \)-features between the subject and the nominal predicate of SA small clauses (SCs). His account is also based on the following five premises: First, “the categorial status of the maximal projection that dominates the subcategorized SC constituents must be TP” (Al-Horais, 2013, p. 335). Second, since the “tense [of the SC] depends on the semantics of the tense of the main clause” (ibid), T of the SC is ‘anaphoric’, not ‘non-anaphoric’ (Landau, 2004). Third, under feature inheritance, matrix \( v^* \), not C, is taken to be the source of accusative Case matching on the two goals. Fourth, having inherited uninterpretable features from the matrix \( v^* \), T is now able to serve as a probe. Fifth, the agreement in \( \omega \)-features between the two goals is assumed to be a reflex of Agree in the sense that the unintepretable \( \omega \)-features of the predicate that can either be an AP or a DP are valued by \( \omega \)-features of the subject.

Accordingly, Al-Horais proposed that the Case property of embedded SA SCs result from a single T probe simultaneously agreeing with two goals, the subject and the predicate within the SCs. The result of Agree between T and the two matching goals is valuing accusative Case on both goals. The following examples illustrate the Agree process (examples 43 and 50 in Al-Horais, pp. 333, 337; the gloss is slightly modified):

(5)
(a) hasil-tu l-fatayat-a muclallimat-i-n
thought-1stP the-girls-3rd PF-ACC teachers-3rd PF-GEN-Nun
“I thought the girls were teachers.”
While these sentences display subject-predicate agreement, a problem, arises when a complementizer C is used to introduce the SC:

(6)

(a) ḥasib-tu ?anna [al-fatat-a muṣalima-t-u-n] thought-1stP that the-girl-3rdSF-ACC teacher-3rdSF-NOM-Nun
“I thought that the girl was a teacher.”

(b) açdad-tu ?anna [Mariam-a δakiya-t-u-n] consider-1stP that Mary-3rdSF-ACC intelligent-3rdPF-ACC
“I consider Mary intelligent.”

The C ?inna appears between the verb and the complement. Note that the DP subject and the predicate of the SC complement realize different Cases, accusative and nominative, respectively. Under Multiple Agree, they should surface with the same Case value; it is not clear why Case inheritance fails between \( v^* \) and T in these examples. Also, it is not clear if the notion of feature inheritance and MAH adopted by the author are restricted to SC structures or he is making a stronger proposal for the syntactic analysis of sentences in SA.

As the present work focusses primarily on evidence from verbless copular clauses, SC construction will not be discussed further, noting in passing this empirical problem with an analysis based on Multiple Agree and feature inheritance. In terms of structure, it is desirable to propose that SCs and simple verbless copular clauses of the form [DP DP/AP/PP] be analyzed as Nominal Phrases (4.2 below), a Predicate Phrase (PredP) in other works (Bowers, 1993; Bailyn, 2001 and Baker, 2003) which is a subject-predicate structure. The author will not pursue such an analysis in this context, however.

Recall from section (2) the proposal that in an Agree-based notion of syntax, there is a possibility where one probe can establish a relation with more than one goal under the MAH. The proposal may seem applicable to SA as well in a manner similar to Japanese (section 2.2 above); this possibility is discussed below.

3. MAH and SA Copular Clauses

As discussed above, according to MAH (Chomsky, 2001, 2005b cited in Radford, 2006:191), an active probe such as T can simultaneously probe two active goals leading to valuation of \( \omega \)-features on T and nominative Case on both DPs.

Can MAH be extended to verbless copula clauses in SA so that an active T probes and agrees with two matching goals? Or alternatively, can an active C(omplementizer) probe and simultaneously agree with two DP goals? That is, in line with MAH, T or C would locate the first DP, continue searching for the second DP and, when it locates both DPs, Agree applies between
T/C as a single operation. In this way, T/C multiply agrees with, and values the nominative Case of, DP\textsubscript{1} and DP\textsubscript{2}. The answer appears to be negative; as will be argued below, nominative Case in SA is not valued as a reflex of multiple ϕ-feature valuation on T.

The notion that T undergoes multiple agreement with both DP goals in SA verbless copula clauses may seem plausible at first. After all, as noted in the literature on verbless clauses, such clauses have a present tense interpretation with T heading the TP projection. The construction denotes “a state located in the present tense” (Fassi Fehri, 1993, p. 152). To obtain a past and a future interpretation an overt verbal copula form is needed (see section 3.1 below). In addition to agreeing in Case, being nominative, the two pillars of the construction also agree in person, gender and number.

Consider the verbless copular clauses in the following examples from SA. The subject DP\textsuperscript{v} and the predicate DP in (a-d) agree in ϕ-features and Case, both being nominative, and likewise the subject DP and the predicate adjective in (e-h) agree in the relevant ϕ-features and Case, also both being nominative:

(7)  
(a) al-walad-u tilmiīð-u-n  
    the-boy-NOM student-NOM-Nun  
    “The boy is a student.”  

(b) alʔawaład-u talaamīð-u-n  
    the-boys-NOM student-pl-NOM-Nun  
    “The boys are students.”  

(c) al-bint-u tilmiīða-t-u-n  
    the-girl-NOM student-fem-NOM-Nun  
    “The girl is a student.”  

(d) al-banaat-u tilmiīðaa-t-u-n  
    the-girls-NOM student-pl-fem-NOM-Nun  
    “The girls are students.”  

(e) al-walad-u ḥākiyy-u-n  
    the-boy-NOM smart-NOM-Nun  
    “The boy is smart.”  

(f) alʔawaład-u ḥākiyyaʔ-u-n  
    the-boys-NOM student-pl-NOM-Nun  
    “The boys are smart.”  

(g) al-bint-u ḥākiyya-t-u-n  
    the-girl-NOM smart-fem-NOM-Nun  
    “The girl is smart.”  

(h) al-banaat-u ḥākiyyaʔa-t-u-n  
    the-girls-NOM smart-pl-fem-NOM-Nun  
    “The girls are smart.”
As previously noted, there is no verbal element at all in these sentences, with each consisting of
two core constituents, viz., the subject and the predicate The temporal interpretation encoded in
the verbless construction illustrated above is the present tense, hence the instantiation of T head
which projects a TP.

Although, unlike SA, Japanese has no Ω-features, the presence of T and the facts of
agreement between the subject and the complement in nominative Case vi bear a prima facia
resemblance to the Japanese data, and seem to argue in favour of MAH with a single T probing
and agreeing with two goals. For example, a possible structure for the verbless copular sentence
(7a) would be as in (8), essentially an SC structure where T selects a DP complement whose
specifier is occupied by the initial DP. vii Since this is only a tentative diagram, I return to a
revised structural analysis of verbless copular sentences in section 4.2 below. Under Multiple
Agree, T multiply agrees with, and values the Case on, the two goals accessible to it. Multiple
Agree is indicated by the Agree arrows.

(8)

According to MAH, after T locates the first viii goal, it continues searching for the second
goal within its c-command domain and agrees with both the subject al-walad-u and the predicate
tilmiið-u-n valuing their nominative Case. However, this assumption is problematic in a number
of respects which should become apparent in the following discussion.

3.1. Evidence from Verbal Copular Clauses

The first serious challenge for MAH comes from data containing an overt copula verb. In
the following examples, there is a verbal copula in the past tense kaana ‘was’ (a & c) and future
sayakuunu ‘will be’ (b & d), joining the subject and the non-verbal predicate:

(9)
(a) kaana al-rajul-u muhandis-a-n
    was the-man-NOM engineer-ACC-Nun
  “The man was an engineer.
(b) sa-yakuunu al-rajul-u muhandis -a-n
    will.be the-boy-NOM engineer-ACC-Nun
  “The boy will be a student.”
(c) kaana al-rajul-u tawiil-a-n
    was the-man-NOM tall-ACC-Nun
  “The man was tall.”
(d) sa-yakuunu al-walad-u tawiil-a-n
    will-be the-boy-NOM tall-ACC-Nun
  “The boy will be tall.”
Comparing these examples with the examples of verbless copular clauses, note the change in the Case of the predicate DP *muhandis-a-n* ‘an engineer’ and the predicate AP *tawiil-a-n* ‘tall’ from nominative to accusative. Note also the mismatch in the Case feature between the subject DP and the predicate, the former being nominative while the latter being accusative. The head T position in the copular-containing examples above is occupied by past tense *kaana* and by the future tense *sayakuunu*. The structural analysis of verbal copulas will be provided and discussed in section (4.1).

If MAH is on the right track, the subject and the predicate should realize the same nominative Case since the hypothesis allows an active T to probe two matching goals. This is an incorrect prediction as evidenced by the ungrammaticality of the following sentences:

(10)
(a) *kaana al-rajul-u muhandis-u-n*
was the-man-NOM engineer-NOM-Nun
“The man was an engineer.”

(b) *sa-yakuunu al-rajul-u muhandis-u-n*
will-be the-man-NOM engineer-NOM-Nun
“The man will be an engineer.”

(c) *kaana al-rajul-u tawiil-u-n*
was the-man-NOM tall-NOM-Nun
“The man was tall.”

(d) *sa-yakuunu al-walad-u tawiil-u-n*
will-be the-boy-NOM tall-NOM-Nun
“The boy will be tall.”

The next section will attempt to provide further evidence against the Multiple Agree model by considering verbless copular constructions initiated by a complementizer.

3.2. Evidence from Root Verbless Copular Clauses with a Matrix C

Another argument against MAH comes from a copular construction introduced by a main C *?inna* that serves to mark declarative force and finiteness (Rizzi, 1997; Radford, 2006): ‘C’ in the gloss for the following examples is an abbreviation for complementizer.

(11)
(a) *?inna al-bayt-a kabiir-un*
C the-house-ACC student-NOM
“The house is big.”

(b) *?inna al-bayta-a kabiir-an*
C the-house-ACC big-ACC
“The house is big.”
It is clear from the Case morphology that the subject does not receive the same Case value as the predicate. Under MAH, the C ِّيَّـِّ~
In short, then, the evidence presented in this section based on root copular clauses introduced by a C, verbal copular clauses and negative copular clauses argues in favour of matching two different goals with two different heads for Agree purposes. MAH, the notion that a single T can simultaneously probe and multiply value nominative Case on more than one nominal goal, does not seem to be applicable. The following section is devoted to an analysis in terms of standard Agree of the constructions discussed above.

4. Agree: One Probe per Goal

Chomsky (2000, 2001) proposed the operation ‘Agree’ as a means to value and consequently eliminate uninterpretable features, such as agreement (person, number and gender, also called φ-features). Agree establishes a relationship between an active probe (with uninterpretable φ-features of person, gender and number) and a goal with interpretable matching features in the c-command domain of the probe. As a result, the uninterpretable φ-features of the probe are valued by the matching interpretable features of the goal.

Following Chomsky’s (2000) Agree theory, I assume that Case features on nominals and φ-features on T/C in SA are uninterpretable features that acquire their value in the derivation. In the next sections, I provide explicit structural representations for the clauses discussed above, and argue for a unified account of their Case properties in terms of the usual one-probe-per-goal Agree process.

4.1. Verbal Copular Clauses

Recall from the discussion above of the overt copular construction that while the subject realizes nominative Case, the predicate realizes accusative Case. Given the presence of a verbal copular form, it is plausible to posit a structure that includes a vP complement selected by T. Accordingly, T values the nominative Case of the subject and v values the accusative Case of the predicate in line with the one-probe-per-goal Agree theory. Thus, the sentences in (12) repeated below receive the structure illustrated in (15):

(14)
(a) kaana al-rajul-u muhandis-a-n
   was the-man-NOM engineer-ACC-Nun
   “The man was an engineer.
(b) kaana al-rajul-u tawiil-a-n
   was the-man-NOM tall-ACC-Nun
   “The man was tall.”
As indicated by the arrows, Agree with the T probe results in nominative Case valued on the goal subject DP, whereas Agree with v* results in accusative Case valued on the goal predicate DP or AP. Once the Case on the predicate is valued accusative by v*, and consequently is inactivated for further Agree with the T kaana, it cannot subsequently receive a nominative Case value from T as we saw from the ungrammaticality of:

(16)

*kaana al-rajul-u muhandis-a-n
was the-man-NOM engineer-ACC-Nun
“The man was an engineer.

Thus, as argued above, Case in SA, in contrast with Japanese, cannot be valued under Agree with a single goal contra MAH.

The structure claims that T does not project a specifier and that the subject DP alrajulu originates internally within v*P as an argument and remains in situ.\textsuperscript{xii} That is to say, T in SA carries no Edge Feature (EF) and therefore does not project a structural specifier. As a result of T lacking a movement-triggering EF, the subject remains in the specifier of v*P with its Case valued through Agree with T now occupied by kaana.

Another key assumption made in the above structure is that the copular form kwn “BE” in its consonantal root shape moves from its original position under V to T through the intermediate step of moving to the light v.\textsuperscript{xiii} This is a plausible assumption given that SA is a verb raising language, an operation which derives the unmarked verb-initial order in the language. In this connection the verbal copular behaves like a main verb in undergoing verb-raising to T from a lower V position in the clause.

In the following structure for SA verbal copulas, interpretable φ-features of person and gender on the subject DP and the predicate DP/AP are shown in bold and uninterpretable features of Case on subject and predicate together with uninterpretable φ-features on T and v are shown in italics. Note that T lacks EF, hence there is no specifier projection, and the subject remains in its thematic position internal to v*P:
(17) SA: T lacks EF; DP₁ ‘subject’ remains in situ.

\[
\text{TP} \\
\text{T} \\
\text{[Past Tns]} \\
\text{[u-features]} \\
\text{[v-features]} \\
\text{[u Case]} \\
\text{DP₁} \\
\text{v*} \\
\text{VP} \\
\text{V} \\
\text{DP/AP} \\
\text{[u-features]} \\
\text{[u Case]}
\]

In contrast to the structure above for SA, the following structure illustrates the addition of the EF on T generally assumed for English, hence the TP projection. It is this EF feature on T that triggers the internal merge (displacement) of the goal subject to the T specifier as a way of valuing the EF feature on T:

(18) English: T carries EF; movement of DP₁ to Spec T is obligatory.

\[
\text{TP} \\
\text{T'} \\
\text{[Tense]} \\
\text{[u-features]} \\
\text{[EF]} \\
\text{[u Case]} \\
\text{DP₁} \\
\text{v*} \\
\text{VP} \\
\text{V} \\
\text{DP₂} \\
\text{[u-features]} \\
\text{[u Case]}
\]

The crucial feature responsible for the contrast between the structures in (17) and (18) is the EF feature (Extended Projection Principle EPP feature). EF is a property of T which, when missing from T, the subject remains in situ. Conversely, when EF is present on T subject raising to Spec T is obligatory.

4.2. Verbless Predicative Copular Clauses Are NomP Projections

For the verbless predicative copular clauses introduced in section 3, I adopt a derivation where both the subject DP and the predicate are generated in a predicational Nominal Phrase (NomP) following Alazzawie (2016). This predicational relationship is mediated by the
functional head Nom occupied by the pronominal clitic –n. For instance, sentence (19) would have the structure schematized in (20): (This example and its structure in (20) below are taken from Alazzawie, 2016: P. 158)

(19) al-walad-u tilmiið-u-n
the-boy-NOM student-NOM-Nun
“The boy is a student.”

(20)

The present tense T serves as a probe and looks for a goal to value its, number and gender features. Since, T c-commands DP₂ al-walad-u, and DP₂ is active on account of its uninterpretable Case, DP₂ can serve as a goal for the probe T. The same pattern of Agree relation holds between the pronominal clitic-containing probe Nom and the lower DP tilmiið-u-n, i.e., DP₁. DP₁ is probed by Nom, which has unvalued agreement features, values its agreement features with DP₁ and deletes the unvalued Case feature of DP₁; (the DP has unvalued Case features qualifying it to serve as a goal). The unvalued ø-features on the probes are assigned the same 3rd person singular values as those on the goals through Agree. The unvalued Case features on the probes are assigned a nominative value and consequently delete. The mechanism is the same via Agree where two heads value each goal independently. The presence of DP₂, the intervening active goal al-walad-u, blocks the possibility of multiple Agree, and therefore multiple Agree for SA is rejected on the grounds of empirical evidence. This proposal has the advantage of unifying copular sentences with a matrix C under the same analysis (see section 3.3 below).

Given the assumption made earlier that T has no EF feature triggering raising of the subject to the specifier of T, DP₂ remains within NomP.

4.3. Root Verbless Copular Clauses with a Matrix C—the Case of ?inna
Now let us turn to sentences featuring the root C ?inna, such as (21). See also (11) above:

(21) ?inna al-mar?at-a tabiid-at-un/dakiyy-at-u-n
C the-woman-ACC doctor-fem-NOM-fem-nom-nun
“The woman is a doctor/intelligent.”
The author assumes a left-dislocation analysis along the lines of Edwards (2006) and Adger and Ramchand (2003). Presenting arguments in support of a base-generation analysis will take us too far afield. The issue is discussed and defended in Soltan (2007) in the context of subject-verb word order in the language. Verbless sentences also display properties typically associated with left-dislocation such as resumptives and co-reference dependency into islands. I, therefore, adopt a base-generation analysis rather than displacement. More specifically, the sentence has the structure represented below (adapted from Alazzawie, 2016, p. 158):

\[
(22)
\]

The structure incorporates a number of assumptions related to the position of DP₃, DP₂, the nature of the relationship between the two DPs, and the nature of the constituent labelled NomP. A detailed exploration of these issues obviously lies beyond the scope of this paper. For the present, a brief note on their properties is in order, after which feature valuation via Agree will be discussed shortly in this section.

The proposed analysis treats DP₃ \textit{al-mar}{\textsuperscript{ʔ}at-a} as a discourse topic externally merged (base-generated) in the TP specifier position, rather than a subject. Note that DP₃ follows the C \textit{ʔinna}, it cannot precede it:

\[
(23) \quad \text{*al-mar}{\textsuperscript{ʔ}at-a \textit{ʔinna tabi}{\textsuperscript{ʔ}id-at-un}
\]

Since the accusative DP₃ appears after C, it is reasonable to assume that it is generated at the edge or periphery of the TP complement. Suppose it is generated via the operation of External Merge (base-generated) in the ‘surface subject’ position in Spec T, and suppose that a pronominal subject pro, in co-reference relation with DP₃, is generated in Spec NomP, the thematic domain of the predicate.

The actual subject is the null pro under DP₂ in the specifier of NomP with which DP₃ is co-referential. NomP, equivalent to PredP in other analyses (Bowers, 2001, Adger and Ramchand, 2003 and Ohalla, 2005), constitutes a complete predication (subject-predicate relationship). Evidence that pro is indeed the subject comes from clitic left-dislocation in the language (Soltan, 2007), that is, sentences in which the null pro receives phonetic spell out, for instance, within PPs:
A resumptive pronoun obligatorily surfaces suffixed to the preposition in (b). This resumptive is taken to licence a null argument related to DP\textsubscript{3} al-mar\textquestionmark at-a in structure (22) above. Under this analysis, DP\textsubscript{3} is base-generated as a left-dislocated/topicalized DP in the specifier of TP, with the postverbal null pro argument in the specifier of NomP.

The unvalued Case feature on the goal DP\textsubscript{3} is valued as accusative through Agree with the C probe ?inna, valuing in the process the probe’s abstract \(\alpha\)-features. Agreement between ?inna and DP\textsubscript{3} is invisible in the sense that it has no overt phonetic shape, but becomes visible through pronominal cliticization as ?inna-hu 3\textsuperscript{rd} person masculine singular. The unvalued Case feature of the predicate DP\textsubscript{1}/AP is also valued through Agree with Nom which hosts the pronominal clitic –\textit{n} [Nunation, SA Tanween], valuing the latter’s \(\alpha\)-features. Adopting a proposal by Chomsky (2001) that PRO receives null Case by Agree with a non-finite c-commanding T, I would like to suggest that the unvalued Case feature of the null subject pro is also valued nominative by Agree with the probe T, conversely valuing T’s \(\alpha\)-features as well. Recall that a present tense interpretation is encoded in this construction (it is interpreted as describing a present state of affairs) which points to a TP projection.

It should be clear that the data are completely at odds with Multiple Agree as neither ?inna nor T can agree with the complement, the reason being that the complement had its Case feature already valued nominative by Agree with Nom inside the NomP projection and thus has become inactive or invisible for Agree with higher probes. Rather, contrary to MAH, Agree between ?inna and only DP\textsubscript{3} must take place in the standard fashion (one probe per goal) as evidenced in the morphologically overt Case mismatch between DP\textsubscript{3} and the predicate DP\textsubscript{1}/AP.

A further operation triggered by the affixal nature of Nom raises the head of the predicate, left-adjoining it to Nom to support the suffix –\textit{n}.

In the following section, I hope to further refute Multiple Agree by drawing on data from negated copular clauses that are inconsistent with the prediction of the Multiple Agree hypothesis.

4.4. Neg-containing Copular Clauses – the Negative copula Laysa

It has been observed (Wright, 1898; and Ouhalla, 1993) that l\(\text{aysa}\) is in fact a fusional morpheme, consisting of the negative element \(l\text{a}\) and a copula a\(\text{ys}\) in the present tense. Therefore, l\(\text{aysa}\) in these clauses is not only a negative marker but also includes a copular modal. Given this blended morphological structure, a plausible analysis of the l\(\text{aysa}\)-containing sentence...
in SA would be to suppose that *la* originates as the head Neg of NegP (Negative Phrase),\(^\text{xix}\) while the *ays* portion originates in T.

The assumption made here is that NegP in SA dominates TP which includes a NomP structure (but see Benmamoun, 2000 for a different proposal for negation in Moroccan Arabic; see also note 10 for a light v proposal). This is shown in (25):

(25)

As in the copular clauses discussed above, T selects NomP. As suggested before, there is a probe-goal agreement relation between Nom and the predicate resulting in mutual feature valuation in the regular fashion. There is also the regular probe-goal agreement relation between T and the “subject” DP\(_2\), resulting in mutual feature valuation. I assume that the negative element *la* is inert in the sense that it has no uninterpretable \(\diamond\)-features to be valued, and therefore remains inactive, not being able to serve as a probe.

The rest of the derivation is presumably handled in the morpho-phonological component. For example, recall from the previous discussion that the predicate head undergoes movement to Nom as a consequence of the affixal property of Nom. Given the affixal property of the copular element *ays*, it also undergoes movement to the Neg position occupied by *la*, forming the complex [Neg+T], hence being spelled out as *laysa*. The assumption made here is that although *la* is inactive for Agree, it is a strong head and, therefore, can attract (i.e., it can trigger the movement of *ays* to attach to it).\(^\text{xx}\)

Once again, an Agree relation is permissible between the T probe *ays* and the active goal DP\(_2\) *al-rajul-u* (with an unvalued Case feature) but the same Agree relation is not permissible between the same T probe and the nominal goal *muzaarîcan/tawiîlan* which has already valued its Case feature through Agree with another matching probe, namely, Nom.

In conclusion, the data presented constitute convincing evidence against Multiple Agree, and in favour of the regular mechanism of Agree within the local search domain of the probe. In the following example, *laysa* must agree fully with the thematic subject *pro*, and hence *pro* is spelled out as 3rd person masculine plural –*uu*.
Against Multiple Agreement – Evidence from Standard Arabic

(26)
(a) al-mu’callim-un lays-u fi-l-madras-at-i
   the-teachers-NOM not-3p in-the-school-fem-GEN
   “The teachers are not at school.”

(b) *al-mu’callim-un laysa fi-l-madras-at-i

The Case of the DP *al-mu’callim-un here is valued under the same probe-goal Agree relation with the null C being the probe.

To summarize, the notion of Multiple Agree might at first seem applicable to SA, however further investigation of data drawn from (verbal) copulas reveal serious complications for this notion on account of Case feature mismatch. In each example, it is only the higher DP, the “subject”, which agrees with C, T, and Neg, not the complement; in fact the complement must not agree in Case with the higher DP in direct conflict with the claim of multiple agreement.

Under the NomP proposal laid out above, there are two different probes C and Nom establishing Agree relation with the topic and the predicate DPs respectively, with the result of nominative and accusative valuation of the respective DPs. For the probe T occupied by kaana (a) or by laysa (b), and for the probe C occupied by ’inna in (c), to hold an Agree relation with a given goal, such as the predicate nominal, no other potential goal, such as the subject DP, should intervene. The presence of an intervening goal induces what is referred to as Defective Intervention (DI) effects (Chomsky ibid), resulting in ungrammatical sentence:

(27)
(a) *kaana al-walad-u tilmiið-u-n/ðakiyy-u-n
   the-boy-NOM student-NOM-Nun/smart-NOM-Nun
   “The boy was a student/smart.”

(b) *laysa al-rajul-u muzaarîç-u-n/tawiil-u-n
   not the-man-NOM farmer-NOM-Nun/tall-NOM-Nun
   “The man is not a farmer/tall.”

(c) *’inna al-walad-a tilmiið-an/ðakiyy-a-n
   that the-boy-ACC student-ACC/smart-ACC-Nun
   “The boy is a student/smart.”

The predicative goal is inactive for Agree with the probes and the Agree relation fails. As noted above, the probes kaana, laysa and ’inna cannot attempt to probe down in the structure to find another goal. As a result, the derivation crashes.

5. Conclusion

On the basis of the Case properties of nominals within verbless copular constructions in SA, the author rejects an analysis in terms of Multiple Agree proposed by others for Japanese and English. As shown, these Case properties are incompatible with an analysis of the
construction that assumes the Case value to be a reflex of multiple Agree. Rather, the properties can be handled in a principled way in terms of the regular Agree theory whereby an active probe agrees with one active goal in its c-command domain.

While the argument against MAH is restricted to SA copular structures dealt with in this paper, a stronger claim can be made against MAH in syntactic analysis in general. The latter is a viable claim. Future work will revisit all the constructions cited in this paper that have been analyzed in terms of MAH and show how a one-probe-per-goal analysis is able to account for such facts.

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References
Against Multiple Agreement – Evidence from Standard Arabic


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i See Chomsky (2001) for the idea that expletive there carries uninterpretable Case feature.

ii The following abbreviations are used: NOM: Nominative, ACC: Accusative, DAT: Dative, Nun: Nunation, C: Complementizer, NomP: Nominal Phrase, T: Tense, P: Person, F: Feminine, S: Singular.

iii I would like to thank Dr. Yumi Alabadi for her help with the Japanese examples (b-d).

iv To my knowledge, an analysis of such SA sentences in terms of MAH has not been proposed. I have, therefore, chosen a hypothetical MAH-based analysis of such sentences and have proceeded to criticize such an analysis. This might be seen as a key weakness of the current work.
The term subject is used here in the sense of a discourse topic rather than an actual subject. The initial DP is functionally a topic, and the construction is known in SA Grammar as Topic-Comment (Plunkett 1993; Fassi Fehri 1993).

Several researchers (Mohammad, 2000; Ouhalla, 1994 and Soltan, 2007), essentially dealing with SVO type sentences, have proposed a default Nominative Case for preverbal DPs. To account for the Case properties of predicate copular clauses with no overt verb, the standard Agree operation, rather than default Case, will be adopted.

Benmamoun (2008) also assumes that copular clauses lack a VP structure dominating NP/AP/PP.

“First goal” or second goal has no theoretical bearing as linear order is irrelevant to Agree. Given the structure in (8), both DP and NP have the same hierarchical status, which is what really matters here.

This might be considered an unfair argument because once the structure includes an overt verbal copular, we should expect morpho-syntactic consequences such as different Case-marking.

An anonymous AWEJ reviewer suggested an alternative proposal according to which the accusative Case on the nominal predicate is assigned by the head v (the light v). The proposal is supported by an authoritative body of Arabic grammatical tradition which treats laysa as a verb-like particle and groups it with kaana under the heading "kaana wa a’khawaatihaa “the kaana class”.

This is in essence, the VP-Internal Subject Hypothesis adopted by a number of researchers (Koopman and Sportiche, 1991; Kitagawa, 1986; Kuroda, 1988).

This two-step local head movement operation is dictated by the affixal nature of the relevant heads and by the Head Movement Constrain of Travis (1984).

An empirical fact that the proposed analysis does not address has to do with adjective agreement. As it stands now, the analysis does not make it clear how adjectival predicates show the same phi-features as the subject DP.

An alternative analysis is to adopt the CP Split Hypothesis (Rizzi, 1997) which suggests that CP can be split into distinct projections, including a Force Phrase, Focus Phrase, Topic Phrase and Finiteness Phrase. Under this hypothesis, ʔinna would be merged in the Force head position with DP3 merged in the specifier of Topic Phrase. This proposal will not be pursued here, however.

For full details on NomP, see Alazzawie (2016).

The view that resumptives license a null argument referred to in the literature as little pro has been advanced by many researchers; see for example Soltan (2007) for arguments that subject and object left-dislocation force the overt realization of resumptives and null pro.

The NegP analysis dates back to Pollock (1989) where a null Neg head was posited for English with not acting as the specifier of NegP, which has become the standard analysis of negation. For the analysis of negation in SA, see Benmamoun (2000), Ouhalla (1993), and Soltan (2007).

The Ideology of the-Best-English-Teaching-Method in Taiwan’s Children English Language Schools

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Abstract
Taiwanese people’s motivation to learn English is a desire to communicate: a major obstacle to the mastery of spoken English has been the lack of opportunities to speak it. The traditional English teaching method cannot produce fluent English speakers. English teaching methodologies, such as English-only and Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), have been widely adopted as practical and the best way to acquire English speaking proficiency in children English language schools, to the point where they are taken for granted by many Taiwanese people. The central argument of this study is that the evaluation of the so-called the-best-English-teaching-method in children English language schools and as common practice in Taiwanese society is ideological. To explore the ideological concept of the-best-English-teaching-method used in children English language schools, Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA) was employed to analyze data drawn from children English language schools’ promotional materials or advertisements. The results indicate the promotion of the-best-English-teaching-method by children English language schools has resulted in social injustice, such as native speaker ideology, native and non-native division, white and non-white division, and English proficiency gap in the rich and the poor and urban and rural areas. It is hoped that the results of this study can enable Taiwanese people to escape the ideologies which have been taken for granted for so long.

Keywords: Critical Discourses Analysis (CDA), ideology, the-best-English-teaching-method

Introduction

In Taiwan, English is seen as the most useful and powerful language for international communication. As far as English teaching and learning is concerned, the main shifts in English teaching methodologies are the focus on communication and how English is used in real life situations. The acquisition of oral proficiency has become the first goal in English learning in Taiwan in the context of globalization (Chang, 2004). The traditional styles of teaching English, either a grammar-translation-method or rote memorization, are absolutely teacher-centered methods, so the learners are spoon-fed and passive. Consequently, the traditional English teaching methods cannot produce fluent English speakers. As a result, Taiwanese people seek help from English language schools to improve their English speaking proficiency (Wu, 2014). English language schools refer to schools that offer general English courses for different groups (pre-school children, elementary, secondary and tertiary students, and adults) and whose purposes are not geared towards academic tests. This study focuses on English language schools for children.

The methods employed in children English language schools emphasize active participation in the learning process; they include a variety of teaching aids and materials, handouts, activities, games and computers to assist learners in enhancing their English speaking proficiency. Moreover, the use of native English speaking teachers and small class sizes are other factors contributing to the success of children English language schools. Learners learn to use the language as a tool of communication rather than viewing it as one more subject to be memorized and regurgitated. English teaching methodologies, such as CLT Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), the Direct Method, Total Physical Response(TPR), the Natural approach, and English-only immersion have been widely adopted as practical and the best ways to acquire English speaking proficiency in children English language schools; they have been taken for granted by many Taiwanese people since the 1990s (Chang, 2004). Fairclough (1989) argues that people are not aware that their “every day practices” constitute “ideological power” (p.33). In other words, the notion of ‘best’ English teaching method needs to be re-examined. Ideologies of English teaching and learning have been given little attention and have not yet been documented in Taiwan (Chang, 2016, Lu, 2011). The central argument of this study is that the promulgation of the so-called the-best-English-teaching-methods in children English language schools which have been taken for granted as common practices in Taiwanese society is ideological. Moreover, this ideology has resulted in social injustice in contemporary Taiwanese society.

To explore the ideological concept of the-best-English-teaching-method used in children English language schools, Critical Discourse Analysis (henceforth CDA) was employed to analyze data drawn from children English language schools’ promotional materials/advertisements. The purpose of this study was not to attack teaching methods used in children English language schools, but to raise Taiwanese people’s awareness of the ideology the-best-teaching-English-method. The following are the research questions.

1. What English teaching methods, which are viewed as the most appropriate by children English language schools, are being advocated?
2. How has the-best-English-teaching-method resulted in social injustice in contemporary Taiwanese society?

Literature Review
Sheen (2002) points out that two extremes of language teaching methods have been encapsulated in the terms ‘focus-on-form’ and ‘focus-on-forms’ by Long in 1988 and 1990. According to Sheen (2002, p. 303), the focus-on-form approach is based on “the similarity between first and second language acquisition”; all classroom activities need to be based on communicative tasks. The focus-on-forms approach, on the other hand, “is based on the assumption that foreign or second language learning derives from general cognitive processes”. The traditional teaching of discrete grammatical points is employed in this approach. Sheen (2003) points out that examples of the focus-on-form approach are: the Direct Method, the Natural method, Audiolingualism, CLT, and so on. An example of focus-on-forms is the Grammar-translation method. All methods used in children English language schools in Taiwan belong to the focus-on-form approach (Chang, 2004). McKay (2003) argues that there is a tendency for English language teaching methodology to rely on a native speaker model. As mentioned earlier in Introduction, one very important factor of the success of children English language schools is the use of native English speaking teachers. Therefore, two popular teaching methodologies: English-only immersion and CLT, the premises of which are based on a native speaker model, are investigated in the following section.

**English-only Immersion Method**

Immersion language programs have grown in popularity since their origins in the mid-1960s in Canada in which French is used as a second language teaching method for English-speaking children living in Quebec (Sievert, 2007; Walker & Tedick, 2000). The concept of language immersion is well accepted and encouraged by many researchers (Chuang, 2007; Finnamore, 2006; Genesee & Cloud, 1998; McCarty, 1993; Swain & Johnson, 1997; Tedick, Christian, & Fortune, 2011). The advocates of the immersion method argue that there is extensive and widely accepted research supporting bilingual education for children (cf. Chuang, 2007; Tedick at al., 2011).

The English-only immersion method is derived from the Natural or Direct method (Auerbach, 1993; Howatt, 1984). According to *Encyclopedia of Bilingualism and Bilingual Education* (Colin & Jones, 1998, p. 671 & p. 692), the principles of the Natural or Direct method are as follows. First language and second language skills are acquired in the same way. Only the target language is used, and no translations are offered. Native speaker or native-like fluency is required. Teachers speak only the target language in class and the method focuses on speaking and listening rather than reading and writing. English language schools tend to be more successful in applying the Natural or Direct Method because of learners’ high level of motivation; native speakers were always employed. It is not surprising that many children English language schools in Taiwan publicize English-only immersion instruction as the best teaching method; it has become a very powerful marketing tool.

Phillipson (1992, p.185) argues that “English is best taught monolingually” (one of five basic tenets in the Makerere Report by the British Council in 1961); this is an ideology in English language teaching (ELT). It implies that native speakers of English are considered as the ideal teachers since English should be taught monolingually, a belief that has been taken for granted as a fundamental principle of ELT in the world. Auerbach (1993) argues that English-only instruction in ESL countries has been regarded as “a ‘natural’ and ‘common sense practice’ which is rooted in a particular ideological perspective that serves to reinforce inequities in the broader social order”
The Ideology of the Best-English-Teaching-Method

Chang

( p.9). Many researchers (Auerbach, 1993; Cummins, 1986; Huang, 2009; Lee, 2010; Lotherington, 1996; Lucas & Katz, 1994; Morrison & Lui, 2000; Phillipson, 1992; Wei, 2013; Wiley & Lukes, 1996) argue that a monolingual approach to teaching English is ideological. However, in reality English-only immersion teaching is the most popular teaching method for children in English language schools in Taiwan (Chang, 2004). This method reinforces the ideology of native speakers of English as ideal English teachers. Whether or not English is the only means of communication in an English as foreign language (EFL) classroom, English educators need to consider social and cultural factors, as well as students’ motivation, goals, and proficiency.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT)

CLT has remained an influential approach since it was implemented in the 1970s. In particular, the introduction of CLT into EFL countries has provoked a great deal of debate globally, concerning the appropriateness of CLT.

Many researchers (Breen, 1985; Breen & Candlin, 2001; Brown, 1994; Harmer, 2003; Long, 1991; Richards & Rodgers, 1985; Savignon, 2003, 2007), particularly in ESL countries, argue that CLT is rightly the dominant method in ELT. As a result, CLT has been largely promoted by both private English language schools and governments in ESL and EFL countries. Taiwan is no exception (Chang, 2004; Liao, 2007). CLT has been promoted by Taiwan’s government since the 1996's Nine-year Comprehensive Curriculum. The Ministry of Education (MOE) has issued English curriculum standards for primary and secondary school English education, which includes giving students communication skills (Taiwan Elementary and Secondary Educator community, 2014). However, the widespread acceptance of CLT has been challenged in EFL countries. In Taiwan, the appropriateness of CLT has also been challenged. Several studies during the last decade (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Fong, 2016; Huang, 2016; Hung, 2016; Kung, 2009; Tsai & Lee, 2007; Yang, Y. C., 2009) on the difficulties in implementing CLT in tertiary, secondary and primary schools have been conducted in Taiwan. Several findings can be drawn from these studies. Based on these studies, the challenges are derived from: (1) teachers unfamiliar with CLT and inadequate teacher training (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Huang, 2016; Tsai & Lee 2007), (2) students’ resistance to class participation, low English proficiency and mixed English ability (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Fong, 2016; Huang, 2016; Tsai & Lee, 2007 ), (3) the educational system’s test-oriented teaching method, large class size, insufficient resources, passing grammar-based examinations and limited teaching hours (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Fong, 2016; Hung, 2016; Kung, 2009; Tsai & Lee, 2007; Yang, Y. C., 2009), and (4) CLT proving ineffective in an EFL setting, lack of English environment and lack of efficient assessment instruments (Chang & Goswami, 2011; Tsai & Lee, 2007). These study results have yielded valuable insights into factors hindering the implementation of CLT in the Taiwanese educational system. CLT does not provide a solution to English teaching problems in Taiwan.

While CLT is employed in children English language schools, research in relation to CLT in English language schools is scant. Only one study regarding CLT implementation in children English language schools in Taiwan was found. The main finding of Yu’s study (2009) was that even though students (7 Taiwanese children) learned English from native English speaking teachers and the school imposed an English-only policy in the classroom, what they learned cannot
be put into practice in real life situations in Taiwan, because English is not used in Taiwan’s daily life and the content of teaching materials were based on English speaking countries.

In other words, children English language schools do not present a solution to English proficiency since English is not used in Taiwanese people’s daily life. English language schools claim to have the best-English-teaching-method, but it cannot solve the problem of Taiwanese people’s poor speaking proficiency (Wu, 2014) because comparisons reveal that Taiwanese people’s English ability is falling behind most of their counterparts in EFL countries in Asia, which is an alarming phenomenon (Chang, 2017; Crawford & Chang, 2011). In other words, the chosen teaching method is not the decisive factor. While the so-called the-best-English-teaching-method in English language schools is ideological, no other work explores how this has resulted in social injustice. Therefore, it is hoped that the results of this study will raise Taiwanese people’s awareness in relation to pedagogical issues that arise from the perspective of the-best-English-teaching-method in children English language schools.

Methodology

Critical Discourse Analysis (CDA)

CDA considers “the social, cultural, economic and political ways in which people are inequitably positioned” and “how the production and reception of texts is ideologically shaped by relations of power” (Pennycook, 1997, p. 23 & p. 28). Clearly, CDA concerns with the relation with texts, inequality, ideology, and power with a society. Analysis in the field of CDA often focus on media texts, such as advertising, newspaper reporting, television commercials, internet and so on. Wallace (1995) argues that “Even when we look referentially at the content of the text itself, what is omitted is, arguably, ideologically significant, even in apparently uncontroversial texts” (p.339). In other words, children English language school promotional materials may, at first cursory examination, seem mundane and ideologically naïve, but which in fact convey ideological concept.

To investigate how the ideology of the-best-English-teaching-method in English learning is manifested in children English language school promotional materials, and how this ideology has resulted in social inequality in Taiwan. Fairclough’s (1992) conception of a three-dimensional discourse model (see Figure 1), the most well-known CDA theoretical framework, was employed in this study.

![Figure 1. Three-dimensional Conception of Discourse (reproduced from Fairclough, 1992, p.73)](image-url)
How this model can be employed in children English language school promotional materials will be demonstrated in the data analysis.

Data Collection
Forty school fliers were collected in four cities (Pingtung, Kaohsiung, Tainan and Chiayi) in Southern Taiwan by visiting these locations in August and September in 2016. A total of 56 websites was collected and downloaded through www.yahoo.com and www.google.com in 2017. Fifty six commercials (from 1998 – 2017) are from 11 different children English language schools were broadcast on leading television stations and were downloaded from their schools’ websites in 2017.

Table 1
Background Information of the Data

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Promotional materials</th>
<th>Coding</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>School fliers</td>
<td>40 (LF1-40)</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School websites</td>
<td>56 (LW1-56)</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School Television Commercials</td>
<td>56 (TC1-56)</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Analysis
In this study, school address, school names, phone numbers, email addresses, and contact people are excluded and the symbol “XXX” is placed to protect their identities. Translation of Mandarin Chinese data into English is underlined. LF23 and LF24 serve as examples of how Fairclough’s three-dimensional discourse model was used to realize the concept of the-best-English-teaching-method method.

First dimension – text analysis (description). The first dimension ‘text’, refers to children English language school promotional materials (both written and multi-modal texts). As far as written texts are concerned, the heading of LF23 indicates six different teaching methods in Mandarin Chinese, 母語教學法mother tongue teaching method, 環境教學法environment method, 遊戲教學法playing game method, TPR (Total Physical Response) 教學法, 自然拼音教學法phonic method, and 螺旋式教學法spinal teaching method were used in the school. These six methods were categorized as English-only methods, since the photos depict the methods being employed by native speakers.

The Mandarin Chinese slogan in LF24 - 全外師教學生動活潑化學習All foreign teachers teaching method, learning English in a lively and active manner and 全美語教學in the body text All American English teaching method, do not specifically indicate exactly what kind of teaching methods (such as CLT or Direct Method or TPR) are used. Clearly, 全美語教學All American English teaching method indicates that it is an English-only method.

As far as images are concerned, a photo or a picture or a shot in the language school promotional materials is deemed to contain the concept of the-best-English-teaching-method if it
shows teachers conducting teaching activities or tasks either in the classroom or outdoors. Two categories, English-only teaching method and Others are used in the images analyzed this study. The English-only immersion teaching category counts individuals depicted in photos, revealing that only foreign teachers conduct the teaching activities. The Others category includes a native and non-native co-teaching system and/or only non-native speakers teaching. Five photos in LF23 and three photos in LF24 are categorized as the English-only method and no photos in Others category were found.

Second dimension – processing analysis (interpretation). The second dimension analysis focuses on what children English language schools’ objectives of producing the text are and how the text is interpreted. The analysis of written texts and photos of LF23 and LF24 demonstrate that English-only immersion by native English speaking teachers as the most popular method is promoted by children English language schools. Clearly, the purpose of the children English language schools is to sell their product “English”.

Third dimension – social analysis (explanation). The third dimension is concerned with connections between micro (children English language schools) and macro (Taiwanese society) relations. The presence of written language or photos in FL23 and FL24 intentionally employed by children English language schools to convey the ideological concept English-only-immersion method in teaching children English speaking proficiency in Taiwan. How this ideology has resulted in social inequality in Taiwan will be presented in the Discussion section.

Results

Television Commercials

One of the salient results is that every children English language school uses an English-only immersion teaching method, since only native speakers of English portrays teachers in the commercials. Moreover, there is no Chinese during the teaching and learning process. Nine out of 56 commercials contain Chinese English teachers. However, these Chinese English teachers are portrayed as teacher assistants rather than English teachers, since they are not in charge of teaching during teaching process but teaching assistants.

As far as teaching methods are concerned, the commercials do not specially indicate exactly what kind of teaching methods are used, but all methods used in the commercials belong to the focus-on-form approach. These commercials can be cat put into two main categories: integration of e-teaching methods (13 commercials) or without e-teaching methods (43 commercials).

In integration of e-teaching method commercials present that the classroom is equipped with computers or interactive whiteboard systems. The school English course is taught by native English speaking teachers with a new teaching method which integrates e-teaching method. These commercials promote English learning as a practical skill and assumes that English can be learned through computer technology in a teacher-student interaction method. English instruction here pays attention only to listening and speaking skills. In addition, they emphasize that students should acquire English by Computer-Assisted Language Learning (CALL) practice and mimicry of native speakers of English.
As far as non-integration of e-teaching method is concerned, one of the central themes of all commercials is the repeated assertion that Taiwanese children will acquire English naturally through interesting, lively, interactive methods such as using activities, flashing cards, games, storytelling, and so on by native English speaking teachers.

Moreover, every commercial suggests that English can be learned in a fun and easy way in the school’s playful learning environment or outdoor activities and that this “best method” will achieve extremely positive outcomes. The outcomes include becoming a fluent English speaker (every commercial), promising a future success in business, career, education, both in Taiwan and abroad (12 commercials), providing self-improvement in ability, character, confidence, potential, imagination (9 commercials), and fostering a global perspective (7 commercials). Moreover, native English speaking teachers offer English as the tool to assist Taiwanese language learners to achieve the above mentioned outcomes.

Written Texts in Fliers and Websites

A total of 51 slogans and 156 terms contain the concept of the English-only teaching (Table 2). LW24 an English slogan and LF4 a Chinese slogan are two examples indicating the best-English-teaching-method.

No Chinese, English Only! (LW24)
100% 美式啟發教學 (LF4)
100% American style inspiring teaching method (LF4)

Many slogans and terms in fliers and websites, like television commercials, do not specifically indicate exactly what kind of teaching methods are used. A key finding is that all methods used in the collected data belong to the focus-on-form approach.

“As in other areas of commerce, new methods (and sometimes old methods in new packaging) are marketed under different brand labels” (Canagarajah, 1999, p.104). Methods such as, all foreign teachers, All-in-English, American English teaching method, American Style, English-only, ESL, immersion, mother tongue teaching method, natural, TPR and Western can be viewed as English-only immersion.

The highest frequency of the English-only immersion method demonstrates that it is widely believed that the best teaching method is to teach speaking proficiency. Moreover, since American English is preferred in Taiwan (Chang, 2016), 17 slogans and 51 terms contain two ideological concepts: the-best-English-teaching-method and native speakers with American accent are preferred. Although there is only one school that claims that CLT is used, methods such as cooperative, e-learning, interactive, play and learn, situationial, student-centered, and topic-based belong to CLT since they are some main features of CLT (Jones, 2001). The best method includes the best, correct, the first choice, and No. 1 teaching method. Although they do not indicate specifically what kind of methods are the best, they implicitly indicate that the focus-on-form approach is the best. Methods described as bilingualism, caring, easy, eclectic, energetic, inspiration, interesting, Montessori, and Vygotsky are Other focus-on-form methods; they suggest that the focus-on-form approach is very different from the traditional teacher-centered approach.
The Ideology of the-Best-English-Teaching-Method

Table 2
The-best-English-teaching-method in School Fliers and Websites

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Slogans</th>
<th>Terms</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English-only immersion</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CLT</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Best teaching method</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>156</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Photos

Table 3 indicates that a total of 351 out of 396 photos (88.64%) containing the concept of the English-only method and 45 photos (11.36%) of the Others method were found. The English-only teaching category in the figure counts individuals depicted in photos, revealing that only Caucasians conduct any teaching activities. The Others category includes a native and non-native English speaking teacher co-teaching system (32 photos) and only non-native English speaking teachers teaching (13 photos). There is no CLT found in the still images because the problem with CLT is that the term has always meant a multitude of different things to different people (Harmer, 2003, p. 289). It seems that any teaching activity involving teacher and student interaction can be called communicative, as pointed out by Harmer (2003). Confirming Harmer’s viewpoint, a total of 329 photos (83.08%) are CLT since every photo shows a teacher using a student-centered and interactive teaching method. Most of the English-only immersion methods found in the corpus are arguably CLT.

Table 3
The-best-English-teaching-method in Still Images

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Method</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>English-only immersion</td>
<td>351</td>
<td>88.64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Others</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>11.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Discussion

The results of this study were discussed based on the research questions proposed in the Introduction. The central argument of this session is that the-best-English-teaching-method ideology has resulted in English language teaching and learning injustice.

English Language Teaching Injustice - Teachers

A special focus on TV commercials and photos indicates that English-only immersion and CLT reinforced the ideology of native speakers of English as ideal-English-teacher in teaching English speaking proficiency. Table 3 illustrates that 351 out of 396 teachers are native speakers of English. Clearly, the results of the still images show that native speakers of English are ideal English teachers. As far as a native speaking English teacher and a Chinese English teacher co-teaching system (32 out of 396 photos) is concerned, it demonstrated that native speakers play a more important role in English teaching, since the non-native speakers in these photos are portrayed as assistants rather than teachers, meaning that they are not in charge of teaching. As
Phillipson (1992) suggests, the tenet that the ideal English teacher is the native speaker is a twin to the tenet that English is best taught monolingually. Obviously, the children English language school are marketing native English speakers as ideal-English-teachers. Moreover, a relatively high frequency of American English teaching in written texts demonstrate that American English teachers are preferred. Since, American English equals Standard English in Taiwan (Chang, 2016), American and Canadian teachers who speak English with a North American accent are considered as the ideal English teachers for teaching English proficiency. Clearly, there is a native and non-native dichotomy in ELT in Taiwan. The result indicates that native English speaking teachers with a North American accent are regarded as better English teachers than non-native English speaking teachers in teaching speaking proficiency in children English language schools.

The result not only illustrates that there is a native and non-native dichotomy, but also a white and non-white division in ELT in Taiwan, since only two photos of foreign teachers are non-Caucasians (American-Africans). Moreover, in the 45 photos portraying local English teachers, it is very difficult to identify whether or not they are native speakers of English. The result illustrates that in the lucrative English teaching business in Taiwan, a preference for Caucasian teachers exists. In other words, there are white and non-white native speaking English teacher divisions in ELT in Taiwan. Furthermore, it is ironic that in English language schools in Taiwan that it can sometimes be a disadvantage to be a person of Chinese descent born in any other English speaking country. From legal and immigration standpoints, they are foreigners, because they were born and brought up in an English speaking country. In reality, since they do not look Caucasian, they face discrimination, and experience difficulty in finding work, or in commanding rates of pay equal to that of their Caucasian peers. Native and non-native and white and non-white issues are well documented in Teachers Against Discrimination in Taiwan Organization (Hales, 2013).

There is plenty of evidence in this study that native speakers, particularly Caucasians with a North American accent, have the more prestigious status, and are given preference in employment in children English language schools. It has resulted in inequality among native speakers of English. It has created a division or segregation among professionals in English teaching and learning in Taiwan. Generally speaking, non-native English speaking English teachers have to struggle to achieve what often comes as a birthright to their competitors. In short, this native speaker model ideology has resulted in racial, linguistic and social inequalities among English teachers in teaching children English.

English Language Learning Injustice – Learners

The result indicates that children English language schools promote English teaching as a practical skill, and it suggests that English can be learned easily if the ideal teaching method is used: interactive immersion classroom teaching with an engaging native English speaking teacher with the latest audio-visual computer technology and different types of teaching aids and materials. After school, Taiwanese children can learn English at home via online English learning. What all this reveals is that children English language school promotional materials instill into the audience the ideology, that there is one best way to acquire English proficiency, and moreover, English teaching and learning is always autonomous and never affected by social, cultural and economic conditions outside the classroom.
The reality is that disadvantaged children often have limited access to Internet and cannot afford to study in children English language schools (Gerber, 2014). A nationwide questionnaire survey on educational resources in elementary schools in Taiwan was conducted by Child Welfare League Foundation in 2013 (Lee, 2013). The subjects of that study were 2,443 5th and 6th graders from urban areas (1,330 students) and rural areas (1,213 students) and 225 school teachers in rural areas. The results indicate that “58.7% of children in rural areas did not have a computer or Internet access at home, while 88.3% of the children in wealthier areas have an average of more than three computers at home” (Lee, 2013, p.3). In other words, disadvantaged children have the least access to the Internet. The survey also indicates that “94.9% of the children in remote areas did not have access to English-language reading materials” (Lee, 2013, p.3), and around 25.2% could not write the English alphabet. Moreover, 68.4% of children in rural areas cannot afford to attend children English language schools because they are from financially disadvantaged families; in urban areas, most children from richer families attend children English language schools. Similar results were also found in many studies (Chen, 2011; Lee & Wang, 2007; Liao, 2008; Lin & Chen, 2013; Sun, 2012; Wang, 2009; Yang, Y. F., 2009) on the current practice on English curriculum and instruction at remote schools in Taiwan.

Moreover, the desired outcome of CLT is that learners communicate successfully in the target language in real situations (Knight, 2001). In other words, English is learned essentially in order to communicate with native speakers of English. Models for the acquisition of English are native speakers of English. It is only wealthy families who can afford to send their children to English language schools and/or send them abroad to immerse themselves in real life communication situations in an English-speaking country. As Phillipson (1992) suggests, mastery of English enhances the power and control of a privileged few. The end result is that reaching high levels of English proficiency has become the exclusive privilege of the wealthy. English is often touted as a way to lift poor people out of poverty but in contemporary Taiwanese society, the rich get richer because they can afford to learn the kind of English that opens doors while the poor get poorer because they cannot.

In short, the promotion of the-best teaching method by children English language schools has resulted in English language learning injustice, such as English proficiency gap in urban and rural areas and the rich and poor.

**Conclusion and Implications**

The results demonstrate that a widely adopted monolingual approach (either English-only teaching method or CLT) as a more practical method to teach English proficiency in Taiwan is ideological. The doctrine that English needs to be taught monolingually by native speakers implies that the ideal English teachers are native speakers of English. The promotion of the-best English-teaching-method by children English language schools has resulted in social injustice among English teachers and learners. The issues raised in this study, such as the native speaker ideology, native and non-native division, white and non-white division, and English proficiency gap in urban and rural areas have a strong impact on teacher identity, the classroom, the students and society. These issues shape the lives of the learners, the teachers, policy makers and almost every individual, since they are embedded in social, economic and political contexts. English teaching
method is only one of the factors in ELT; social, cultural and political factors play more important roles.

There are several implications derived from this study. The first implication is that there is strong evidence that indicates non-native speakers of English outnumber native speakers by at least four to one (Crystal, 2008) and non-native English speakers are more likely to communicate with non-native speakers than with native speakers of English (Jenkins, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2009). Therefore, within a global context, communication is not going to be restricted to the use of any particular variety of English or type of native English speaking teachers. Therefore, the English language learning goal should not only rely on native speaker norms or English speaking cultures.

Second, Prabhu (1990) and Holliday (1994) argue there is no one best teaching methodology since the choice of method should be context-dependent. As Holliday (1994, p. 166) suggests, most teaching methodologies were primarily designed for ESL situations. What works in a certain situation or setting will not always transfer easily or successfully to another. This also implies that English educators need to consider how English teaching is embedded in the local or Taiwanese context.

Third, current English language program and curriculum designs are based on communicative competence, especially listening and speaking proficiency. However, the result indicates that promotion of English-only immersion, CLT and native English speaking teachers are not producing fluent Taiwanese English speakers. The implication is that successful English education needs a well-designed curriculum, qualified English teachers, sufficient resources and funding, appropriate teaching materials and teaching methods, appropriate assessment, positive attitudes towards local languages, and an evaluation of the educational and social impact.

About the Author:
Dr. Jackie Chang is an assistant professor at National Pingtung University in Taiwan. Chang teaches English language methodology and English language curriculum design and evaluation. The focus of Chang’s research interest is the teaching and learning of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), in particular, the social, cultural, and political contexts of EFL.

References


A Study on Possible Selves of Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers

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Abstract

There is no doubt that teaching profession requires passing through a long and challenging path where student teachers/teacher candidates undergo a variety of processes, phases and transformations. Beauchamp and Thomas (2009) point out that examining new teacher identity can be considered as an important step to develop more effective teacher training programmes and identity development of a teacher is related to understanding the notion of ‘self’. This study investigates the possible selves of pre-service EFL teachers in relation to the concept of developing new teacher identity. Aim of the study is to measure possible selves of new teachers that they expect to become and/or fear becoming in the near feature. In order to achieve this goal, ‘New Teacher Possible Selves Questionnaire’ (Hamman, Wang & Burley, 2013; Dalioğlu & Adıgüzel, 2015) was used to measure EFL teacher candidates’ expected and feared teacher possible-selves. A six-point Likert type scale of questionnaire on possible selves was applied to 149 pre-service EFL teachers from two universities. Results indicate that EFL teacher candidates have positive expectations and no certain fears for their first year of teaching, especially female teacher candidates who have higher scores than males in terms of expected possible-selves. 

Keywords: New teacher identity, Pre-service EFL teachers, Possible-selves theory

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Introduction

In relation to the idea of being lifelong ever-growing and ongoing, teacher identity is defined as a process in which teachers constantly re-interpret their experiences (Beijaard, Verloop & Vermunt, 2004). Examining new teacher identity can be considered as an important step to develop more effective teacher training programmes and identity development of a teacher is related to understanding the notion of ‘self’ (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). Possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) provides an established psychological framework that is well suited for studying identity development among new teachers. It is a way of understanding teacher identity, teacher agency and teacher responses to the press of educational reforms. Dimensions and categories in self relevant future oriented self concepts may influence the present to future. Identity development for teachers involves an understanding of the self concept which is an important component of teacher development (Beauchamp & Thomas, 2009). In addition, Hamacheck (1999) states that self knowledge is a key to a teacher’s successful practice. Hamman et al. (2010) explain possible selves theory and its relation to teacher identity development as:

Possible-selves theory seems to be a particularly good fit for examining the developing teacher identities of the newest teachers- student teachers engaged in their final teaching practicum, and newly graduated teachers during their first year of teaching. Both groups consist of individuals at varying points during the important phase of transition from student to teacher, and as such, possible-selves theory provides a theoretical framework for examining future-oriented, identity relevant, goal-directed thinking in the present, and the salience of that thinking for regulating behaviour to reach a future state (p.1349)

Prospective EFL teachers have field specific challenges on either instructional or the language to be thought in the future. Challenging nature of language teaching which may be a problematic issue for non-native English teachers. Tum and Kunt (2013) point out that EFL teacher students may have foreign language anxiety and this may have adverse effects on application of grammar rules and the execution of speaking skills. In respect of EFL teacher candidates, Ortaçtepe (2015) emphasizes that:

The issue of teacher identity plays a major role in describing the many identities adopted by these non-native speaker teachers, who need to juggle at least 3 identities—L2 user, L2 learner, and L2 teacher—along with various socio cultural and political identities that are established in various institutional and interpersonal contexts (p.97)

There are also instructional challenges EFL teacher candidates may face, for instance Yazan (2016) states that although pre-service teacher education programs introduce them to theoretical aspects of teaching and learning English as a foreign language along with teaching methodologies, they have to engage in further learning activities in the workplace when they start their classroom practice as novice teachers. To develop new teacher identity is crucial for prospective EFL teachers’ as for field-specific challenges by means of examining their possible self conceptions in respect of their expectations and fears about their first year of their career in teaching. On the other hand, there is a gap in the literature of new/prospective EFL teachers and their self-knowledge/possible selves about their future profession. With this motivation, this study attempts to investigate the possible-selves of pre-service EFL teachers in relation to the concept of new
teacher identity and possible selves theory. Aim of the study is to measure possible selves about what new EFL teachers expect to become and fear becoming in the near future. In order to reach this goal, research questions are posed as following:

1. What are the possible selves of pre-service EFL teachers in respect of expectations and fears for their first year of teaching?
2. Are there any statistical differences in university type (private/state) and gender between pre-service EFL teachers in respect of possible selves of expectations and fears for their first year in teaching?

Previous Studies
Possible selves’ theory (Markus a& Nurius, 1986) is a relatively salient topic in respect of teacher identity and teacher development in fact it is seen as a good way to examine developing teacher identities especially for teachers on the bottom rung. In this way, Hamman et.al. (2010) conducted a study on possible selves of student teachers and in-service teachers in four dimensions as interpersonal relationships, classroom management, instruction and professionalism and found a difference between student and beginning in-service teachers. They concluded that possible-selves theory provides a manner where emotions and identity may be relate to goals and aspirations for the future such as hopes and fears which can be constructed in the present by strategies to achieve or avoid them. Hamman et.al. (2013) carried out another study on possible selves with student teachers and their results indicated that data fit well the models of new teacher expected and feared possible selves. Gonzales-Bravo (2015) examined possible selves theory with teacher candidates and the results supported the utilitarian, investigative and evaluative qualities of the theory and also the collection and analysis of candidates’ hopes, fears, and process strategies are helpful teacher education practice and to shape professional identity development. In Turkey context, Tavşanlı and Saraç (2016) examined primary school teacher candidates’ possible selves and reported some significant differences in terms of gender and regional factors. Out of possible selves direction, Shoyer and Leshem (2016) investigated teacher candidates’ hopes and fears about their future career as teacher and found that teacher candidates expressed more ‘hopes’ than ‘fears’, and also their hopes and fears correspond with qualities of ‘good teacher’ and effective teaching.

Methodology
Participants
Participants of the study consist of pre-service EFL teachers (N=149) studying their fourth years at EFL teaching departments of faculties of education of a state and a private university in Turkey. During data collection procedure, participants were undergoing a period of practicum for English lessons at state schools. Participants’ demographic features are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic variable</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>79,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1. Demographic features of participants
A Study on Possible Selves of Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers

Babanoğlu

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>20, 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-21 years</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>32, 9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22-23 years</td>
<td>75</td>
<td>50, 3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24+ years</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16, 8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>University type</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>20, 8</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>90</td>
<td>60, 4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>39, 6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

One hundred and forty nine EFL teacher candidates participated to the study and 79,2% of them are females and 20,8% are males. As aging, 32,9% of participants are at between 20-21 years, 50,3% are at between 22-23 and 16,8% of them are over 24 years old. As university type, 60,4% of participants study at state university and 39,6% are at a private university.

**Data Collection Tool**

As data collection tool, a questionnaire developed by Hamman et al. (2013) titled ‘New Teacher Possible Selves Questionnaire’ was utilized for that EFL teacher candidates were asked to complete. The questionnaire, of which reliability and validity analyses were made by Tatlı Dalioğlu & Adıgüzel (2015), consists of eighteen items within two main conceptual parts:

- **Expectations**: nine items on two topics: professionalism and learning to teach as in sample below:
  
  Part 1. Realistically in my first year I …… (strongly expect, expect, partially expect, partially unexpect, unexpect, strongly unexpect)
  
  1. to learn something from experienced colleagues
  2. to make good connections with parents
  3. to learn new teaching strategies
  4. to be successful in my profession
  5. to be fair and consistent to students
  6. to benefit from the guidance of experienced colleagues
  7. to develop classroom management skills
  8. to be prepared and planned
  9. to help students develop positive attitudes

  Items 1-2-3-6 Learning to teach
  Items 4-5-7-8-9 Professionalism

- **Fears**: nine items on three topics: insufficient classroom management, non-creative teaching and being a careless teacher as in the sample below:
  
  Part 2. Realistically in my first year I …… (definitely afraid, afraid, partially afraid, partially unafraid, unafraid, strongly unafraid)
1. that I cannot make a good classroom management plan
2. that I cannot be successful in teaching the context of my lesson
3. that I lose the control of the classroom
4. of being a careless teacher
5. that I cannot be a positive role model for my students
6. of being an insufficient teacher who keeps the students busy to fill the lesson time
7. of being a boring teacher
8. of being unfair to students
9. of teaching the subjects in a boring way

Items 1-2-3 Insufficient classroom management
Items 4-5-8 Being an uncaring teacher
Items 6-7-9 Being an uncreative teacher

**Data analysis**

In the study, in order to measure the results of questionnaires filled by EFL teacher candidates, SPSS 15 programme was used in respect of statistical interpretation. Independent samples t-test was applied for group comparison (gender, university type) and Pearson correlation was utilized for comparing expected and feared new teachers possibilities.

**Result and Discussion**

In the first phase, the general descriptive statistics of questionnaire items about EFL student teachers’ possible selves were measured to see general tendency of expectation and fears which are shown in Table 2:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and sub-dimensions</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>sd</th>
<th>Skewnes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>0.70</td>
<td>-0.44*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning to teach</td>
<td>5.01</td>
<td>0.89</td>
<td>-0.29*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>EXPECTED NEW TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE</strong></td>
<td>5.28</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>-0.74*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Uncreative teaching</td>
<td>2.50</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>0.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient classroom management</td>
<td>3.16</td>
<td>1.32</td>
<td>0.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being an uncaring teacher</td>
<td>2.38</td>
<td>1.39</td>
<td>0.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>FEARED NEW TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE</strong></td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>0.80</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* After logarithmic conversion (-1*lg10(7-score))

According to descriptive statistics, expected new teacher possible selves score (5.28±0.72) and professionalism sub-dimension score (5.50±0.70) are at ‘strongly expected’ levels and learning to teach sub-dimension score (5.01±0.89) is at ‘expected’ level (6-1=5/6=0.83; 1-1.83: strongly unexpected, 1.84-2.67: unexpected; 2.68-3.5: partially unexpected; 3.6-4.33: partially expected; 4.34-5.16: expected; 5.17-6.00: strongly expected). That is, EFL teacher candidates’ possible selves on expectations for their first year of teaching have high scores. Feared new
teacher possible selves score (2.68±1.24) and insufficient classroom management sub-dimension score (3.16±1.32) are at ‘unafraid’ level. Uncreative teaching (2.50±1.55) and being an uncaring teacher (2.38±1.39) sub-dimensions scores are at ‘partially unafraid’ level. Namely, EFL teacher candidates’ possible selves scale scores on their fears for their first year of teaching indicate that there is no sign of possibility of certain fears for their future job.

Secondly, for group comparisons in respect of gender and university type (private-state), independent samples t-test was utilized for a possibility of a significant difference. Possible selves of female and male EFL teacher candidates on fears and expectations of gender comparison by t-test is shown in Table 3:

Table 3. T-test results of expected and feared new teacher possible selves for gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and sub-dimensions</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>0.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning to teach</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPECTED STUDENT TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>0.048</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-creative teaching</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.883</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient classroom management</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being an uncaring teacher</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.833</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.35</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEARED STUDENT TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>0.406</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.13</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In respect of gender, expected possible-selves scale (t=1.99; p<0.05) and learning to teach sub-dimension (t=2.30; p<0.05) indicated significant difference whereas there is no significant difference in professionalism sub-dimension (p>0.05). Female EFL teacher candidates have higher scores in expected possible-selves (5.34±0.72) and learning to teach sub-dimension (5.10±0.83) than male EFL student teachers (5.09±0.72 and 4.69±1.03). In feared possible-selves scale, there is no significant difference of gender in overall picture, two sub-dimensions as being an uncaring teacher and uncreative teaching (p>0.05) revealed no significance whereas in insufficient classroom management sub-dimension of feared possible-selves indicated meaningful difference in favor of female EFL student teachers (t=2.32; p<0.05) of whom scores are (3.29±1.34) significantly higher than male EFL student teachers (2.68±1.14).

As data of the study gathered from EFL departments of two different university types as state and private, independent samples t-test was used to compare the scores of possible selves of participants in expectations and fears in Table 4:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and sub-dimensions</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>n</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SS</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Professionalism</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1.27</td>
<td>0.206</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>0.62</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning to teach</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>5.10</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>0.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>4.69</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>EXPECTED STUDENT TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE</td>
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<td>118</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>0.048</td>
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<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5.09</td>
<td>0.72</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-creative teaching</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>2.49</td>
<td>1.55</td>
<td>-0.15</td>
<td>0.883</td>
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<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.54</td>
<td>1.59</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient classroom management</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>3.29</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>2.32</td>
<td>0.022</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2.68</td>
<td>1.14</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being an uncaring teacher</td>
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<td>118</td>
<td>2.39</td>
<td>1.40</td>
<td>0.21</td>
<td>0.833</td>
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<td>2.33</td>
<td>1.35</td>
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<td>FEARED STUDENT TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE</td>
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<td>2.72</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>0.83</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
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<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.13</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. T-test results of expected and feared new teacher possible selves for university type

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and sub-dimensions</th>
<th>University Type</th>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Learning to teach</td>
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<td>5.06</td>
<td>0.75</td>
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<td>0.689</td>
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<td>4.94</td>
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<tr>
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<td>State</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.61</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>0.303</td>
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<td>59</td>
<td>2.34</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Insufficient classroom management</td>
<td>State</td>
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<td>3.21</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.600</td>
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<tr>
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<td>Private</td>
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<td>3.09</td>
<td>1.31</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being an uncaring teacher</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>1.36</td>
<td>1.51</td>
<td>0.133</td>
</tr>
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<td>1.41</td>
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<tr>
<td>FEARED STUDENT TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>2.53</td>
<td>1.19</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results indicated that expected possible selves scale and sub-dimensions’ scores did not yield a significant difference between state and private university comparison (p>0.05). Similarly, feared new teacher possible selves and sub-dimensions’ score also showed no significant difference for university type (p>0.05). That is, there is no meaningful difference between EFL teacher candidates studying at a state university and a private university in respect of expectations and fears in their first year of teaching profession.

Pearson correlation was applied to measure the relationship between expected and feared new teacher possible selves’ scores each other which is presented in Table 5:

Table 5. Pearson correlation analysis of relationship between expected and feared possible selves scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scale and sub-dimensions</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>5</th>
<th>6</th>
<th>7</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-Professionalism¹</td>
<td>0.68**</td>
<td>0.87**</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
<td>-0.01</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-Learning to teach¹</td>
<td>0.94**</td>
<td>0.03</td>
<td>0.04</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-EXPECTED STUDENT TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES SCALE¹</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>0.02</td>
<td>-0.02</td>
<td>0.01</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Non-creative teaching</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.56**</td>
<td>0.79**</td>
<td>0.91**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Insufficient classroom management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.54**</td>
<td>0.79**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Being an uncaring teacher</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.90**</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
A Study on Possible Selves of Turkish Pre-Service EFL Teachers

Babanoğlu

7- FEARED STUDENT
TEACHER POSSIBLE SELVES
SCALE

* p<0.005   ** p<0.01   1Converted normal scores were used

Professionalism and learning to teach sub-dimensions of expected possible selves scores and sub-dimensions of feared new teacher possible selves scores did not reveal a significant difference (p>0.05). In total, there is no significance in the relationship between expected and feared possible selves scores in general (p>0.05) as predicted which means there seems no superiority of either expectations or fears possible selves scales when compared to each other.

Conclusion

According to Hamman et.al. (2010), possible selves theory has a place in teacher identity development as it may link identity to broader issues for teacher development. In respect of EFL teacher development, as EFL teaching itself is a challenging field because of contextual and instructional rigors, it may be extra important for EFL teacher candidates to develop a ‘language’ teacher identity and be aware of possible selves for their future career. With this motivation, in the present study, expected and feared possible selves of EFL teacher candidates were examined and accordingly, the research questions are tried to be explained as follows:

1. What are the possible selves of prospective EFL teachers in respect of expectations and fears for their first year of teaching?

EFL teacher candidates have high expectations for their future profession, especially in professionalism sub-dimension which includes ideals such as to be successful in teaching profession, to be fair and consistent to students, to be prepared and planned and to be helpful to students developing positive attitudes. EFL student teachers seem that they do not have certain fears for their first year in the teaching career.

2. Are there any statistical differences in university type (private/state) and gender between prospective EFL teachers in respect of possible selves of expectations and fears for their first year in teaching?

There are gender differences to some extent (as in Tavşanlı & Saraç, 2016); female student teachers seem to have higher scores in expected possible-selves than male student teachers for their first year of teaching. There is no significance in overall picture of feared possible-selves scale between female and male EFL teacher candidates except that females have higher scores than males only in insufficient classroom management sub-dimension in feared possible-selves. Similarly, no meaningful difference detected between state and private university EFL student teachers in possible selves.

Many authors in several studies claim that females are better at language arts and have higher competencies, curiosity and enjoyment and more motivated than males. For instance, Asassfeh (2015) studied prospective EFL teachers in many aspects and found gender differences
in favor of females in motivation toward EFL learning and communication. Jobs such as teaching and nursing in Turkey are still considered a female-dominated occupation and mostly preferred by female students. Üstüner et al. (2009) investigated prospective teachers’ attitude toward teaching profession and found that female student teachers have more positive attitudes towards their profession and concluded that compared to past, the profession of teaching is gradually becoming a profession for females every passing day. This can also be a socio-cultural fact of female student teachers’ being more hopeful and confident in their future job. They seem more coherent for EFL field specific challenges and more ‘self-aware’ in teacher identity development.

As for pedagogical implications, EFL student teacher may be supported for their first year of teaching especially in learning to teach sub-dimension ideals, which were favored by participants (although not statistical) below the average when compared to professionalism sub-dimension. For instance, some learning to teach ideals like ‘to learn and to benefit something from experienced colleagues’, ‘make good connections with parents’, ‘to learn new teaching strategies’ can be fruitful and useful for teacher candidates in their first year of teaching if they have awareness of the significance of these ideals. As for gender difference for expectations of current study, it can be suggested that male EFL teacher candidates might be supported for their future profession to develop new teacher identity.

The present study has limitations in respect of number of participants and institutions. In addition, the current research includes a one-sided questionnaire that does not provide open-ended questions or comments for teacher candidates about their future profession.

In the future studies, the number of participants can be enhanced in order to obtain more generalizable results. Different institutions in different regions can be involved into the future research. In addition, data collection tool (possible selves questionnaire) can be developed by open-ended questions and comments in order to find out teacher candidates’ different thoughts about their selves and their profession.

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References


The Impact of Dialogic Teaching on English Language Learners’ Speaking and Thinking Skills

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Abstract:
This paper aims to investigate the influence of dialogic teaching on the development of the learners' speaking skills and critical thinking. It is questioning why Sudanese tertiary students are unable to express themselves efficiently and comfortably. This seems crucial and imperative for a college student and it shouldn’t shape any obstacle as a prerequisite for future development. Accordingly, this paper poses a significant issue that every learner of English needs to ponder. To collect data for the study, three tools has been used; a questionnaire, an interview and an observational checklist. The questionnaire was distributed throughout the students of second, third and fourth year university students who had been selected from different Sudanese universities. The collected data is analyzed quantitatively and qualitatively. Data analysis has shown that dialogic teaching enables students to develop the skills of argumentation, questioning and debate which contribute to the development of their critical thinking and speaking skills. Generally, the findings indicate that authentic dialogic teaching components are effective if students are given enough time to practice its skills. Hence recommendations for exposing learners to a variety of medium of speaking like dialogues, debate, argumentation and questioning are made to facilitate teachers to be more well-informed with dialogic teaching approach.

Key words: dialogic teaching, English language learners, speaking skill critical thinking skills

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Introduction:

University students encounter difficulties to express themselves comfortably and efficiently either when dealing with academic topics or common every day topics. The researchers (like Moon, 2008; Paul & Edger, 2004) think that, dialogic teaching method is one of the effective strategies moreover they considered it to be the educative potential of teacher – student interaction that enables students to play active part in shaping the topics of classroom discourse. Dialogic teaching which is collective, reciprocal, cumulative, stresses the potential of collaborative, group work and peer assistance to promote mutually responsive learning in the zone of proximal development.

Objectives of the paper:

The present paper is aiming to achieve the following objectives:
1. To investigate the role of dialogic teaching in developing learners’ speaking and thinking to create active classroom interaction.
2. To explain the role of dialogic teaching in engaging learners through the medium of speaking.
3. To find out whether the skills of debate, argumentation and questioning can be achieved by the learners through dialogic teaching.

Literature Review:

The concept of Dialogic Teaching

Empirical classroom research for the last three decades has shown that discourse patterns are monologue, controlled and shaped by the teacher. Therefore, to maximize active participation, and develop learners’ proficiency, there must be a significant shift in classroom practice which in turn leads to a new trend in teaching namely the dialogic teaching. Dialogic teaching is explained by Alexander (2008, p.62) as finding out what learners think, engaging with their developing ideas and helping them to talk through innovative activities. Dialogic teaching can be thought of as combinations of various conditions that build up into a recognizable teaching approach. "Dialogic Teaching" means using talk most effectively for carrying out teaching and learning. It involves an ongoing talk between teachers and students.

Dialogic teaching is distinct from the question-answer and listen-tell routines of traditional and so-called ‘interactive’ teaching and also is different from the casual conversation of informal discussion. it should not be confused with the official use in England of the term ‘Speaking and Listening’; since this attends only to the learner’s talk and is viewed as an aspect of English teaching, whereas dialogic teaching relates to an interactive teaching across the curriculum. Grounded in the principles of collectivistic, reciprocity, support, cumulating and purposefulness, dialogic teaching draws on recent psychological and neuroscientific research on children’s development and cognition as well as on a long tradition of observational and process-product research on teaching. The approach links with the work of Bakhtin, (Bakhtin, M. (1986), Cazden, (Cazden,
C. (1988). Barnes, Mercer, Bruner, J. S. (1978), and with new developments in cultural psychology and activity theory. Dialogic teaching has been intensively trailed in London, Yorkshire and other parts of Britain. Practicing dialogic teaching according to Alexander (2008, p.6) is based on the six pedagogical values which start with the purposes of education, the nature of knowledge and the relationship between teacher and learner:

Teaching as transmission sees education primarily as a process of instructing children to absorb, replicate and apply basic information and skills.

Teaching as initiation sees education as the means of providing access to, and passing on from one generation to the next, the culture’s stock of high-status knowledge, for example in literature, the arts, humanities and the sciences.

Teaching as negotiation reflects the Deweyan idea that teachers and students jointly create knowledge and understanding rather than relate to one another as authoritative source of knowledge and its passive recipient.

Teaching as facilitation guides the teacher by principles which are developmental (and, more specifically, Piagetian) rather than cultural or epistemological. The teacher respects and nurtures individual differences, and waits until children are ready to move on instead of pressing them to do so.

Teaching as acceleration, in contrast, implements the Vygotskian principle that education is planned and guided acculturation rather than facilitated ‘natural’ development, and indeed that the teacher seeks to outpace development rather than follow it.

Teaching as technique, finally, is relatively neutral in its stance on society, knowledge and the child. Here the important issue is the efficiency of teaching regardless of the context of values, and to that end imperatives like structure, economic use of time and space, carefully graduated tasks, regular assessment and clear feedback are more pressing than ideas such as democracy, autonomy, development or the disciplines.

1. Dialogic teaching approach

• Dialogic teaching is an approach and a professional outlook rather than a specific method. It requires teachers to rethink not just the techniques they use but also the classroom relationships. They foster, the balance of power between teachers teaching performance and the way they conceive knowledge.
• Dialogic teaching, like all good teaching, is grounded in evidence and principles.
• And like all good teaching it draws on a broad repertoire of strategies and techniques.
• The teacher draws on this repertoire in response to different educational purposes and contexts, the needs of different pupils, and the diverse character of what is to be taught and learned.
2. Dialogic teaching and other talk

In a nutshell, dialogic teaching comprises repertoires for everyday talk, learning talk, teaching talk, Academic talk and classroom organization on which the teacher draws flexibly according to purpose and the contexts, dialogic teaching has five principles that has been identifies by (Alexander, 2008b, pp. 112–113):

• talk for everyday life
• learning talk
• teaching talk
• Classroom organization

3. Pedagogical Repertoires of Dialogic Teaching

First, the idea of repertoire is paramount. The varied objectives of teaching cannot be achieved through a single approach or technique.

Dialogic teaching combines four repertoires: These repertoires are used flexibly, on the basis of fitness for purpose, but the principles remain constant. Repertoire (i): talk for everyday life.

The talk of everyday life is identified by socio-linguists as any kind of talk which empowers and support everyday human interactions. The kind of talk that educational institutions perform to help learners to develop, explore and use each of these: transactional talk, expository talk, interrogatory talk, exploratory talk, expressive talk, and evaluative talk.

Mercer and Littleton (2007) identify a central role of the teacher in determining the classroom ethos and ensuring opportunities for learners to build on each other’s ideas. In arguing that ground rules are necessary to enable learners to engage, Mercer and Hodgkinson (2008) clarify the difference between exploratory talk, which requires an understanding that ideas will not be ridiculed or aggressively contradicted, and ‘presentational talk’, which tests understanding and focuses on correct answers. Although both forms of talk have a particular function, exploratory talk is seen as embodying the characteristics of accountability, clarity, constructive criticism and receptiveness.

Repertoire (ii): learning talk

In dialogic teaching learners do not just provide brief factual answers to test or recall questions, or merely spot the answer which they think the teacher wants to hear. Instead they learn to: narrate, explain, analyze, speculate, imagine, explore, evaluate, discuss, argue, justify and they ask questions of their own.

Repertoire (iii): teaching talk

In dialogic classrooms teachers may use familiar kinds of teaching talk such as:
The impact of Dialogic Teaching on English Language  Elhassan & Adam

- Rote (drilling ideas, facts and routines through repetition)
- Recitation (using short question/answer sequences to recall or test what is expected to be known already)
- Instruction (telling learners what to do and how to do it)
- Exposition (imparting information and explaining things)

But in dialogic classrooms teachers do not limit themselves to these. They also use:
- Discussion
- Scaffold dialogue.

What is scaffolding?
Scaffolding can be defined as “the process that enables a child or novice to solve a problem, carry out a task, or achieve a goal which would be beyond his unassisted efforts” (Wood, Bruner, & Ross, 1976, p. 90). Wood et al. (1976) characterized scaffolding as an interactive system of exchange in which the tutor operates with an implicit theory of the learner’s acts in order to recruit his attention, reduces degrees of freedom in the task to manageable limits, maintains ‘direction’ in the problem solving, marks critical features, controls frustration and demonstrates solutions when the learner can recognize them. (p. 99).

What is dialogic teaching?
The term “dialogic teaching” is particularly associated with Alexander’s (2008) focus on talk between teachers and students in the classroom. Alexander grounds his approach to dialogue in Bakhtin often quoting the line “if an answer does not give rise to a new question from itself, it falls out of the dialogue” (Bakhtin, 1986, p. 168). Alexander’s point in using this Bakhtinian definition of dialogue is that it is only by engaging in live dialogue, either with each other, directly with the teacher, or vicariously by listening to others in dialogue, that students learn to think. This understanding of dialogue as a form of open ended shared inquiry links Alexander’s ‘dialogic teaching’ to Nystrand’s ‘dialogic instruction’ (Nystrand, 1997), Matusov’s ‘dialogic pedagogy’ (2009), Wells’ ‘Dialogic inquiry’ (Wells 1999a, b), Flecha’s ‘dialogic learning’ (2000) and Wegerif’s ‘Dialogic education’ (2007; 2013). What all of these approaches to teaching have in common is a stress on the importance of teaching for dialogue as well as teaching through dialogue. In other words, the aim of education is not only that the students will learn something that the teacher already knows but also that the students will learn how to ask open questions and how to learn new things for themselves through engaging in dialogic inquiry.

Purposeful: Classroom talk, performs though open discussions, The origin of these criteria as has been stated by Alexander (2005, p.14) is complex it needs more explanation as well as interpretation. In short, it combines (i) a positive response (ii) an attempt to counter the less satisfactory features of mainstream classroom interaction (for example, tends not to exploit the full collective potential of students working in groups) (iii) distillation of ideas from others
working in this and related fields – thus, for example, in the criterion of reciprocity you will spot the pioneering work of Palincsar and Brown (1984) among others, and in cumulation, of course, Bakhtin and indeed conventional wisdom on how human understanding, collectively as well as individually, develops.

Dialogic teaching components
Studies of classroom communication have identified five components of dialogic teaching and they have been referred to as patterns of interaction these are; exploratory talk, argumentation, effective questioning, debate and dialogue. These components are believed to promote high level of understanding and intellectual development through their capacity to involve teachers and learners in joint acts of meaning – making and knowledge construction.

Argumentation
The word argument connotes anger and hostility, but the most popular image of argument is debate. To our way of thinking, argument does not imply anger. It is a creative and productive activity that engages us at high levels of inquiring and critical thinking. It is worth to mention that linguists and philosophers have disagreed over centuries about the meaning of the term and about the goals that arguers should set for themselves. So, the meaning of the term is controversial. It is crucial to explain three defining features of argument. These features are: argument requires justification of its claims, it is both a product and a process, and it combines elements of truth seeking and persuasion. These defining features had been explained by Ramage and Bean (1997) as follows:

• Argument requires justification of its claims
  Two necessary conditions that must be met before something is called an argument. A set of two or more assertions and the attempt to resolve the conflict through an appeal to reason. But a good argument demands more than meeting these two formal requirements. For the argument to be effective, an arguer is obligated to clarify and support the reasons presented.

• Argument is both a process and a product
  Argument can be viewed as a process in which two or more parties seek the best solution to a question or problem. Argument can also be viewed as a product, each product being any person’s contribution to the conversation at a given moment.

• Argument combines truth seeking and persuasion
  Internal structure of arguments

  Typically an argument has an internal structure, comprising the following:
  1. a set of assumptions or premises
  2. a method of reasoning or deduction and
  3. a conclusion or point.
Kinds of argumentation

Conversational argumentation

The study of naturally-occurring conversation arose from the field of sociolinguistics. It is usually called conversational analysis. Inspired by ethno methodology, it was developed in the late 1960s and early 1970s principally by the sociologist Harvey Sacks, Emanuel Schegloff and Gail Jefferson. Because of them conversational argumentation has now become an established force in sociology, anthropology, linguistics, speech-communication and psychology. Recently CA techniques of sequential analysis have been employed by phoneticians to explore the fine phonetic details of speech. Empirical studies and theoretical formulations by Sally Jackson and Scott Jacobs, and several generations of their students, have described argumentation as a form of managing conversational disagreement within communication contexts and systems that naturally prefer agreement.

Scientific argumentation

Perhaps the most radical statement of the social grounds of scientific knowledge appears in Alan G.Gross's The Rhetoric of Science, (Gross A. (1990) holds that science is rhetorical "without remainder," meaning that scientific knowledge itself cannot be seen as an idealized ground of knowledge. Scientific knowledge is produced rhetorically, meaning that it has special epistemic authority only insofar as its communal methods of verification are trustworthy.

Legal argumentation

Legal arguments are spoken presentations to a judge or appellate court by a lawyer, or parties when representing themselves of the legal reasons why they should prevail. Oral argument at the appellate level accompanies written briefs, which also advance the argument of each party in the legal dispute.

Dialogue

The word dialogue comes from two Greek roots, dia and logos, suggesting “meaning following through”. In common sense, ‘Dialogue’ is defined as a process of conversation between two or more persons for exchanging. Many thinkers from the East and the West have given different kinds of meanings to the term dialogue. Some of these thinkers, like Socrates, Martin Buber, Paulo Freire, David Bohm, and J. Krishnamurti have used this term in different contexts. Socrates used the technique of dialogue for social awareness. Martin Buber used dialogue for spirituality and education. David Bohm, the eminent physicist suggested the use of dialogue for creating holism of mind. Further, the notion of dialogue has been used by Paulo Freire for creating ‘pedagogy of the oppressed.

Alexander (2008a, p.27) distinguishes dialogue from main stream of oral or ‘interactive’ teaching as currently understood by many teachers. Alexander defined the term dialogue in terms of five types of teacher talk:

1. Rote (teacher – class): The drilling of facts, ideas and routines through repetition.
2. Recitation (teacher – class or teacher – group): The accumulation of knowledge and understanding through questions designed to test or stimulate recall of what has previously been encountered, or to cue learners to work out the answer from clues provided in the question.
3. Instruction/exposition (teacher – class, teacher – group or teacher – individual): Telling the learner what to do, and/or imparting information, and/or explaining facts, principles or procedures.
4. Discussion (teacher – class, teacher group or student – student): The exchange of ideas with a view to sharing information and solving problems.
• Dialogue seems to be emerging as a cornerstone for “organizational learning”.
• Dialogue appears to be a powerful way of harnessing the inherent-organizing collective intelligence of groups of people and of both broadening and deepening the collective inquiry process.
• Dialogue shows possibilities for being an important breakthrough in the way people might govern themselves, whether in public or private domains.
• Dialogue shows promise as an innovative alternative approach to producing coordinated action among collective.

From a Bakhtinian perspective (1981), dialogue is not merely a term for describing the structure of speech in discourse: it is a phenomenon that penetrates the very structure of words themselves. (Wegerif, 2008, p350) asserts that dialogue is every written or spoken word that filled with the voices of others and shows no “overcoming” or “synthesis”.

The relationship between dialogue and pedagogy

Smith and Higgins (2006) suggest that the focus of attention should be placed, not on the questions that teachers ask, but more on the way in which they react to learners’ responses; in this they share some commonality with Alexander’ notion of an ‘emerging pedagogy’ of talk as means of helping to shape and develop learners’ engagement with learning and understanding.

Promotion of pedagogic dialogue

Moore (2004) believes that the discourse of the ‘charismatic’ teacher is a powerful myth founded on Burner’s notion of ‘folk pedagogy’. He suggests that ‘charisma’, the characteristic regularly cited by students as paramount in a good teacher, might be better conceptualized as ‘communicative’.

The power of dialogic approaches to learning and teaching can extend beyond whole class teaching. Indeed, it may argued that productive use of cognitively stimulating dialogue could be explored most fruitfully in small-group learning. This, however, does not appear to be widely recognized by teachers as practice that promotes thinking and understanding. As Baines et al. (2003, p.31) point out, “creating effective group-working tasks and conditions is harder and more time consuming than a traditional independent and didactic learning approach”. It may also be the result of a lack of understanding of ways to scaffold dialogue, and of what their talk role might be in promoting this.

Fisher (2011) argues that if Gillies (2006) is correct in her supposition that teachers lack an understanding of how strategies for cooperative investigation may be embedded in the curriculum, then it is fair to suppose that the higher cognitive challenge of fostering ‘inter thinking’, or co-learning through a social pedagogical approach remains a challenge too far for many.
Questioning

The subject of classroom questioning has been the interest and concern of researchers and practitioners because of its long and venerable history as an educational strategy. In classroom settings, teacher questions are defined as instrumental cues or stimuli that convey to students the content elements to be learned. Questioning is effective when it allows students to engage with the learning process by actively composing responses. (Borich 1996; Muijs and Reynolds 2001; Morgan and Saxton 1994; Wragg and Brown 2001) suggest that lessons where questioning is effective are likely to have the following characteristics:

• Questions are planned and closely linked to the objectives of the lesson.
• The learning of basic skills is enhanced by frequent questions following the exposition of new content that has been broken down into small steps. Each step should be followed by guided practice that provides opportunities for:
  • Closed questions are used to check factual understanding and recall.
  • Open questions predominate.
  • Sequences of questions are planned so that the cognitive level increases as the questions go on.
  • Pupils have opportunities to ask their own questions and seek their own answers. They are encouraged to provide feedback to each other.
• The classroom climate is one where pupils feel secure enough to take risks, be tentative and make mistakes.

Purposes of classroom questions

Cotton listed the following purposes for the classroom questions:

1. Developing interest and motivating students to become actively involved in lessons.
2. Evaluating students’ preparation and check on homework or seatwork completion.
3. Developing critical thinking skills and inquiring attitudes
4. Reviewing and summarize previous lessons.
5. Nurturing insights by exposing new relationships.
6. Assessing achievement of instructional goals and objectives.
7. Stimulating students to pursue knowledge on their own.

Principles of Questioning

The following principles were developed by Richard L. Loughlin can provide an excellent set of guidelines for the teacher who wishes to develop good questioning techniques:

I. Distribute questions so that all, including non-volunteers, are involved.
II. Balance factual and thought-provoking questions.
III. Ask both simple and exacting questions, so that the poorer students may participate and the brighter students may be extended.
IV. Encourage lengthy responses and sustained answers. (Avoid yes-no questions, questions overlaid with afterthoughts, fragmentary questions, and those that tug or encourage guessing.)

The Concept of debate

Reinking (2000) defines debate:
A formal contest of argumentation in which two opposing teams defend and attack a given proposition”. Although debate is an excellent activity for developing critical thinking, its weakness is that it can turn argument into game of winners and losers rather than a process of cooperative inquiry (p.4).

Debates have been defined as an educational strategy that fosters good reasoning and critical thinking, as well as heightens awareness of attitudes, values, and beliefs. As explained by Hall (2011, p.2) that in traditional classroom setting, a large percentage of what students are taught occurs via the lecture format. However, with debates, students must go beyond the passive nature of the lecture format to the dynamic nature of debating.

The general structure of the debate

The general structure of the debate (without cross-examination) as provided by Alford et al. (2002, p.3-4) can be as follows:

- A coin toss immediately prior to the debate determines which team began the debate.
- The team that wins the coin toss begins with five minutes for stating an opening position.
- The other side then has three minutes to present their opposing position.
- The original side receives two minutes for rebuttal.
- The other side then receives one minute for counter-rebuttal.
- The timing for the next round is the same as the first except that the teams switch the order of their presentations.

1. Research design

This research is a descriptive analytical research.

2. Area of the Research

The research was conducted in different Sudanese universities and colleges including Al-Fashir University, Faculty of Arts & Education English Language Department.

3. Population and sample

The study populations were students of 2-4 year in English department, Faculties of Arts, Education, and other technical colleges at different Sudanese universities, they were males and females.

4. Sample size

Sample size of this study consisted of 60 students (for questionnaire), 40 lecturers (for interviews) and 40 students for the observational check list (classroom debate activity).

4.1 Inclusion criteria – Only students of 2-4 years who studied debate techniques and skills were purposely selected to respond to the questionnaire.

4.2 Exclusion criteria – students of other classes who did not study debate techniques and skills.
5. Data collection instrument and Instrumentation

Primary data had been collected by using three tools:

5.1/ Questionnaire

A structured self-administered questionnaire was used to collect primary data from participants (60 students). The questionnaire contains 20 closed ended statements with the same answering option. The questionnaire was filled by the students from a number of Sudanese universities.

5.2 Observational check list

Observational check list was used for two groups of respondents:
Group (A) control group: consisted of 20 students at 3rd year.
Group (B) Experimental Group: Also consisted of 20 students at 3rd year (semester 6) who studied the skills and techniques of debates. The forty students were from Al-Fashir University.

5.3 Interviews

Interviews were used with 40 English Language lecturers, assistant professors, and professors from different Sudanese Universities. Teachers from English departments who responded to the interview were from thirteen Sudanese universities.

6. Data collection method/ procedure

The data for this study were collected through questionnaire and interviews during the period from 6/5/2013 up to 13/6/2013. The observational check list was conducted through the participation of the selected students in the classroom debate. The questionnaire was distributed to 60 students who had been introduced to debate skills and techniques and who participated in the international debate or debates held at their colleges. With the help of one of the lecturers, the researcher met the selected students and explained to them the purpose of the questionnaire. Then, the questionnaire was distributed to those who agreed to respond to it. Twenty students from colleges of Education and Arts as control and experimental groups with the intervention for experimental group. The two groups participated separately in a classroom activity and the performance of the two groups was evaluated and compared. As for the interview, it was conducted with 40 English language lecturers who were available during data collection and who accepted to be interviewed.

7. Data Analysis

Two methods were used:
1- Quantitative analysis was used for analyzing the data collected through questionnaire and check list. The analysis was done by using the statistical package for social science (SPSS) program and the results were represented in the form of frequencies and percentage tables and figures.
2- Qualitative analysis was used for analyzing interviews, where interviews, ethnographies and documents are the typical sources of qualitative data which can be captured on audio recording or video, cameras, charts and most commonly textual transcriptions. These texts, documents and recordings are analysed for their meaningful content and they are interpreted rather than counted or measured.
Results and Discussions:

This part consists of three sections. The first section is concerned with the analysis and discussion of the data obtained from students' questionnaire. The second section presents the analysis and the results of the performance of the control group and experimental group in a classroom debate activity. The third section deals with the English language lecturers' responses to the interview which was designed to get their viewpoints on the influence of dialogic teaching on the development of the learners' speaking skills and thinking.

Analysis and discussion of students' questionnaire

1/ Dialogic teaching enhances the learners' skills of speaking

Results show that the great majority of respondents (96%) either strongly agreed (60%) or agree (36%) that dialogic teaching enhances the learners' skills of speaking; only 3.3% were neutral. According to the researcher's viewpoint, this high percentage indicates the effectiveness of dialogic teaching enable the learners to value the difference between dialogic teaching and didactic teaching. In addition, it may refer to the fact that this type of teaching maximizes students' talking time which in turn enhances their speaking skills.

Dialogic teaching provides learners with a chance to take an active part in classroom discourse

The result reveals that 51.7% of respondents strongly agreed that dialogic teaching provides learners with a chance to take an active part in classroom discourse, 41.7% of them agreed; only 6.7% of them were neutral. Since in dialogic teaching students will have the chance to perfume activities such as narrating, explaining, asking different questions, analyzing and solving problems, exploring and evaluating ideas, discussing and arguing, then they are playing an active role in classroom discourse. The statement has been emphasized by this high percentage.

Dialogic teaching develops the learner's thinking

The result shows that 40% of respondents agreed that dialogic teaching develops the learner's thinking, 38.3% of them strongly agreed, 16.7% of them were neutral, only 5% of them were either strongly disagree or disagree. This proves that dialogic teaching can give students the opportunity to extend their talk and their thinking.

4/ Dialogic teaching develops the learner's ability of reasoning

Results show that 40% of respondents strongly agreed that Dialogic teaching develops the learner's ability of reasoning, 28.3% of them agreed, 10% of them were neutral, only 6% of them disagreed. The development of the learners' of reasoning can be achieved through mastering argumentation skills.

5/ Through dialogic teaching the learner may develop the skill of dialogue

more than half of respondents (58.3%) strongly agreed that 'through dialogic teaching the learner may develop the skill of dialogue, 26.7% of them agreed, 6.7% of them were neutral and disagreed respectively, and only one strongly disagreed. This is typically what happens when dialogic teaching is adopted because all students will have a chance to participate because they will be working in groups which leads to an effective relationship and intimacy among the
classmates. Students are cooperating with each other in a shared reality and with the help of each other create something more than their own personal action.

Using the technique of dialogue in teaching provides the learners with opportunity to speak to each other

More than half of the respondents (56.7%) strongly agreed that using the technique of dialogue in teaching provides the learners with opportunity to speak to each other, 30% of them agreed, 8.1% of them were neutral, 3.3% of them disagreed and only one respondent strongly disagreed. This high percentage of agreement to the statement (86.7%) emphasizes the importance of dialogue in developing learners' thinking and speaking skills based on the fact that the concept of dialogue, itself, establishes the existence of the other person who cannot be excluded because meanings are created in processes of reflection between people.

Using the technique of dialogue in teaching provides the learners with opportunity to listen to each other

Results reveals that 38.3% of the respondents agreed that using the technique of dialogue in teaching provides the learners with opportunity to listen to each other, 30% of them strongly agreed, 25% of them were neutral, 5% of them disagreed and only one respondent strongly disagreed. As shown in results, 68.3% of respondents agreed with this assumption. This indicates that dialogue is an effective technique in promoting learners' speaking skills and thinking if we consider that in any dialogue the person we are speaking to, the "addressee", is always already there at the beginning of the utterance just as we are there already on the inside when the addressees frame their reply to us.

Using the technique of dialogue in teaching provides learners with opportunity to share ideas

Results shows that the majority of the respondents (85%) were either (agree 45%) or (strongly agree 40%) that using the technique of dialogue in teaching provides learners with opportunity to share ideas, 8.3% of them were neutral, 5% of them disagreed and only one respondent strongly disagreed with this assumption.

Dialogic teaching develops the learner's debating skills

More than half of the respondents (55% strongly agreed that dialogic teaching develops the learner's debating skills, 33.3% of them agreed, 10% of them were neutral and only one respondent strongly disagreed.

 Debates in the classroom can serve as an innovative teaching tool

When discussing results of the above statement, it is clearly observed that 43.3% of the respondents agreed that debates in the classroom can serve as an innovative teaching tool, 25% of them were neutral 21.7% strongly agreed, 8.3% of them disagreed, and only one respondent strongly disagreed. In spite of the variant percentage of the responses to this statement, using debate as a teaching tool will provide students with the ability to communicate successfully and think critically.
Debates in the classroom can serve as an innovative learning tool

The highest percentage (33.3%) of the respondents were neutral, 31.7% of them agreed that debates in the classroom can serve as an innovative learning tool, 25% of them strongly agreed, while 10% of them disagreed with the mentioned assumption. Most of the respondents thought that this could be done through using debate as a tool of learning. These responses supported the idea that debate is an experiential learning process that allows students to demonstrate their communication ability while presenting reasonable arguments based on evidence.

Debates improves the learner's verbal skill

Less than half of the respondents (45%) strongly agreed that debates improve the learner's verbal skills, 36.7% of them agreed, 11.7% of them were neutral, 5% disagree, and only one respondent strongly disagreed. These responses emphasize that debates have the ability to reinforce and enhance knowledge in a topic area, to engage students in the learning process, to verify that students have the ability to analyze, incorporate, and apply the literature to various situations, to heighten organization and listening skills, and to boost confidence when challenged on issues by others.

Dialogic teaching enhances the learner's argumentation skills

Result show that the majority of respondents (83.3%) stated that dialogic teaching enhances the learner's argumentation skills (43.3% agreed and 40% strongly agreed), 11.7% of them were neutral, 3.3% of them strongly disagreed and only one respondent strongly disagreed. Argumentation is interactive tool promote learners to present a rationale for their actions.

Argumentation promotes high-level of thinking

Half of the respondents strongly agreed that argumentation promotes high-level of thinking, 26.7% of them agreed, 15% of them were neutral, 5% of them disagreed, and only 3.3% strongly disagreed.

Through dialogic teaching, the learner can develop the skill of questioning

The majority of the respondents (73.6%) believed in dialogic teaching method in developing questioning skill of the learners, (43.3% strongly agree and 33.3% agree), 16.7% of them were neutral, 5% of them strongly disagreed and only one respondent strongly disagreed.

Classroom questioning develops the learner's critical thinking skills

The result shows that the majority of respondents (86.7%) agreed that classroom questioning develops the learner's critical thinking skills (55% agree, and 31.7% strongly agree), 8.5% of them were neutral, while 5% of respondents did not agree with the mentioned assumption. Questioning is a good means of developing learners' speaking skills and thinking as stated by some respondents.

Dialogue is the most effective component of dialogic teaching

Results shows that 43.3% of respondents strongly agreed that dialogue is the most effective component of dialogic teaching, in addition, 31.7% of them agreed, 13.7% of them were neutral, 10% of them disagreed, and only one respondent strongly disagreed.
Debate is the most effective component of dialogic teaching

The results showed that almost one third of respondents (33.3%) were strongly agree and agree (respectively) that debate is the most effective component of dialogic teaching, 23.3% of them were neutral, 6.7% of them disagreed and only 3.3% of the respondents were disagreed with the above assumption.

Argumentation is the most effective component of dialogic teaching

Results showed that 36.7% of the respondents strongly agreed that argumentation is the most effective component of dialogic teaching, 35% of them agreed, 15% of them were neutral, 11.7% of them disagreed, whereas only one respondent strongly disagreed.

Questioning is the most effective component of dialogic teaching

The majority of the respondents (76.7%) believed in questioning as the most effective component of dialogic teaching (40% agree, 63.7% strongly agree), 15% of them were neutral, 5% of them strongly disagreed, 3.3% of them disagreed.

The interpretation of the classroom debate results

Classroom debates help students learn through friendly competition, examine controversial topics and “strengthen skills in the areas of leadership, interpersonal influence, teambuilding, group problem solving, and oral presentation.

Twenty students had been selected randomly from the sixth semester from the Department of English language – College of Education – Al -Fashir University to perform a classroom debate activity which is a part of this study. These students form the control group which was not introduced to debate techniques and skills. Students with the same number had been chosen from the sixth semester from the Department of English language – College of Arts – Al Fashir University to represent the experimental group which had been introduced to the techniques and strategies of debate such as debate organization, taking positions, refuting, rebutting and asking questions. The two groups performed a debate on "Which is more devil to our society poverty or illiteracy?" The two groups were assessed by two other English Language lecturers beside the researcher.

Evaluation (experimental and control group)

Results have shown that 45% of the respondent students (experimental group) have a very good performance in classroom debate activity, 40% of them were good, 10% of them were excellent, and only 5% of them were fair. On the other hand, the performance of 45% of the respondent students (control group) in the classroom debate activity was fair, 25% of them had poor performance, 20% of them were good, and only 10% of them had very good performance in the classroom debate activity. It is clearly observed that students who attended or participated in classroom debate training program gained new skills and techniques that affected their performance positively compared to the students who did not participated in the training program.

Qualitative analysis of the interviews

Forty English language teachers from thirteen Sudanese universities had been interviewed by asking them three questions. Regarding the first question "do you think that dialogic teaching
develops Sudanese university English students' dialogue, debate, argumentation and questioning skills?", All respondents agreed with this assumption except one and they thought that using such a method in teaching will help improving these mentioned skills because as stated by twenty-two interviewees that it is the most important factor in developing the four mentioned skills through promoting communicative skills, and enhancing learner self-confidence. Other five respondents stated that the importance of this method of teaching (dialogic teaching) came from the fact that it develops effective interaction among the learners. Four of respondent teachers thought that dialogic teaching enhances argumentative skills that enable students to develop critical thinking and logical reasoning through evidences.

Most of respondent teachers stated that dialogic teaching improves learners’ influence and speech mechanisms through teaching students to take turns and have positive roles. Also it gives students a chance to think critically, develop influence, and empower them to express their views freely and confidently. Only one respondent did not think that dialogic teaching is effective in developing dialogue, debate, argumentation and questioning skills of students because the teacher controls the class through this way, i.e. the teacher becomes the center of the class which restricts the ability of students in dialogue, debate, argumentation and questioning skills.

When discussing the effectiveness of the above mentioned skills in developing learners' speaking and thinking skills, almost all respondents stated that all the above skills, with more concentration on debate and argumentation skills which provide learners with chances to exchange and share their ideas with each others, so this will help them to expand their ideas and thoughts which will improve their thinking and speaking skills.

One of the interviewees believe that only dialogue and questioning skills suit student's knowledge and experience at this stage. Students at this level are unable to use debate and argumentation skills in class. Another interviewee said that dialogue is the most effective skill because all students can participate through using dialogue. He also stated that questioning technique is important in refreshing learner's ideas and thoughts.

Most of the interviewed teachers stated that there are many challenges facing dialogic teaching in Sudanese universities such as the lack of enough time, motivation, students’ language proficiency levels and the influence needed to develop these skills. The major challenge is how to offer adequate training for teachers on modern techniques of dialogic teaching.

Results out of students' questionnaire, observational checklist and the analysis of the interviews
Analyzing the interviews, students' responses to the questionnaire and the performance of the participants in the classroom debate activity has come out with the following results:

1. Dialogic teaching provides an opportunity for students to be actively engaged.
2. Dialogic teaching enables students to develop the skills of argumentation, questioning and debate which contribute to the development of their thinking and speaking skills.
3. Dialogic teaching uses techniques such as dialogue, questioning, argumentation and debates to allow the teacher and his/her students to address the learning task together.
4. In dialogic teaching, learners are active participants in the teaching – learning processes.
5. Asking questions frequently during class discussion is positively related to good achievement in communication skills.

6. Debates as an active instructional strategy enhances learning particularly in the areas of developing thinking skills and oral communication.

7. Dialogic teaching develops learners’ thinking and speaking skills if it is applied on its scientific basis.

8. Dialogic teaching provides learners the opportunity to practice effectively speaking skills.

9. Dialogic teaching components are effective if students are given enough time to practice these skills.

10. These skills can be effective if they are practiced in authentic communicative situations.

11. The effectiveness of dialogic teaching depends on the teacher who is supposed to be of high proficiency and aware of these techniques.

Conclusion:
The components of dialogic teaching skills which had been tested throughout the research, they explained that they are effective and interactive in learners' speaking and thinking. The most essential results are explored by some interviewees who stated that dialogue skills and questioning skills are the most effective and applicable in the classroom than the other components of dialogic teaching. Moreover, debate includes questioning, argumentation and dialogue between the participating teams which proved that it is effective and inclusive component. Among some of the experts who were interviewed stated that argumentation is effective in developing learners' thinking skills if they are introduced to basic vocabulary and technique of claims and refutations.

Dialogic teaching is faced by a number of challenges such as the time available for both students and teachers, motivation to speak the language, proficiency level and fluency needed to develop such skills. In order to make dialogic teaching the interactive method to develop learners' speaking and thinking, the raised challenges should be addressed.

Summary
University students encounter difficulties to express themselves comfortably and efficiently either when dealing with academic topics or common every day topics. This study seeks to identify the effect of dialogic teaching methods on university students’ critical thinking. It is commonly believed that teachers rely on language that allows only minor flexibility when exchanging views with their students. Too frequently they either pose questions that target predefined answers or simply lecture through lessons. This paper displays the introduction of the Communicative Approach drawing on dialogic teaching which means using talk most effectively for carrying out teaching and learning. Dialogic teaching involves ongoing talk between teacher and students, not just teacher-presentation. Here we show the most effective components of dialogic teaching skills that stimulate teacher-student interaction. However, dialogic teaching is faced with some challenges which exemplified in lack of adequate fluency and students’ motivation.

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The impact of Dialogic Teaching on English Language


Using WhatsApp in EFL Instruction with Saudi Arabian University Students

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Abstract  
Messaging tools such as SMS are effective tools for foreign language learning. While many quasi-experimental studies confirm efficacy and positive student attitudes towards these types of tools, little is known about existing teaching practices that utilize messaging tools in tertiary contexts, or the attitudes of students or instructors towards them. This qualitative study investigates the use of WhatsApp, one popular messaging application, in teaching English as a Foreign Language (EFL) through examining the attitudes of Preparatory Year students and faculty members at a university in the central-north of Saudi Arabia. Thematic analysis of focus group interviews indicated that WhatsApp is used in EFL instruction for information exchange, language learning support, and language practice. This is achieved through teacher-directed learning, peer learning, and autonomous learning instructional strategies. Thematic analysis also identified the affordances and affective outcomes of using WhatsApp. Student and faculty attitudes towards WhatsApp were positive although some faculty members expressed reservations towards its use. It is argued that applications such as WhatsApp should be leveraged to encourage autonomous and peer learning, repositioning instructors as facilitators, and to develop learning communities. However, increasing the informal, anywhere-anytime learning supported by mobile learning must be tempered with guidelines for students regarding faculty contact hours and response times to allay faculty fears and encourage greater student autonomy.  

Keywords: application, attitudes, EFL Saudi students, mobile learning, WhatsApp

Introduction

Before the rapid development of mobile technologies and the appearance of mobile phone applications such as WhatsApp Messenger and Snapchat, Short Message Service (SMS) messaging was the primary means to send text-only messages between mobile phones. In education, teachers have used SMS messaging to support student learning through activities such as asking questions, sharing ideas, motivating students, providing feedback on lectures, and sending assignment reminders (Lominé & Buckingham, 2009). For students in higher education, SMS is perhaps the most popular mobile technology because of its ubiquitous nature and two-way communication capabilities (Premadasa & Meegama, 2016). Additionally, since its inception, SMS messaging has given students access to essential information and offered a platform for support groups and collaborative activities.

Rapid improvements in mobile technology have resulted in an increasingly sophisticated number and range of messaging applications. One such application is WhatsApp, a messaging application for smart devices that can be used as an alternative to SMS. WhatsApp is an Internet-based social network tool that provides greater functionality than SMS and allows users to send and receive messages in a variety of media formats: text (that can be longer than SMS text), documents (e.g., PDF), emoji, photos, videos, users' locations, and voice or video calls.

In Saudi Arabia, WhatsApp is the most widely used social media tool, eclipsing Facebook, Skype and Snapchat (Al-Shehri, 2014; Fattah, 2015; Fodah & Alajlan, 2015). Due to its popularity, it is not surprising that Saudi Arabian students and their instructors have adopted WhatsApp for various educational uses. To add to the growing literature in this area, this paper explores the use of WhatsApp to support English as a Foreign Language (EFL) instruction in a university in Saudi Arabia.

Literature Review

Effect of SMS Messenger and WhatsApp on English language learning

In the field of language learning, the use of SMS messaging as a tool for supporting learning elicits positive outcomes (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; Librero, Ramos, Ranga, Tríñona, & Lambert, 2007; Lu, 2008; Saran, Cagiltay, & Seferoglu, 2008). For example, the use of SMS for learning English vocabulary by Asian students proved more effective than using hard copy materials for vocabulary retention and retrieval (Lu, 2008; Zhang, Song & Burston, 2011). Similar results were seen with Iranian EFL learners, for whom reading comprehension was improved through SMS-based English instruction (Motallebzadeh & Ganjali, 2011). Further, this positive effect is not limited to the learning of English, as was demonstrated by Levy and Kennedy (2005; Kennedy & Levy, 2008), who found using SMS to send words, idioms, and example sentences to learners of Italian in English-speaking Australia improved prompt recall and retention.

Associated with the development and availability of smartphones, a growing number of more sophisticated messaging applications have emerged. Not only can these applications do more, but also generally cost less to use than SMS messaging. WhatsApp Messenger is one globally popular example of a social network application with more than one billion users.
WhatsApp in over 180 countries (WhatsApp, 2017). In Saudi Arabia, WhatsApp is the most widely used social media tool (Table 1).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Application</th>
<th>Active users (million)</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WhatsApp</td>
<td>8.59</td>
<td>27%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Facebook</td>
<td>6.37</td>
<td>20%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skype</td>
<td>4.45</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Snapchat</td>
<td>4.41</td>
<td>13%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

WhatsApp is particularly popular because its enhanced capabilities allow users to interact in a variety of ways. For example, WhatsApp allows users to exchange text messages one-to-one or as group conversations. Additionally, users can share documents and a variety of multimedia types as well as making voice or video calls. With this functionality, WhatsApp is a useful learning tool that makes posting, sharing content and engaging in online discussions easy and available anywhere and anytime (Jain, Eddy Luaran, & Rahman, 2016).

For foreign language learning, WhatsApp is a popular and effective means of using mobile messaging (Alsaleem, 2013; Castrillo, Bárzeca & Martín Monje, 2014; Lam, 2015; Plana et al., 2013; Taj, Ali, Sipra, & Ahmad, 2017). As is the case for SMS more generally, WhatsApp supports the development of language skills including vocabulary, pronunciation, reading, and writing. In addition, WhatsApp, owing to its novel potential as a collaborative learning medium compared to SMS, improves meaning negotiation (Castrillo et al, 2014); the transferal, sharing and construction of language knowledge (Lam, 2015); and active communication among students and teachers (Jain et al., 2016).

A number of quasi-experimental studies have examined the use of WhatsApp in the Saudi Arabian context, reflecting the popularity of WhatsApp in the region. The use of WhatsApp for English language learning has been shown to improve all aspects of English usage including writing (Alsaleem, 2013; Fattah, 2015); reading (Hazaea & Alzubi, 2016); speaking (Alsaleem, 2013; Almekhlafy & Alzubi, 2016); and knowledge of vocabulary and word choice (Alsaleem, 2013; Taj et al., 2017); and idioms (Basal, Yilmaz, Tanriverdi, & Sari, 2016).

In a Preparatory Year context, similar to the one that is the focus of the current study, students participating in computer-based and WhatsApp vocabulary learning activities performed significantly better in post-testing than students learning vocabulary in a traditional face-to-face class (Taj et al., 2017). Complementing, Taj et al.’s (2017) quasi-experimental study, and one of few studies of SMS or WhatsApp to include qualitative analysis, Hazaea and Alzubi (2016) found that using WhatsApp improved the reading practices of Preparatory Year students at a University in Saudi Arabia, and perhaps more significantly, increased their reading activity.

To summarize, research studies have demonstrated SMS and in particular WhatsApp, to be an effective tool for English language learning. Students using SMS and WhatsApp outperformed students exposed to traditional means of instruction utilizing face-to-face teaching and/or paper-based learning materials. Improved performance is evident across many aspects of English usage, including writing, speaking, reading, pronunciation and vocabulary.
Attitudes towards the use of SMS Messenger and WhatsApp in language learning

One contributing factor to the effectiveness of English language learning through mobile technology is the positive attitudes of students towards this platform. Indeed, many studies report positive attitudes towards the technologies in use alongside improved learning in students. SMS was found to be very effective and motivating for Turkish universities and school students for learning English vocabulary (Saran et al., 2008). Similarly, students expressed positive attitudes towards formal, SMS-based learning of vocabulary in Taiwan (Lu, 2008) and Australia (Kennedy & Levy, 2008; Levy & Kennedy, 2005), alongside improvements in language. Further, mobile phones and SMS messaging have the potential to engage and empower the learner, especially in contexts where both formal and informal educational practices occur in parallel (Librero et al., 2007).

WhatsApp in particular has also been positively received by students, who report high levels of satisfaction with language activities that use the application (Plana et al., 2013) and high levels of motivation to participate in activities that exploit WhatsApp’s collaborative potential (Castrillo et al., 2014). Importantly, engaging in WhatsApp mediated language activities also has a positive impact on students’ confidence, improving their reading habits and willingness to read more in English (Plana et al., 2013). In the Saudi context, students hold positive attitudes towards mobile devices in supporting English language learning (Almekhlafy & Alzubi, 2016). Nearby, Omani students identified WhatsApp as the most useful application for their informal English learning (Alhadhrami, 2016). In contrast, despite the proven value of WhatsApp and SMS for learning English as part of formal instruction, the Omani students’ own attempts at using mobile devices to support language learning was frustrated by a lack of support from their English teachers. Indeed, many teachers either did not allow students to use mobile devices or provided them with limited guidance on how to use mobile device applications (Alhadhrami, 2016).

Teaching practices using SMS messaging and WhatsApp

A range of teaching practices incorporating messaging has been examined for their efficacy, using quasi-experimentation and classroom interventions. Many studies have focused on the use of SMS (Kennedy & Levy, 2008; Levy & Kennedy, 2005; Lu, 2008; Zhang, Song, & Burston, 2011) or WhatsApp (Basal et al., 2016; Taj et al., 2017) to send vocabulary, idioms and sentences to students. Other trialled practices include electronic journaling using WhatsApp to improve writing (Alsaeem, 2013).

Complementing this work, collaborative approaches to language learning have also been tested, such as using WhatsApp for group interactions aimed at improving reading comprehension (Hazaea & Alzubi, 2016; Plana et al., 2013); negotiating meaning in collaborative essay writing (Castrillo et al., 2014); and sharing activities, information and ideas in English between students and teachers (Almekhlafy & Alzubi, 2016). Also investigating the collaborative potential of WhatsApp, Lam (2015) explored a blended learning context, showing that students were engaged through transferring, sharing and constructing knowledge with their peers asynchronously and synchronously via WhatsApp.

To summarize, WhatsApp has quickly become ubiquitous amongst university students. In Saudi Arabia particularly, WhatsApp is the most used messenger application in learning both
among university students and for communication between students and their instructors (Fodah & Alajlan, 2015). WhatsApp can facilitate online collaboration and communication, encourage motivation, and improve student performance in foreign language learning.

To date however, research on WhatsApp for language learning has generally adopted a quasi-experimental approach that typically applies WhatsApp as a treatment in formal language learning contexts. Few studies have explored the use of WhatsApp in supporting the informal learning of English, nor documented the current everyday WhatsApp-mediated teaching practices in universities. Further, studies reporting attitudes focus on the attitudes of students arising as a result of interventions, as opposed to student attitudes towards mobile learning more generally. Significantly, studies all but ignore the attitudes of instructors, despite the fact that their negative attitudes can impede students using mobile technology for valuable informal learning (Alhadhrami, 2016).

As a means to address these gaps in the literature, this paper reports upon the use of WhatsApp in learning EFL in a tertiary education context. This is achieved through the presentation and analysis of data as captured through the voices of students and faculty members using WhatsApp at a university in the central-north of Saudi Arabia.

Method

Theoretical framework

The educational use of mobile devices and applications like SMS messaging and WhatsApp can be considered a form of informal learning (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009). Informal learning defined as ‘anywhere, anytime learning’ typically takes place outside of structured learning programs (Cavus & Ibrahim, 2009). Despite many of the uses of WhatsApp being found to have been initiated by faculty members at the study site, this usage typically took place outside of formalized instruction and so is considered informal learning.

Study context

The study took place at a university at a major urban centre located in the central-north of Saudi Arabia. The university comprises 12 faculties: Education; Sharia and Law; Science; Engineering; Community; Arts; Computer Science; Engineering; Medicine; Applied Medical Science; Dentistry; and Public Health, and provides undergraduate studies across all faculties and postgraduate studies in the faculties of Education and Science. The university has approximately 34,286 students enrolled across the various faculties, all of whom study on campus. As is the practice in all sectors of the Saudi education system, male and female students are segregated, and there are some differences in the curriculum studied by male and female students (Ministry of Education, 2017).

Before studying their chosen disciplines, all beginning undergraduate students at universities in Saudi Arabia must undertake a Preparatory Year (Ministry of Education, 2017; Yushau & Omar, 2007) to help bridge the gap between the public school system and the undergraduate system (Ministry of Education, 2017). As part of their Preparatory Year, students must study the English language. Proficiency in English is considered essential for university students because of greater demands on their English at the tertiary level. To support the teaching
of English, the study site has an English Center that employs 120 faculty members who provide English courses for all first-year students. The entire English program runs for 600 hours and comprises 20 hours per week of instruction across two 15-week semesters.

Study participants

Male students enrolled in English courses in the Preparatory Year and male faculty members from the English Center were invited to take part in a study designed to explore student and faculty attitudes towards the use of mobile devices in the teaching of EFL.

Data collection and analysis

Data was collected from both students and faculty members through their attendance at a focus group interview. There were three main purposes for conducting focus group interviews. First, to gather in-depth understandings of students’ and faculty members’ attitudes about their use of mobile technologies in supporting the learning and teaching of English. Second, to identify current practices with mobile learning. Third, to determine students’ and faculty members’ perceptions of the enablers and barriers in the use of mobile technologies as an instructional tool. The focus group interviews followed a semi-structured protocol which allowed for the exploration of participant-initiated topics of interest as they emerged in discussion.

Student and faculty members took part in separate focus groups led by the first author. All focus groups were audio recorded and transcribed. The student focus groups were conducted and initially transcribed in Arabic because the students had varying levels of English proficiency. Having an Arabic transcription in the first instance also allowed reference to be made to the original recordings. The student focus group interviews were then translated into English for coding and analysis. A second Arabic translator checked the English-translated transcripts completed by the first author for accuracy. The English language faculty member focus groups were all conducted, recorded and transcribed in English.

As the focus group interviews took place and interview transcripts were prepared and read, a rich story emerged from both students and faculty members of the use of WhatsApp to support the teaching and learning of EFL. Preliminary analysis revealed that WhatsApp was the most mentioned mobile application in the focus group interviews. As a result of both the richness of the data captured in the focus group interviews and the popularity of WhatsApp at the university, thematic analysis was applied to the focus group transcriptions to identify and code the emergent themes associated with the use of WhatsApp. Analysis was undertaken following the six-phase model presented by Braun and Clarke (2006): (a) familiarizing yourself with your data, (b) generating initial codes, (c) searching for themes, (d) reviewing themes, (e) defining and naming themes, and (f) producing the report.

Results

Focus group interviews

A total of 14 focus groups were conducted. The 49 student participants were divided amongst eight student groups (SFG1–SFG8) with an average of six students per focus group. The 30 faculty members were divided amongst six faculty member focus groups (FFG1–FFG6) with an average of five faculty members per focus group.
Uses of WhatsApp

Inspection of student and faculty member transcripts identified three distinct uses of WhatsApp amongst EFL students and English Center faculty members. These were:

- information exchange,
- language learning support, and
- language practice.

These uses of WhatsApp were both student-initiated and faculty member-initiated with interactions via WhatsApp being either one-to-one or as a group.

The first distinct use of WhatsApp was the facilitation of information exchange between students and faculty members and between students with each other. There was no mention of faculty members exchanging information with each other via WhatsApp. Typically, information exchange was for course-related information such as due dates and examinations:

> Recently, there has been communication between the teacher and students through creating a group on WhatsApp by the teacher for his students, and they use it to send information, for example our next test reminder, etc. (SFG7)

The second use of WhatsApp was for language learning support. Generally, these interactions happened outside of class hours and were usually in the form of students seeking clarification from the English Center faculty members:

> For example, if there are things I didn’t understand after an explanation, I could use my mobile phone because you send or take the photo of a page and send it to the teachers [via WhatsApp] so the teacher can explain, and this simplifies your question quickly or gets the information that you need. (SFG3)

Similarly, another student said:

> If I search for the meaning of a word in the dictionary and its meaning isn’t clear to me, I can ask the teacher for the meaning via the WhatsApp group, and he clarifies the meaning because he can explain it clearer than the dictionary. (SFG8)

The ability of WhatsApp to support a range of media types was also apparent with students making use of the audio capabilities of WhatsApp to support their language learning:

> If you want to know [a word’s] pronunciation, you turn on the microphone and pronounce the word, and the teacher amends it for you, and this way you learn every day. (FFG3)

The provision of language support was not restricted to faculty members with students using WhatsApp to provide language support for each other:

> It’s the students who tend to correct each other [on WhatsApp]. The teacher might do some of the correcting, but often the students will do as well. It’s an organic development for everybody. (FFG5)
The third use of WhatsApp was in the provision of *language practice*. Such practice took two main forms. First, language practice initiated by faculty members. This type of practice was often centred on an activity and was more formal in its orientation. For example:

*I had a group of students, just last year, we had like a small reading club where I would post a different text for them to read and follow-up questions, and we would have a discussion within the WhatsApp group.* (FFG5)

Another example of a language practice activity was:

*The teacher created a group for us in WhatsApp... and started to give us a new word every day, its pronunciation, its meaning and how to use it in sentences.* (SFG1)

Second, WhatsApp provided students with opportunities for language practice in unplanned, less formal situations such as conversations with faculty members, sometimes with surprising results. One faculty member commented:

*When they [i.e., students] text you using WhatsApp outside the classroom, they are using the language you know in an authentic manner, which is really good, and you would be surprised some of the things that come from students who again, in the classroom, you get the impression that they aren’t learning or they are very weak.* (FFG5)

*Instructional strategies supported using WhatsApp*

Examination of student and faculty member transcripts identified three main instructional strategies supported using WhatsApp: teacher-directed learning, peer learning, and autonomous learning. The distinguishing feature of these instructional strategies was the location of the locus of control for learning - either with the students or faculty members.

Analysis indicated that most tasks using WhatsApp would be considered as being *teacher-directed* with the locus of control for learning situated with English Center faculty members. Many uses of WhatsApp mentioned previously, such as the reading club task (FFG5) and students being provided with a daily word to learn (SFG3), are examples of activities that were teacher-directed and controlled. *Peer learning* was evident with students correcting their peers’ pronunciation and grammar (FFG5). Finally, evidence of WhatsApp supporting *autonomous learning* was apparent with students taking the initiative to identify gaps in their English language understanding and seeking clarification from faculty members and their peers (SFG3, SFG5).

*Key themes from thematic analysis*

Thematic analysis of student and faculty member transcripts identified three major themes that comprised 10 sub-themes (Figure 1).
The first theme, *Affordances of WhatsApp*, comprises four sub-themes: personalisation, immediacy, flexibility, and interactivity. This theme captures the ‘affordances’ or built-in potential of WhatsApp when used to support EFL teaching and learning. Faculty members used WhatsApp to help provide students with a personalized learning experience. In one-to-one conversations, students could contact faculty members to rectify gaps in their understanding of the English language.

Supporting the personalized approach, WhatsApp was also able to provide a sense of immediacy to the learning process:

> [If you have a] question or information that you need, to know... it can even be in the mid-year holiday or before a test and you sometimes need to ask the teacher, you can contact him via WhatsApp, and he replies to you. (SFG3)

However, this sense of immediacy was not without its problems, as will be explored further in the theme *Affective Outcomes of using WhatsApp*.

The flexibility of WhatsApp reflects the flexibility of mobile technology in general. WhatsApp is superior to SMS text messaging because of its ability to handle a range of formats, including text, images, audio and video. Students and faculty members made use of the flexibility of WhatsApp as evidenced by students sending images of pages to faculty members for clarification (SFG3) and faculty members using the audio capability of WhatsApp to check and, when necessary, correct student pronunciation (SFG3).

Similarly, WhatsApp provided opportunities for interactivity. These interactions were either faculty member-initiated or student-initiated and either one-to-one or through WhatsApp groups. Importantly, WhatsApp encouraged interaction from some of the more reluctant students:

> I actually ... some of the students are particularly shy in the classroom, but in the WhatsApp group, somehow it literally ... it frees them to, you know, to make errors,
to correct one another, to even laugh at one another’s errors without being offended.
(FFG5)

The second theme, Learning English using WhatsApp, describes the nature of learning that occurs through using WhatsApp and comprises three sub-themes: informal, accessible, and teacher as facilitator. The informal nature of English language learning that emerges when using WhatsApp is due to the way messaging applications serve as student-centred, personal approaches to communication (Horstmanshof, 2004). The informality of the medium helps breakdown some of the formality of classroom-based English language instruction. This can create an outside of classroom environment that is distinctively different:

Culturally, the class requires a certain decorum from them [students], personal decorum and not just in their language, whereas the WhatsApp group is quite a different personal decorum required or permitted, kind of like creating two completely different social settings. (FFG5)

Students felt more comfortable when using WhatsApp to communicate as evidenced by the participation of shy students in WhatsApp discussion groups (FFG5). As described earlier, using WhatsApp can shift the locus of control of learning from faculty members to students. WhatsApp encourages this by providing an informal conduit between students and their instructors:

[WhatsApp] helps support contact between the teacher and the students. (SFG6)

WhatsApp also provides an opportunity for connections with fellow students outside of the formal classroom and independent of the instructor:

There is a communication through contact WhatsApp groups without the teacher, just among the students. (SFG2)

Two features can characterize the accessible nature of learning English using WhatsApp. First, the anytime-anywhere capabilities of mobile technologies enable users to engage with the learning at times of their own choosing. Applications like WhatsApp allow students to “exploit small amounts of time and space for learning” (Traxler, 2007, p. 8). This is important in a language learning context because “regular practice in short bursts is to be encouraged, whether [students] are on campus or off, and under time pressures or not” (Kennedy & Levy, 2008, p. 316.). Second, English language learning is accessible because mobile technologies are the technologies students engage with every day (Kennedy & Levy, 2008; Mellow, 2005). The popularity of WhatsApp amongst the student body means that it is accessible to a wide range of users:

WhatsApp, most people have this application. (SFG5)

WhatsApp is able to support learning based upon the concept of teacher as facilitator. The student-initiated interactions with faculty members afforded by WhatsApp acts to shift the locus of control for learning away from faculty members to the students. This shift changes the role of faculty members from instructor to facilitator, answering student-directed enquiries.
The theme, Affective Outcomes of using WhatsApp, comprises three sub-themes: confidence, trust and concern. Thematic analysis identified three broad types of feelings associated with the use of WhatsApp for English language learning. First, WhatsApp instilled a sense of confidence in the students. This was evident with students who were reluctant to speak in face-to-face classrooms but felt confident enough to participate in the WhatsApp group discussions (FFG5). Also, during the WhatsApp group discussions, students were confident enough in their English language to skills to be willing to correct their peers’ pronunciation and grammar (FFG2).

Some faculty members, however, expressed a lack of confidence in using WhatsApp to support their English language teaching:

*Personally, I would be scared to take on a WhatsApp group. I would think … well I, I don’t know how to go about it. I would need to somebody who had done it to build my confidence to do that.* (FFG5)

Second, the use of WhatsApp also helped engender a sense of trust amongst student and faculty members. For example, students had sufficient trust in their peers to be able to participate in WhatsApp groups and be free of embarrassment if they made an error in their English:

*The WhatsApp group … it frees them to, you know, to make errors, to correct one another, to even laugh at one another’s errors without being offended, and I know they … that there were, there were no offences taken because we would meet in person again. You could see that there was no animosity or anger between them for laughing at each other within the WhatsApp group.* (FFG5)

Trust was also evident between faculty members and students with some faculty members trusting students with their personal contact details:

*I sometimes give my mobile number to my students as a class, but I also tell them this is for when an emergency…. This is for this purpose, use it for that, and that’s fine. And I would say 99% of the time, they respect that.* (FFG5)

Third, the use of WhatsApp caused some feelings of concern, particularly for some faculty members. One major concern was that WhatsApp might be used inappropriately in the classroom:

*Sometimes they [students] use mobile phones for watching videos, and WhatsApp or something like that can distract the students in general.* (FFG2)

Faculty members also expressed concern over the ease WhatsApp could be accessed during class time:

*When a student takes out his phone to use a dictionary, even google some information because smart phones are so quick these days, you can check the dictionary meaning, and then in a second you could check a message on WhatsApp – just slide your finger*
Some faculty members were also concerned about the ease of access to themselves:

*I think social network applications ... I choose not to use it. I am not a fan because I feel, if you have to have a student example on your WhatsApp, he would be asking you grammatical questions at 10 at night, you see, so with the chat programs, there is no deadline or there is nowhere that you can stop students chatting to you, asking you questions. They can ask you questions at any time.* (FFG6)

Finally, faculty members expressed concern over the conflict that arose when instructed by their supervisors not to use mobile devices or WhatsApp with their students:

*When we met with the Heads of the Department, they emphasized or we emphasized on keeping yourself away from students and not to have relations. So, in such cases, teachers are not encouraged generally to have like WhatsApp groups.... Many times, they told us: “Keep yourself away. Your phone should not be with your students. Just stick to what you do inside the class.”* (FFG5)

Discussion

Analysis of the transcripts identified three main types of use of WhatsApp in EFL instruction. First, WhatsApp facilitated information exchange among students and between students and faculty members. Typically, information exchange was for course-related information and assisted in the management of instruction. Second, WhatsApp provided language learning support, with interactions generally happening between students and faculty members outside of class hours and usually in the form of students seeking clarification from the English Center faculty. Particularly evident was the ability of WhatsApp to support a range of media types such as audio in supporting language learning. Third, WhatsApp facilitated in the provision of language practice. This language practice took two main forms: language practice initiated by faculty members and language practice initiated amongst students.

Examination of student and faculty member transcripts also identified three main instructional strategies employed in the use of WhatsApp: teacher-directed learning, peer learning and autonomous learning. While teacher-directed learning was the primary instructional strategy of the employment of WhatsApp, peer learning and autonomous learning were also evident. The use of WhatsApp in a teacher-directed manner is not surprising because teacher-directed learning is the main instructional strategy used in Saudi Arabia, particularly in EFL classrooms (Grami, 2012; Tanielian, 2017). However, the informal use of WhatsApp by the students acted to shift the locus of control for learning from the teacher to the student. This allows for greater student autonomy in EFL learning through collaboration with their peers and provides learners with more exposure to the target language in ways that are both engaging and motivating, confirming the findings of previous studies (e.g., Lam., 2015; Lominé & Buckhingham, 2009; Lu, 2008; Saran et al., 2008).
Thematic analysis identified three emergent themes from the student and faculty member transcripts. The first theme, *Affordances of WhatsApp*, captured the ‘affordances’ or built-in potential of WhatsApp when used to support EFL teaching and learning. Similar to previous studies in EFL (e.g., Jain et al., 2016), the personalized, immediate, flexible and interactive nature of mobile devices in general and WhatsApp in particular, were identified as being central to the effectiveness of WhatsApp as a tool for EFL instruction. The popularity and widespread use of WhatsApp in Saudi Arabia is what helps make WhatsApp a very powerful learning tool; one in which its identified affordances can be realized and utilized within EFL contexts.

The second theme, *Learning English using WhatsApp*, described the informal nature of the learning arising through using WhatsApp. It also cast the role of the faculty members responsible for the delivery of English language learning in a different light as facilitators. Although analysis showed that many of the interactions taking place using WhatsApp were teacher-directed, this type of learning was still considered informal as it took place outside of structured learning programs, meeting the criterion for informal learning outlined by Cavus and Ibrahim (2009). Faculty members who recognized the affordances of WhatsApp used this mobile application informally to support their formal teaching programs.

The third theme, *Affective Outcomes of using WhatsApp*, encapsulated the broad types of feelings associated with the use of WhatsApp for English language learning. Both positive and negative feelings were identified. At a positive level, the use of WhatsApp engendered a greater level of student confidence in their English language learning, mirroring the attitudes of students towards WhatsApp-mediated formal learning interventions (Plana et al., 2013). The use of WhatsApp was also associated with levels of trust amongst students themselves and with faculty members. However, faculty members expressed concerns over the use of WhatsApp, confirming student perceptions of teachers’ attitudes revealed by Alhadhrami (2016). One concern was the inappropriate use of WhatsApp in the classroom particularly because mobile devices and applications are currently not officially sanctioned for use at the study site. The second concern expressed by faculty members was that WhatsApp made them more accessible to students, especially after hours. In such, a situation the anywhere-anytime affordances of mobile devices in general are seen more as a liability than an asset.

**Conclusion**

Confirming the findings of previous literature, WhatsApp continues to be a popular and effective mobile application in the support foreign language learning. This paper adds to the literature on the use of WhatsApp in EFL contexts by analysing the words of students and faculty members about their current WhatsApp-mediated teaching practices for English language learning at a university in Saudi Arabia. It provides further insight into how WhatsApp is used in English language learning, the learning approaches its use encourages, and the feelings it evokes in its users.

Five practical recommendations can be made from the results of this study. First, mobile applications such as WhatsApp allow instructors to take on a greater facilitation role in their teaching. Instructors should embrace such a change because this can lead to their students being more engaged and motivated (Lam, 2015; Saran et al., 2008), and empowered (Librero et al.,
2007). Second, instructors should encourage and provide greater opportunities for autonomous and peer learning. Shifting the locus of control of learning to the students can help avoid an over-reliance on instructors by their students that may arise because of the increased accessibility to instructors brought about by messaging applications such as WhatsApp. Third, as a result of this increased accessibility, instructors need to set parameters around their contact hours. Students need to be informed both of the times when it is appropriate to contact their instructors and the appropriate amount of time in which to expect a response. Fourth, the informal anytime-anywhere learning that can be supported by mobile applications such as WhatsApp should be encouraged, particularly for foreign language learning. These types of informal learning opportunities provide increased opportunities for practice and exposure to the target language, which has been shown to lead to positive learning outcomes (Lu, 2008). Finally, instructors should work to build a learning community amongst their students and themselves. This research demonstrates that a number of the key building blocks required for learning communities to form (sense of identity, common purpose, and trust) are evident in the use of WhatsApp. Instructors can leverage this to take advantage of the benefits of learning communities such as, fostering student engagement, and building and sustaining productive learning (Pike, Kuh & McCormick, 2011; Shea, Li, Swan & Pickett, 2005).

This study has a number of potential limitations. First, the data represents the perspectives of a cohort of students and their instructors at a single study site. Research should be conducted at a range of study sites to determine the generalizability of the study’s results. Second, as is the norm in Saudi Arabia, the university study site is segregated by sex. Accordingly, the study captured the perspectives of only male students and male faculty members. The perspectives of female students and female faculty members should be sought to determine if they are similar to the perspectives of male students and male faculty members.

What might be the best practices to follow when using mobile technology in a learning environment still remains an under-researched area (Premadasa & Meegama, 2016). This paper adds to the literature by exploring the ways in which WhatsApp Messenger can support English as a Foreign Language instruction. Future research might explore further and expand upon the key themes identified in this paper and shed further light on the instructional strategies supported by the use of mobile messaging applications such as WhatsApp.

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The Effect of Using Authentic Videos on Training Center and Community Service Students' Prosodic Competence and Motivation

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Abstract
This study aims at investigating the effect of using authentic videos on training center and community service students' prosodic competence and motivation. Its sample consisted of 50 male students randomly chosen from Training Center and Community Service at King Saud University, Saudi Arabia, and assigned to experimental and control groups of 25 students per each. Its data were gathered within a two-month period using a pre-post-test design for equivalent groups. The researcher taught both groups deliberately using contrasting instructional approaches; the first were solely exposed to textbook content, excluding all visual aids throughout the process; whereas the second had authentic videos incorporated. As his work pressed ahead, these methodological techniques variably had a visible influence on the trainees’ in-class interactivity, attentiveness, and keenness to grasp information. Accordingly, the findings show the experimental group's students bolstered their prosodic competence and motivation. To recap, the use of authentic videos in teaching and learning English has a positive effect on the said prosodic competence and motivation domains.

Keywords: authentic videos, exposure, motivation, prosodic competence, trainee students

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Introduction and Background

Several research leaders in the field of applied linguistics and instructional technology focus on a more effective integration of relevant computer technology into learning and teaching of targeted languages, in a bid to highlight adequately the prosodic factor of the said processes.

Applied linguistic research on the teaching and learning of pronunciation has grown steadily over the last two decades, triggered by the adamant need to revolutionize the typical conventional approaches to handle discouraging shortcomings of a nonverbal aspect of acquisition. This effort gained momentum particularly in the second half of the 1990s until today, and also displayed specialists' keenness to tackle long-standing obstacles impeding development of this domain. Relevant concentration underscores significance and value of pronunciation, not just as a plausible means to promote near-native accents, but more substantially on attempts to foster communication in diverse real situations. Thus, handling individual sounds and phonemes leading to sentence-level stress and intonation has become a must in language teaching (Hardisom, 2009).

The main goal is, therefore, to integrate segmental and supra-segmental aspects, in discourse and interaction, and to suggest an advanced framework to study a given foreign language pronunciation.

The integration of prosodic aspects in the language teaching was somehow shelved due to delicate obstructions encountering efforts in this field, primarily lack of knowledge on adequate prosodic processes for linguistic and technological needs, negligence of the diverse difficulties in the prosody-driven acquisition, and problems of intonation and other prosodic phenomena, like rhythm and voice quality. This reality persisted unfortunately and unexpectedly for many years (Hirata, 2004).

Prosodic pronunciation problems are pervasive. Various acoustic, or even grammatical means, are necessary to produce the same prosodic results in different languages substantially, thus creating communication obstacles for given non-native speakers. For example, Japanese speakers of English put equal stress on each syllable, have troubles with schwa, insert vowels, have difficulties in understanding the link between stress placement and meaning, and have a low flat pitch (males) (Eskenazi, 1999).

Instructional technology can both provide training in production and perception of speech, and create environments to facilitate interaction. Pennington, as cited in Richards (1986), stresses the need to integrate language learning software to move to skill-based and task-based learning activities that not only offer users practice in listening comprehension, but also elicit and practice specific types of interaction, language forms, sound contrasts, or nuances of meaning signaled by intonation. Besides providing learners with auditory and visual feedback of their intonation patterns and engaging them in mutual dialogues, technology can be integrated into intonation instruction as a research tool. Tracking tools can be built into the software, so that it can serve simultaneously as a pedagogical tool, a data collector, and a testing instrument. In light of the above, this study primarily sheds light on the role of authentic videos on developing the learners' prosodic competence.
Review of Related Literature

This section introduces empirical studies, which are related to the use of authentic videos on training centers' students' prosodic competence and motivation. Several academic research papers have been conducted to pave road to create highly favorable learning environment. The relevant works are divided into three categories: the first presents studies conducted on authentic videos and their effect on English language skills; the second handles impact of authentic videos on the EFL learners' prosodic competence; the third discusses authentic videos and their influence on language students’ motivation. All studies are listed from the earliest to the latest.

(a) Studies Related to the Effect of Authentic Videos on English Language Skills.

Bataineh and Al-Abdali (2014) analyzes effect of using web-cam chat on the development of university learners' paralinguistic competence. The population of the study included 460 students majoring in English language and literature at the University of Jordan in Amman. The sample of the study consisted of 32 students registered for a Debate course, in the first semester of the academic year 2013-2014.

After reviewing the theoretical literature and the previous studies, the researchers identified the paralinguistic aspects of language to be studied, i.e. gestures, postures, facial expressions, gaze and eye contact, bodily movement, intonation, pauses, stress and rhythm, emotional tone of speech, and proximity. A pre-test was administrated to know the actual level of both groups, the control and the experimental, were exposed to a specific experience of teaching. The control group was taught traditionally while its experimental counterpart was taught via web-cam chat formally inside the lab and informally outside the classroom. Two months later, a post-test was administrated so as to find if any change occurred, if it occurred, to what extent, in what dimension, and in favor of which group. The results of the study indicated significant differences in favor of the experimental group, which was taught via web-cam chat. This could be an indirect suggestion for methodologists and curricula designers to emphasize the role of web-cam chat on developing learner's paralinguistic competence.

Suparno (2014) delves into effects of teaching speaking skills using authentic visual material compared to text material viewed from students’ creativity (An Experimental Study at the Second Grade Students of SMPN 14 Surakarta in the Academic Year 2013/2014). The objective of the research was to find out whether: (1) Authentic visual material is more effective than textbook material to teach speaking skills; (2) students with high creativity have better speaking skill than their counterparts with low inventiveness; and (3) there is an interaction between teaching materials and students’ giftedness in teaching speaking skills. The research was conducted in SMPN 14 Surakarta. The research population was the second grade students in the academic year of 2013/2014. The selected sampling technique was cluster random sampling that further generated two classes as the research samples covering 38 students of experimental class taught using Authentic Material and 38 students of control class taught using textbook material. The research instruments consisted of verbal creativity and speaking tests. The creativity and speaking tests were readable after they were tried out in another class. The findings of the research show that: (1) Authentic visual material is more effective than textbook material to teach better speaking skills; (2) students taught using authentic visual material have better speaking skills than their counterparts instructed resorting to textbook material; and (3) there is an interaction between...
teaching materials and students’ creativity to teach speaking skills. Therefore, it is recommended for English teachers to apply authentic material in speaking class to enrich students’ speaking skills.

Kretsai (2014) explores effect of using video materials in teaching of listening skills for university students. The purposes of this study were: (1) to foster listening skills of university students studying English with the use of video materials, and (2) to evaluate students’ attitudes towards the use of video materials in teaching listening skills. The participants of this study were 41 first-year English major students in the second semester of the academic year 2012 at Thanks in University, Thailand. They were selected by simple random sampling. The study was conducted over 20 teaching periods. The one-group pretest-posttest design was implemented in this study. The results showed the students’ English listening comprehension ability increased significantly after learning with videos and students had positive attitudes towards using videos in teaching listening skills.

Teguh (2014) investigates effectiveness of using descriptive videos in learning listening. This research is aimed to determine impact of using descriptive video in learning listening to find out students’ ability in learning listening at first year of SMK Islamiyah Ciputat. The method used in this research is the quasi-experiment with pretest posttest control group design. Based on the findings of this study, it can be concluded the use of descriptive videos to learn listening has a significant impact on students' listening ability.

Tuncay (2014) underscores results of a case study based on an integrated skills approach using feature movies (DVDs) in EFL syllabi at the tertiary level. 100 students took part in the study and data was collected through a three-section survey questionnaire: demographic items, 18 Likert scale questions and an open-ended question. Data and results of the survey revealed the integration of feature movies in the syllabus helped students in several ways: (1) improve language competence by watching, listening and speaking, (2) understand authentic language and culture, (3) increase fluency and integrated writing skill, (4) practice English for various functions and purposes, (5) learn vocabulary and authentic expressions, (6) distinguish between artificial and natural use of language, and (7) use the language in social exchanges and different international settings. Finally, some relevant suggestions and recommendations are given to handle pedagogical implications and drawbacks in the integration process of feature movies.

Hosseini (2013) analyzes impact of teaching listening strategy on comprehension of documentary videos. For the purpose of this study, 54 advanced EFL students, 27 in experimental group and 27 in its control counterpart, participated in this study procedure. In a 10-week-period, the experimental group went through a well-scheduled instruction in listening strategy. On the other hand, the control respondents didn’t receive any instruction in listening strategy. The findings of this study revealed that teaching listening comprehension strategies have significant influence on comprehension of authentic documentary videos.

Samaranayake (2012) scrutinizes effects of authentic materials and contextually-developed role-playing activities on the oral proficiency of Thai undergraduate students. The study was conducted at Prince of Songkla University, Thailand, during the first semester (June to
September) of 2010. It consisted of four research instruments and the data were analyzed using Independent Samples t-test to determine whether the authentic materials and contextually-developed role-playing activities had improved the students’ oral fluency and accuracy in the target language. The findings indicated statistically significant differences between the two groups, wherein the experimental group performed better on both fluency and accuracy than its control counterpart. Therefore, based on the findings of the current study, it can be concluded authentic materials and contextually-developed role-playing activities involving a series of sequential events are effective in enhancing learners’ oral proficiency in programs of English as a foreign language in the context of Thailand English education.

Abbad (2012) studies effectiveness of using movies as an authentic material to develop students’ speaking ability of the eleventh grade students. In this study, teacher and students cooperated together in teaching and learning process. Teacher gave clear instruction about what the students should do when they watch a movie. This study is aimed at enabling students to explore their original thoughts themselves. The purposes of the study were: 1) Find out students’ speaking ability before being taught using movies. 2) assess students’ speaking ability after being taught using movies. 3) unravel significant different score before and after being taught using movies. The findings of the study showed significance of using movies in teaching this particular skill on student’s achievement as displayed before and after the process. In other words, this authentic material can be used as an alternative in teaching speaking.

Al-Issa (2011) ponders on effect of using videos on 11th grade EFL students’ socio-cultural competences. The aim of her study was to scrutinize impact of using videos on making students more socio-culturally competent. According to its results, it was clear scores of the experimental group were better than its control participants and level of the experimental group's competence on the socio-cultural aspects of language improved after exposure to authentic materials over 10 weeks; while there was no improvement in the proficiency of the control respondents. Al-Issa concludes integration of videos has a positive effect on the socio-cultural competence of the EFL students and language cannot be taught without its culture.

Bataineh (2010) conducted an experimental study on effect of instructional audio-visual technologies on the socio-cultural competence of the EFL learners. The findings of this study suggested the tenth grade students of English had developed their cultural knowledge over two months of a semester through exposure to instructional audio-visual technologies. Multimedia had an effect on the learners' socio-cultural competence, in the sense that it increased their overall cultural knowledge of the English language community.

Gilmore (2008) investigates effects of the potentials of authentic materials to develop learners’ communicative competence. The research described in this thesis reports on a 10-month quantitative/qualitative classroom-based study, carried out at a Japanese university. The potential of authentic materials to develop learners’ communicative competence is substantially involved. It hypothesized the ‘richer’ input provided by authentic materials, along with appropriate awareness-raising activities, would better develop a range of communicative competencies in learners’ (linguistic, pragmalinguistic, sociopragmatic, strategic and discourse) potentials. The qualitative results of the trial helped to account for these differences in performance, suggesting
that the authentic materials, and their associated tasks, allowed learners to notice a wider range of discourse features than those generally available in textbook input.

**(B) Studies Related to the Effect of Authentic Videos on the Prosodic Competence.**

Al Bataineh (2014) studies effect of using authentic videos on the prosodic competence of foreign language learners. It is hypothesized worldwide that authentic videos have a positive effect on the EFL learners’ prosodic competence. The population of the study included 32 students majoring in English Language at Taibah University in Kingdom of Saudi Arabia during the academic year 2011/2012. The results of the study revealed there was much progress in the experimental group, which significantly outperformed its control counterpart in the different aspects of prosody, but did not show much progress in the prosodic aspects related to intonation, pause and juncture. These findings confirm the hypothesis such videos can have a positive effect on the EFL learners' prosodic competence.

Ebru Atak (2014) investigates effects of videos on the development of English stress and intonation of first grade EFL learners in an ELT Department at a public university in Turkey. 44 EFL learners participated in the study on a voluntary basis. 24 learners, assigned as the test group, were given a list of videos and an online tutoring program and relevant assignments as a supplement to a 3-hour listening and pronunciation course each week. The findings of the study indicate videos were much more effective in improving the EFL learners’ ability to produce and perceive different stress and intonation patterns in words, phrases and sentences compared to the online tutoring programs. They also reveal the students feel more comfortable themselves in self-study aimed to improve intonation and stress in English.

Seyed Jalal (2013) explores effectiveness of listening to audio-stories on fostering EFL learners’ pronunciation. Two intact classes at Novin institute in Gorgan, Iran, were randomly selected and assigned into two different groups, experimental and control. The experimental group received training through listening to audio-stories as a strategy to improve pronunciation for eight sessions, while the students in the control group received a placebo. The obtained results showed there was a significant difference between the means of the experimental group and its control counterpart and an improvement was observed in the learners’ overall pronunciation proficiency in the posttest. The finding also displayed the program designed on the basis of audio-stories was effective in enhancing learners’ motivation in improving pronunciation.

Abdullah (2011) looks into impact of two self-assessment tools, namely video-recording and self-reflection papers, on the learners’ communicative (verbal) and paralinguistic (non-verbal) performance in a communication and presentation skills course at Cairo University Faculty of Engineering. An online survey was conducted at the end of the semester to investigate students’ perception on how the assessment tools affected their presentation performance throughout the course. Survey results showed a favorable attitude towards watching the videos and writing reflection papers. Students unanimously agreed that watching their video-recordings has had a positive influence on their subsequent presentation performance.

Mustika (2010) analyzes effect of using cartoon films to improve pronunciation ability. The method used in this research was a collaborative action research. The research was conducted in two cycles from March 10th until May 3rd 2010 at the eighth grade of SMP Negeri 1 Kaliwiro.
The research data were collected by using techniques of observation, interview, diary, document, and test (pre-test and post-test). The research findings revealed cartoon films could improve the students’ pronunciation ability. The improvement of the students’ pronunciation ability included: a) students made fewer mistakes in producing particular sounds b) They also made fewer mistakes in reading a dialogue using English stress pattern c) They were able to produce falling intonation.

MitSuru (2004) delves into effectiveness of animated graphic annotations and immediate visual feedback for improving Malaysian learners’ pronunciation of Japanese words. The results show both animated graphic annotations and immediate visual feedback helped learners improve their pronunciation, but to differing degrees. These results are not surprising because our ongoing investigation of cognitive styles and abilities indicates there is no single mode of learning deemed helpful to all learners. Learners learn most successfully with the type of information that is best suited to their cognitive style.

(C) Studies Related to the Effect of Authentic Videos on English Language Students' Motivation.

Baalla and Bencharef (2012) investigates effect of using videos as a motivational factor in enhancing English as foreign language students’ communicative skill. The investigation carried out throughout this study attempted to examine this hypothesis: students are more motivated to learn and their communicative skills are improved if a given teacher uses video as a motivational aid in a systematic and appropriate way in the EFL classes. The questionnaires explored both teacher’s and students' perception about usefulness of videos as an effective technique for motivating learners and fostering their communicative skills. An immediate classroom observation has been used, too, for further data collection. The results revealed the learners’ satisfaction about their experience of learning with videos since they got easily motivated and perceived their communicative skills enhanced. From their part, teachers consolidated their learners and agreed on the advantages of teaching with videos.

Noticeably, most of the previous studies handled one variable, either students' prosodic competence or motivation. This present study deals with both variables; prosodic competence and motivation. Moreover, many of the previous works were conducted in English-speaking countries, and thus, this research is different from the other previous ones in its environment.

Statement of the Problem

From the long experience of the researcher and his peers in teaching English as a foreign language, their evaluations showed the average of students' pronunciation is meager. Diverse factors eventually converge to conduсе to this delicate dilemma embodied in the pronunciation-based output.

The researcher thinks this problem could originally emanate from teaching English without using technologies necessary and adequate to expose students to authentic English in real-life situations to acquire the non-verbal and supra-segmental aspects of language. Students utter English words inconveniently and spell them in a manner similar-or apparently- near to their pronunciation. Therefore, the FL learners' prosodic competence should be considered duly in
English as a foreign language (EFL) classes by integrating relevant authentic videos to master the prosodic aspects of language appropriately.

Moreover, the researcher holds a rooted belief the teaching of English without using the motivational technology aids will discourage students' productive pronunciation-driven patterns. Authentic videos help motivate students substantially, overcome their fears and concerns in this regard and affect their prosodic competence conspicuously.

**Significance of the Study**

The value of this study can be presented through several aspects related to integration of authentic videos in teaching the prosodic aspects of English. Therefore, the significance of this effort stems from the factors below:

(1) The current study is one of a few projects aimed to further highlight inevitability, practicality and effectiveness of teaching prosodic aspects through getting exposed to diverse authentic videos.

(2) The findings of the study is likely to help bolster pronunciation of English words correctly at Saudi training centers. Using authentic videos may spur students to develop their oral skills and ignite their motivation to learn as well. Moreover, students may feel easeful and more natural to get rid of their fear and shyness in this regard. Thus, this rigorous challenge will unleash their relevant capabilities, regularly revamp their epistemological reservoir and foster their attempts to integrate in eventual or imagined situations.

(3) The findings of this study may help educational planners to develop relevant English teaching methods driven by learners' feedback and aspirations, in a bid to interact comfortably in an ambience of technology-integrated classroom.

(5) The likely role of this study is to render teachers, supervisors, examiners, textbook writers and curricula designers of English focus more on authentic videos in teaching and learning a given situation, since pronunciation is an accumulative, productive, and interactive output. This will raise awareness in axing excessive preoccupation with unwanted traditional ways of delivering a pronunciation-based task.

(6) The study is expected to be of great use for the ministries of education in the non-native countries of English, especially for textbook writers to integrate English language textbooks with CDs that include recordings of native speakers' dialogues, debates and conversations on various topics of English as models for teaching the pronunciation of speech sounds, intonation, stress, pause, and juncture.

(7) The findings of this study may foster students' positive view of the importance of using authentic videos in enhancing their pronunciation; hence their respective prosodic understanding and competence.

(8) This study will hopefully add to the limited relevant literature available on using authentic videos in teaching the prosodic aspects of language in EFL contexts and students' reaction to integrate this technique in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia in particular and the Arab region as well.
The data presented in this study are also constructive to meet knowledge deficit pertinent to the variables affecting pronunciation achievement of Saudi EFL students, particularly in terms of circulating authentic videos in teaching the prosodic aspects of English.

**Questions of the Study**

The present study attempts to answer the questions below:

1. Are there any statistically significant differences between the experimental and control groups' prosodic competence due to the method of teaching (authentic videos integration vs. regular communication)?

2. In which prosodic aspect (intonation, pause, juncture, word stress, sentence stress) did the experimental group trainee students develop clearly as a result of using authentic videos?

3. Are there any statistically significant differences in the experimental group trainees' motivations before and after using authentic videos?

**Hypotheses of the Study**

The study hypothesizes the below:

**Ho1:** There are no statistically significant differences in prosodic competence at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ between the experimental group and its control counterpart due to the method of teaching (authentic videos integration vs. regular communication).

**Ho2:** There are no statistically significant differences at $\alpha \leq 0.05$ in the experimental group students' mastery of the prosodic aspects of language due to exposure to authentic videos.

**Ho3:** There are no statistically significant differences in the experimental group students' motivations before and after getting exposed to authentic videos.

**Variables of the Study**

Variables of the present study are below:

- The independent variable is the method of teaching, which has two levels: authentic videos integration vs. regular communication.
- The dependent variables are the students' achievement in pronunciation and their attitudes toward exposure to authentic videos in teaching the prosodic aspects of language.

**Operational Definitions of Terms**

- **Suprasegmental competence** (prosodic competence): It is a macro-linguistic term that refers to the prosodic aspects of language. It plays a role in decoding and encoding the precise meaning of the oral message in communication. It exposes learners' knowledge of pronunciation, intonation, stress, pause and juncture.

- **Authentic videos**: These are CDs, DVDs and YouTube videos that present an authentic image of everyday life of the English language community.

- **Intonation**: It is presumably thought of as the melody of language – the way voice goes up and down according to given contexts and meanings of communication. For example, note the difference in: His name is Ali? (rising pitch) – request. His name is Ali (falling pitch)-command.
- **Word stress**: It refers to a major prosodic aspect of language in which a certain word is used as a noun and as a verb according to the stressed syllable. Stress position changes the meaning of a given lexicon.

- **Sentence stress**: It is the way a speaker highlights certain words in each sentence. It helps a listener focus on significant parts and digest the speakers' intended meaning.

**Limitations of the Study**

Though the findings of the present study could be viewed as sound, important and appropriate to the pronunciation skill roughly and authentic videos integration in delivering prosodic aspects of language, it has some limitations. The first emerges as the study is restricted to two groups of Saudi trainee students at the Training Center and Community Service. Another obvious deficit is the limited sample size. Therefore, generalizations must remain tentative. A third concerns data collection in which they were elicited from one training center mentioned earlier. Other centers in other universities were not involved in the study. A fourth is pertinent to the prosodic features being destructed to pitch, rhythm, gestures, rhyme and tone. A fifth relates to the instruments, namely the performance test and questionnaire. Therefore, generalizing findings is connected to the validity and reliability of these said instruments. A sixth is the female trainees' absence; all the participants involved were males. If female students took part in the process, the results might be different.

**Methodology and Procedures**

**Participants**

The population of the study consisted of all Saudi EFL students at Training Center and Community Service at King Saud University. The sample of the study consisted of two randomly selected groups of fifty 17-18-year-old male Saudi students (experimental and control groups of 25 students each) enrolled in speaking training course in the second semester of the academic year 2015/2016. All participants are Arabic-native speakers. They were assured their responses will remain confidential and will be used for academic purposes only. Table 1 shows distribution of the study sample:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Method of teaching</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Authentic Videos</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Traditional</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Instruments of the Study**

In order to collect data of the study, the researcher used two instruments: an oral test, and an attitude questionnaire.

To assess effect of using authentic videos on Saudi students' prosodic and motivation, students of both sections sat for an oral test and a questionnaire at the beginning of the second semester in the academic year 2015 / 2016 to determine their prosodic competence and motivation. The test was based on freely selected materials. It consisted of one part, an oral test. It
measured their ability in speaking and listening skills. The subjects in both groups underwent a pre-test and pre-questionnaire to determine their actual level before starting the experiment, and the same test and questionnaire were administered as post-test and post-questionnaire at the end of the experiment to assess the subjects' prosodic competence and motivation. The time break between the pre-test and pre-questionnaire and the post-test and the post-questionnaire was eight weeks, a period long enough to reduce effect of pre-test and pre-questionnaire on the results and conclusions of the experiment. The test contained questions on listening and speaking skills that measured students' prosodic competence and motivation. The teacher informed the learners that neither the pre-test and the pre-questionnaire nor the post and the post-questionnaire would count to their final grade. The total scores for the listening and speaking skill were out of 100.

**Validity of the Test**

Validity, accuracy, clarity, appropriateness of the instrument, and the instrument design as a whole were checked by three professors and two English language lecturers. They checked the extent of measures and provided some comments and what is supposed to be. The test was modified according to their recommendations such as adding words, correcting sentences and clarifying rubrics of the questions.

**Reliability of the Test**

To make sure of the reliability of the test, the researcher used the test-retest and the questionnaire re-questionnaire on a pilot study with a four-weeks period between the tests and the questionnaires. The tests and the questionnaires were given to 20 students unincluded in the study. The correlation coefficient of the test (Pearson) was calculated. It was by two raters. The inter-rater reliability between them was 0.91 which is statistically acceptable for the purpose of this study. Besides, the average level of motivation was also found to be reliable.

**Validity and Reliability of the Questionnaire**

To ensure validity of the questionnaire, it was given to a jury of eight professors (two English language university professors, two experts of teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL), two evaluation and assessment specialists and two educational psychologists at King Saud University), to elicit their views as to the questionnaire's accuracy, clarity, and appropriateness. Then, the instrument was reviewed and modified according to their recommendations. Moreover, 15 participants were piloted to establish reliability of the instrument using Cronbach-Alph, which was found to be 0.88.

**Data Collection and Statistical Analysis**

The present study was carried out with Saudi students at the Training Center and Community Service at King Saud University following a randomized control-group pretest-posttest design. The subjects were randomly assigned to two groups. Each group was then designated at random to either the control group or the experimental one. The treatment consisted of two levels: using authentic videos alongside the traditional method and the regular communication procedure alone. The experimental group undertook the first level of treatment and the control one undertook the second level. The experimental groups were exposed to treatment for three 45-minute periods a week for the two-month duration of the experiment. Both groups were subjected to a pretest immediately before commencing the experiment and the same
The effect of using authentic videos on training center

The data were collected through a pretest-treatment-posttest design for equivalent groups and analyzed via the statistical package SPSS. An independent-samples T-Test was carried out to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences between the achievement of the two groups on the pretest. Table (2) represents the results.

Table 2. Results of Independent Sample T-Test for Pre-Test Group (Control vs Experimental)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>43.23</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>1.02</td>
<td>.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>46.63</td>
<td>2.66</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. shows that there are no significant differences between control and experimental groups for pre-test because the value of T (19) = 1.02, sig. = 0.082. This is a chunk of evidence indicating no significant differences between the two groups' students' prosodic competence for pre-test was found. Another independent-samples T-Test was conducted to determine whether or not there is a statistically significant difference between the two groups’ achievement on the posttest. Table3. shows the results.
Table 3. Results of Independent Sample T-Test for Post-Test Group (Control vs Experimental)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>50.21</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>10.35</td>
<td>.0001*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>82.31</td>
<td>8.64</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table (3) shows there are significant differences between control and experimental groups for post-test because the value of T (19) = 10.35, sig. = 0.00. This unravels significant differences in the mean between control and experimental groups for post-test; the difference was in favor of the experimental group.

Table 4. Means and Standard Deviations of the Experimental Group Students' Post-test on the Prosodic Aspects of Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaking Skill</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pronounce words accurately</td>
<td>23.14</td>
<td>.750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using appropriate intonation patterns for different kinds of sentences</td>
<td>18.42</td>
<td>.806</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using words stress and sentence adequately</td>
<td>19.53</td>
<td>.856</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using pause and junctures appropriately</td>
<td>21.22</td>
<td>.793</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4 shows mean and standard deviations of students' prosodic competence on the post-test. We can see a virtual difference between the means, and then, to test the significant difference between means we can use one-way ANOVA test. Table (5) shows the relevant details.

Table 5. One-Way ANOVA of the Experimental Group Students' Post-test on the Prosodic Aspects of Language

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Sum of squares</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>Mean square</th>
<th>FF</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Prosodic Aspects of Language</td>
<td>13.313</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.438</td>
<td>1.953</td>
<td>.062</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within groups</td>
<td>38.625</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.272</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>51.938</td>
<td>20</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* The results are significant at the α ≤ .05 level.

Table 5 shows One-Way ANOVA of Students' Post-test Scores by Group in the Speaking Skill, we can see there is no significant difference between criterion of the prosodic aspects of language.
language because the value of \( F = 1.953 \), \( \text{sig.} = 0.062 \). These evidences to no sig. difference mean between criterions of the prosodic aspects of language.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. deviation</th>
<th>DF</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>Sig</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Questionnaire</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>.516</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.002*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post-Questionnaire</td>
<td>4.46</td>
<td>.201</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 shows there are significant differences between pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire group for experimental group because the value of \( T(19) = 3.31 \), \( \text{sig.} = 0.00 \). This gives a chunk of evidence that there are significant differences between pre-questionnaire and post-questionnaire level of motivation for experimental group.

Results from the analysis suggest authentic videos are found to be a great opportunity in teaching and learning English compared to the regular method. In addition, authentic videos affect participants' motivation more positively.

**Discussion and Recommendations:**

According to the findings of this study, authentic videos were found to offer an invaluable opportunity to develop the EFL learners' prosodic competence. Concerned students performed better on prosodic competence by using authentic videos during their programmed exposure to this kind of teaching materials.

The T-Test results revealed that there were significant differences between the mean scores for both experimental and control groups in favor of the first. Differences between these two groups may be attributed to different methods of teaching; the experimental group was exposed to authentic videos technology and the control to regular instruction. The experimental group students apparently improved their prosodic competence through using authentic videos technology. Moreover, authentic videos are viewed as an effective tool in facilitating the learning process and fostering students’ prosodic competence.

Their scores in the post-test were statistically significant. Accordingly, the hypothesis which reads "There are no statistically significant differences between the mean scores of the experimental groups students' mastery of the prosodic aspects of language" at \( \alpha \leq 0.05 \) is rejected.

More importantly, after analyzing scores of the experimental group students' performance in each prosodic aspect of language, the researcher found out they have developed substantially in areas related to using pause and juncture, with mean 21.22, and pronouncing words accurately with mean 18.42; whereas their mean scores in intonation and stress were low in comparison with their performance in the other language prosodic aspects. The finding of the post-questionnaire revealed their level of motivation soared significantly as a result of using authentic videos.

This study represents a preliminary effort to empirically examine the effect of using authentic videos on training center and community service students' prosodic competence and
motivation in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia. Further research is needed to provide a thorough understanding of this significant issue, and as a bid to confirm its findings on a larger scale and volume. This is especially true with research conducted with more variables than those available in the present study. It is also recommended this study be replicated with a larger number of participants and over a whole semester or year. Moreover, it would be engaging and inspiring to compare results across levels of proficiency and gender as well.

Further research could seek to describe meticulously what teachers should precisely do with these videos in their own classrooms. It is also recommended other studies be conducted to investigate how students be trained to use such visual materials in their language learning. Moreover, teachers should encourage their students to use authentic videos in their learning inside and outside the class, emanating from the privilege these materials are highly beneficial in fostering mastery of English. Teachers also need to improve their ability in digesting videos' content in teaching English to change the way a given item is presented. This diverse effort will ultimately highlight constructiveness and feasibility of authentic videos, in a bid to use them effectively in textbooks, taking into account how to integrate such resources and to utilize them to bolster learners' oral performance. This will likely conduce to accrediting new syllabi relying heavily on authentic materials, in an endeavor to develop the EFL learners' prosodic competence.

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Morphological Analysis of the Glorious Qur'an: A Comparative Survey of Three Corpora

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Abstract
Some attempts have been made in the academic community to carry out an automatic morphological analysis of the Qur'anic text. Among the well-known endeavors in this regard is the morphological annotation of the Quranic Arabic Corpus (QAC) which was carried out in Leeds University, UK. In addition, researchers in the University of Haifa had previously implemented a computational system for the morphological analysis of the Qur'an. More recently, a new Quranic corpus has been built in Mohammed I University in Morocco. To the best of our knowledge, these are the only three studies to produce a morphologically analyzed part-of-speech tagged Qur'an encoded as a structured linguistic database. This paper surveys the morphological analysis in the above-mentioned annotation projects and compares between them to test the quality of their analysis using five criteria related to display of the text in the corpus, word segmentation, morphological disambiguation, part of speech (POS) tag set and manual verification. The paper concludes that the QAC of Leeds and the Quranic corpus of Morocco surpass the Quranic corpus of Haifa with regard to most of these criteria. Furthermore, some additional POS tags for derivative nouns are suggested in a step to reach a more fine-grained tag set that could be proposed for POS tagging of Qur'anic Arabic.

Keywords: Arabic morphological analysis, Arabic POS tagging, corpus annotation, corpus linguistics, the Glorious Qur'an

1. Introduction

Arabic is known for its rich and complex morphology, where words are explicitly marked for case, gender, number, definiteness, mood, person, voice, tense and other features (Maamouri et al. 2006). The Arabic morphological system is generally considered to be of the non-concatenative (or non-linear) type where morphemes are not combined sequentially, but root letters are interdigitated with patterns to form stems. A root is a sequence of mostly three or four consonants which are called radicals. The pattern, on the other hand, is represented by inserting a template of vowels in the slot within the root's consonants. This combination of root, pattern and vocalism is normally referred to as templatic morphemes. Thus, an Arabic word is constructed by first creating a word stem from templatic morphemes to which affixational morphemes are then added (Habash, 2007). Thus, a word in Arabic may contain up to five morphemes (i.e. a stem with a number of concatenated affixes). All elements are optional except the stem. This morphological nature of Arabic will be made clear in section 2 below.

Arabic has a number of varieties that are spoken across the Arab world. Two main varieties are widely used among the Arab countries and are understood by all Arabs. The first one is Classical Arabic (CA), which is the language of the Qur'an and Sunna (prophetic traditions). CA is normally written with diacritic marks above the consonants. This was basically done to help people to read such Arabic texts perfectly. The second variety is Modern Standard Arabic (MSA), which is the contemporary language that is used in newspapers, magazines, academic books, novels, TV shows, etc. MSA is written without diacritics on the consonants. Besides these two main varieties, there are other varieties that are classified as colloquial language or dialects. These dialects differ from one country to another and even from one part to another inside the same country. In fact, the situation in the Arab world is one of diglossia (Farghaly & Shaalan, 2009, Mahmoud, 2013), where two or more varieties of the same language are used by a speech community and each variety is used for a specific purpose and in a distinct situation (Ferguson, 1959). Thus, CA is the language of religion (the Qur'an and Sunna) and is used by Arabic speakers in their daily prayers while MSA is used in formal settings such as the media, the news, and the classroom. As for the regional dialects, they are confined to every day communication and are first acquired by Arabic children.

The Qur'an, written in CA, consists of 114 surahs (roughly ‘chapters’). These chapters comprise 6236 verses that contain roughly 77,800 words. The Qur’anic text is written with diacritic marks above the letters. This was basically done to help people to read it correctly. It should be noted that the Qur'an is a type of text that is difficult to compare with other forms of Arabic, since the vocabulary and the spelling differs from Modern Standard Arabic. In addition, the Qur’anic text is characterized by unique linguistic or rather rhetorical features, which should pose special interests and challenges for computational linguistics solutions (Sharaf & Atwell, 2009). The linguistic style of the Qur'an makes extensive use of many rhetorical devices such as foregrounding and backgrounding, grammatical shift, metaphors and figurative language, idiomatic expressions, culture-bound items, and lexically compressed items where lengthy details of semantic features are compressed and encapsulated in a single word (Abdul-Raof, 2001).
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Morphological Analysis of the Glorious Qur'an

Sabtan

Arabic morphological analyzers aim to identify and separate affixes (prefixes and suffixes) and clitics from the surface word and recover the root or the stem that may have undergone morphophonemic changes (Farghaly, 2010). Those analyzers also specify the grammatical categories (parts of speech) of words. Arab grammarians traditionally classify Arabic words into three main grammatical categories, namely noun, verb and particle. These categories could be classified into further sub-classes which collectively cover the whole of the Arabic language (Haywood & Nahmad, 1965). In addition, words are then morphologically analyzed with regard to those linguistic features such as number (singular, dual or plural), gender (masculine or feminine), case (nominative, accusative or genitive), definiteness (definite or indefinite), …etc. Thus, morphological analyzers classify words with their part of speech (POS) along with their morpho-syntactic features.

In this paper the author reviews the morphological analysis of the Qur'anic words in three corpora: (i) the Quranic Arabic Corpus (QAC) which is a collaborative web-based project carried out at Leeds University (ii) the Haifa Quranic Corpus (henceforth HQC) which was conducted at the University of Haifa and (iii) the latest annotated Corpus of the Qur'an which was built at Mohammed I University in Morocco. This corpus will be referred to as (MQC) which stands for "Mohammed I Qur'anic Corpus". Throughout the survey the strengths and weaknesses of the analysis in these corpora are discussed.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: in section two the complexity of Arabic morphology and the challenge of POS tagging are discussed. Section three sheds light on different computational efforts for the morphological analysis of the Glorious Qur'an. In section four a comparison is made between the three corpora: QAC, HQC and MQC. Section 5 shows the results of the comparison process. Finally, a conclusion of the paper is presented in section 6.

2. Arabic Morphological Analysis

Since Arabic is a highly inflected language with a complex morphological system, a word in Arabic may contain up to five parts as follows:

1. **Proclitics**, which occur at the beginning of a word, (e.g. conjunctions such as ٌأ“and”, َف“then”, prepositions such as ِب“with” or “by”, ُل“to”).
2. **Prefixes**, such as the prefix of the imperfective verb َي, the future marker ُس"will" and the definite article ُال“the”.
3. **A stem**, which can be represented in terms of a ‘root’ and a ‘pattern’, as described above.
4. **Suffixes**, such as verb endings, nominal cases, nominal feminine ending, plural markers …etc.
5. **Enclitics**, which occur at the end of a word, are complement pronouns.

For example, the Arabic word لٍكتبونٍها ُلٍكتبونٍها "to write it" contains the previous components as shown in table 1.
Table 1. An example showing Arabic word structure

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Proclitic</th>
<th>Prefix</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Enclitic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ل</td>
<td>ي</td>
<td>كتب</td>
<td>ون</td>
<td>ها</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As the previous table shows, the Arabic word لكتبونها liktbwnhA contains a number of affixes and clitics that have corresponding words in English. This applies to both vowelized and non-vowelized words. It should be noted that all concatenations and inflections are optional except the stem which is the obligatory element.

Arabic morphological analysis is a tough and complicated process due to the complex nature of Arabic morphology. This complex nature is most vivid in such cases where a single Arabic word could stand as a complete sentence, particularly in Qur'anic Arabic. For instance، فأسقيناكموه fa>asqayonaAkumuwhu “then we gave it to you to drink”, which is composed of a stem along with a number of affixes and clitics, gives the meaning of a complete sentence.

As pointed out earlier, one of the main functions of a morphological analyzer is to specify the POS category for each word. Generally, morphological analyzers are designed to generate all possible analyses of the analyzed words, indicating the potential POS categories for such words out of their context. But when context is taken into account, the process of determining POS categories is called POS tagging, word-class tagging or sometimes morpho-syntactic tagging. In this regard, a distinction is often made between morphological analysis problems (which are handled by a morphological analyzer) and morphological disambiguation problems (Habash et al. 2009). A number of POS taggers use morphological analyzers as one of their components. In other words, the morphological analyzer proposes a number of potential POS categories for input words and then the POS tagger chooses the right POS category for each word in its context. MADA5 (Habash et al. 2009) is one of such taggers. Some other taggers do not use a morphological analyzer and use other techniques to carry out POS tagging. For example, Ramsay and Sabtan (2009) produced a lexicon-free maximum-likelihood tagger which makes use of very simple clues based on the initial and final characters of a word along with transition probabilities between tags, and then uses transformation-based learning (TBL) to patch the errors in this initial assignment. As regards the morphological analysis in the three corpora under study, the QAC and MQC provide morpho-syntactic tagging for each Qur'anic word in its contextual verse. But Haifa analyzer is incapable of performing context-dependent morphological disambiguation, and sometimes provides multiple analyses for each word, especially in case of verbs (Talmon & Wintner 2003; Dror et al. 2004).

Arabic POS tagging is not an easy task due to the complicated nature of Arabic word structure and the high degree of lexical ambiguity which is particularly pervasive in non-vowelized (or undiacritized) texts. This ambiguity occurs when a single written form may correspond to a number of different lexemes which may have a number of different senses as well as POS categories. In this regard, we will discuss two important reasons that represent a challenge for Arabic POS tagging.
1. Homographs: These are words that have the same orthographic form but different pronunciations and meanings (Jackson, 1988). This phenomenon is widespread in non-vowelized Arabic, as shown in the examples in table 2 below.

2. Internal word structure ambiguity: a complex Arabic word could be segmented in different ways (Farghaly & Shaalan, 2009). In such cases a POS tagger has to determine the boundaries between segments or tokens to give each token its proper POS tag. 'Segmentation' is a method to determine the boundaries between all the word parts. This word segmentation ambiguity is sometimes termed 'coincidental identity'. This occurs when clitics accidentally produce a word-form that is homographic with another full form word (Kamir et al., 2002; Attia, 2006). Examples for such cases are given in table 3.

### Table 2. Arabic homographs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Meanings</th>
<th>POS Category</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ذهب</td>
<td>ذهبُ *ahaba</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td>to go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ذهب</td>
<td>ذهبُ *ahabN</td>
<td>noun</td>
<td>gold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>قدم</td>
<td>قدمُ qadima</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td>to arrive from</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>قدم</td>
<td>قدمُ qad-ama</td>
<td>verb</td>
<td>to introduce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>قدم</td>
<td>قدم ، qadamo</td>
<td>noun</td>
<td>foot</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table 3. Arabic words with different segmentations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Complex Word</th>
<th>Possible Tokens</th>
<th>POS Category</th>
<th>Gloss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ولي wly</td>
<td>و * wa</td>
<td>conj. + prep. + pronoun</td>
<td>and for me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>اُ ي و * y</td>
<td>ل * li</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ولي waliy</td>
<td>noun</td>
<td>a pious person favored by God</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>كمال kmAl</td>
<td>كمال ka</td>
<td>prep. + noun</td>
<td>as money</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>مال maAl</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>كمال kamaAl</td>
<td>noun</td>
<td>perfection</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>كمال kamaAl</td>
<td>proper noun</td>
<td>a person’s name</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As noted earlier, the Qur'anic text is vowelized or diacritized where diacritics are placed on letters to indicate the pronunciation of words. The complicated nature of Arabic morphology is noticeable in both vowelized and non-vowelized texts. As for the degree of lexical ambiguity, which is so vivid in non-vowelized texts, it is also apparent in vowelized text but in a lesser degree.

3. Morphological Analysis of Qur'anic Arabic

Morphological analysis has been carried out for analyzing Classical Qur'anic Arabic. Some studies have focused on stemming the Qur'anic text to obtain the stem after removing all affixes and clitics. Thabet (2004) proposed a light stemming approach that uses a transliterated version of the Qur’an in western script. Thabet's main objective for stemming the Qur’an was to prepare the text as data for multivariate analysis of the lexical semantics of the Qur’an. In addition, Yusof et al. (2010) developed a rule-based stemming algorithm to stem the Qur’an through identifying the various word patterns. Their approach, which deals only with triliteral roots, was tested on the 30th chapter of the Glorious Qur’an. More recently, Sabtan (2012) presented a light stemmer for Arabic, using a corpus-based approach. The stemmer, which was tested on the Qur’anic text in its non-vowelized form, groups morphological variants of words in the corpus based on letter-sequence similarity, before stripping off their affixes to produce their common stem. The aim of developing such a stemmer was to investigate the effectiveness of using word stems for extracting bilingual equivalents from an Arabic-English parallel corpus. The Qur’anic Arabic text with an English translation was used as the parallel corpus. Nonetheless, all the previously mentioned attempts do not provide a morphologically analyzed part-of-speech tagged Qur’an encoded as a structured linguistic database.

Other research efforts have worked on providing a full morphological analysis of the Glorious Qur’an encoded as a structured linguistic database. Within this framework a study was conducted at the University of Haifa to present a computational system for morphological analysis and annotation of the Qur’an for research and teaching purposes. The system consists in a set of finite-state based rules using Finite State Machines technology to annotate the Arabic morphology of the Qur’an. However, the automatic annotation was not manually verified. The accuracy of the system is estimated at 86% (Dror et al. 2004).

In addition, the Qur’anic text has been linguistically annotated at Leeds University, UK. The Quranic Arabic Corpus (QAC) is a newly available linguistic resource enriched with multiple layers of analysis including morphological annotation and POS tagging, syntactic analysis using dependency grammar and a semantic ontology (Dukes & Habash, 2010; Dukes & Buckwalter, 2010; Dukes, 2013; Dukes et al. 2010, 2013). In this paper the author focuses only on the layer of morphological analysis. Other layers, i.e. syntactic and semantic analysis, are outside the scope of this paper. The motivation behind the QAC work is to produce a resource that enables researchers interested in the Qur'an to get as close as possible to the original Arabic text and understand its intended meanings through grammatical analysis. Buckwalter's Arabic Morphological Analyzer (BAMA) (Buckwalter, 2002) was used to generate the initial tagging in the morphological annotation of the Quranic Arabic Corpus. The analyzer was adapted to work with Quranic Arabic text. It was necessary to convert from MSA BAMA tag set to the desired Quranic tag set. Then, manual correction was carried out online.
through collaborative annotation to produce a more reliable research resource (Dukes & Habash, 2010).

In a new attempt at Mohammed I University to produce a morphologically analyzed corpus of the Qur'anic text, Zeroual & Lakhouaja (2014) presented a new Quranic Corpus rich in morphological information. But this corpus is not yet available online. They used a semi-automatic technique, which consists in using the morphsyntactic analysis system of MSA words "AlKhalil Morpho System" followed by manual verification. Each word in this corpus is associated with the following morphological information: stem, POS tag, lemma, root and pattern. It is worth noting that a lemma is the uncliticized perfective third person masculine singular form in case of verbs. For nouns, it is the uncliticized singular indefinite masculine or feminine form (Saleh & Habash, 2009).

4. Comparative Description of the Corpora
A number of studies have focused on comparing between morphological analyzers from different aspects. For instance, Attia (2006) compares between BAMA (Buckwalter, 2002), Xerox Arabic Morphological Analysis and Generation (Beesley, 2001) and Attia’s Arabic Morphological Transducer with respect to ambiguity. Sawalha & Atwell (2008) conduct a comparative evaluation of a number of morphological analyzers and stemmers to test their accuracy with regard to stemming or root extraction. In this paper the author focuses on another aspect in the morphological analysis process. In particular, he compares between three morphologically analyzed corpora of Qur’anic words with regard to the way the annotation is displayed, the actual morphological processing and the manual verification of the analysis. He also discusses the tag sets that are available in the QAC and MQC and proposes more tags that could be added so as to reach a more fine-grained tag set that could be used for tagging the Qur’an.

Hamada (2009) proposes a number of standards for evaluating Arabic morphological analyzers. These standards are concerned with the entire process of morphological analysis, including the ability to specify the root, affixes and POS category of a given word (whether it is vowelized or non-vowelized). Due to the fact that the tag sets in the three corpora are not the same, a large-scale automatic evaluation is not possible. In this regard, Hamada (2009) points out that the automatic evaluation of morphological analyzers requires a unified tag set. Therefore, the author conducted a small-scale manual evaluation experiment to discuss the differences between the three corpora under study with respect to their morphological analysis.

The HQC is automatically morphologically analyzed without any manual correction. According to Dror et al. (2004), the accuracy of the system scores 86%. The morphological annotation of the QAC, on the other hand, was manually verified. However, it should be noted that the manually built morphological analysis is not error-free. Dukes et al. (2013) point out that the current estimated accuracy of morphological annotation in the QAC is measured at 98.7%, using the approach of supervised collaboration. As for the MQC, Zeroual & Lakhouaja (2014) indicate that AlKhalil morphological analyzer, which was used to analyze the words in the corpus, has analyzed 94% of the Qur'anic words. Thus, they had to manually add the remaining 6% to the output results. In addition, some of the given results are not correct. They
point out that 22% of input words have multiple output analysis. So, the correct analysis for each word has been selected, if it exists. If no correct result exists, they have added them manually. As for those words that have one output analysis, but it is not correct in the context, they have added them manually. This is because AlKhalil system made morphological analysis out of context.

There are a number of differences between the three corpora (HQC, the QAC and MQC) with regard to the way the Qur’anic text is encoded in these corpora. The HQC does not use the standard Arabic transcript but uses a phonemic transcription of the text. The transcription is based on pure ASCII notations, largely with single-symbol equivalents of the Arabic graphemes, and double letters expressing long vowels. Also, hyphenation is used to isolate nominal and verbal bases from the various affixes, e.g. *wa-kaana* “and was” (Talmon & Wintner 2003; Dror et al. 2004).

The QAC, in contrast, uses the Arabic script along with a phonetic transcription, word-for-word translation and location reference based on (Chapter: Verse) standard besides three levels of analysis: morphological annotation, a syntactic treebank and a semantic ontology. Moreover, a single complex word in the QAC is divided into multiple morphological segments with a POS tag assigned to each segment. What is also more interesting is that the QAC linguistic annotation is color-coded and is thus easy to read. This, in turn, facilitates the deep understanding of the Glorious Qur’an. As a result, over a million visitors use the QAC website per year (Atwell, 2012).

As for MQC, the morphological annotation of this corpus is not yet available online and there are only sample examples cited by the authors in their paper (Zeroual & Lakhouaja, 2014), which will be used in the comparative analysis. The corpus contains the Arabic script along with Buckwalter transliteration. However, the current stage of the corpus does not contain word-for-word translation or location reference.

With regard to the QAC annotation the author only displays the morphological level of linguistic annotation, as other levels of linguistic analysis are outside the scope of this paper. Besides the color-coded linguistic annotation on the QAC website, (which shows not only morphological analysis but syntactic and semantic analysis as well), there is an available file on the website that contains only the morphological analysis of the QAC as a resource for linguistic investigation. The data in this file will be used in the discussion of the morphological analysis of the QAC.

It is time now to throw light on the morphological analysis in the three corpora under study. The differences between the morphological annotations in the three corpora are made clear through the Qur’anic word *الحمد AlHamodu* "praise".

First, figure 1 shows the morphological analysis of this word in the HQC. Then the morphological analysis of the same word in the QAC and MQC is illustrated in tables 4 and 5 respectively.
The previous figure shows the morphological analysis of a Qur'anic word in the HQC. The analysis of a word contains a number of morphological components which are described as follows:

- The Qur'anic word: A hyphen is used in the word 
\( \text{الحمد} \) (\( l-\text{Hamd} \)) to isolate the nominal stem (\( \text{Hamd} \)) from the prefix (the definite article \( l \)) and the nominative case marker (\( \text{u} \)). It should be noted that the definite article \( Al \) is shortened to just \( l \) in pronunciation after being connected with the preceding word in the previous verse.
- The morphological analysis: The following figure shows the description of the morphological information in the HQC.

\[
\begin{array}{|c|c|c|}
\hline
\text{Def: definiteness} & \text{POS: Noun} & \text{Case: Nom (nominative)} \\
\text{Root: Ham} & \text{Gender: Masc (masculine)} \\
\text{Pattern: fa&l} & \text{Number: Sg (singular)} \\
\hline
\end{array}
\]

The current example \( Al\text{Hamd} \) "praise" is a singular masculine noun in the nominative case preceded by the definite article. The root of this noun is \( Hmd \) whose pattern is \( \text{fa&l} \) (i.e. \( \text{فعل} \)).

Table 4 shows the morphological analysis of a Qur'anic word in the Quranic Arabic Corpus (QAC). The word is first segmented by separating the definite article prefix \( [AI] \) that is tagged as \( [DET] \) (i.e. determiner) from the stem \( [\text{Hamodu}] \) which is then tagged as \( [N] \), i.e. noun. The POS tag is followed by the lemma \( [\text{Hamodu}] \) which is tagged as \( [\text{N}] \), i.e. noun. The morphological feature of gender \( [M] \), i.e. masculine as well as the case marking \( [\text{Nom}] \), i.e. nominative are shown at the end of the analysis.

Table 4. Morphological analysis of a Qur'anic word in the QAC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Location</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Morphological Segments</th>
<th>Tag</th>
<th>Morphological Features</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(1:2:1)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
\( \text{الحمد} \) | AloHamodu    | DET   | PREFIX[AI+]                     |

Since the morphological analysis in the QAC is used in preparation for syntactic annotation, suffixes and enclitics that have syntactic functions within a word are annotated with their
grammatical relations. For instance, in figure 3 below the masculine plural suffix has the syntactic function of subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Stem Pattern</th>
<th>POS tag</th>
<th>Lemma</th>
<th>Lemma Pattern</th>
<th>Root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alo Hamodu</td>
<td>Hmd</td>
<td>faEolu</td>
<td>VN</td>
<td>Hamod</td>
<td>faEol</td>
<td>Hmd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 5. Morphological analysis of a Qur'anic word in MQC**

As Table 5 shows, the example word in the MQC is associated with a number of morphological information: the stem, part-of-speech tag, lemma, root, and the vocalized patterns for each of the stem and lemma. The Arabic tag ما is used to refer to the POS category مصدر أصلي and its English tag "VN" means 'Verbal Noun'. A sample of the tag set used in MQC is shown in Appendix C, based on Zeroual & Lakhouaja's paper (2014). It is obvious that the analysis does not contain information for the Arabic definite article "Al" which is a prefix attached to the beginning of the word. This has been observed in other nominal and verbal affixes. So, the MQC analyzes the main component of the word, i.e. the stem and leaves out affixes and clitics. However, the MQC, unlike the QAC and HQC, specifies the pattern of the stem and lemma.

5. Results and Discussion

The morphologically analyzed corpora of both the QAC and HQC are available online, but the MQC corpus is not yet available online and therefore the author could only discuss the examples cited by Zeroual and Lakhouaja (2014) in their paper. The author compares between the three corpora with regard to the following morphological information: stem, affixes, POS tags,
morphological features, lemma and root. Table 6 shows the morphological analysis of a number of words in the three corpora under investigation. The example words constitute verse 2 in Chapter 1 (Sūrat Al-Fātiha “The Opening”).

Praise be to Allah, Lord of the Worlds.⁶

الْحَمَدُ لِلَّهِ رَبَّ الْعَالَمِينَ

We will discuss the analysis for each corpus to uncover the differences between the three corpora. The 0 symbol is used when a certain morphological feature is not relevant for the word under analysis. But the # symbol is used for the non-existing information.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Corpus</th>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Affix</th>
<th>POS Tag</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>POS Tag (with Morphological Features)</th>
<th>Lemma</th>
<th>Root</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>HQC (Haifa)</td>
<td>AloHamodu</td>
<td>ḥādż</td>
<td>Article</td>
<td>ḥamodu</td>
<td>Noun + Masc. Sing. Nominative</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>Hmd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lil~ahi</td>
<td>li</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>l~ahi</td>
<td>Proper Name + Genitive</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>#</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rab~i</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>rab~i</td>
<td>Noun + First Person Masc. Sing. Dependent Pronoun</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>rbb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rab~i</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>rab~i</td>
<td>Noun + Masc. Genitive</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>rbb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AloEaAlamiyna</td>
<td>ḥādż</td>
<td>Article</td>
<td>ḥamod</td>
<td>Noun + Masc. Nominative</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>Elm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>QAC (Leeds)</td>
<td>AloHamodu</td>
<td>ḥādż</td>
<td>Determiner</td>
<td>ḥamodu</td>
<td>Noun + Masc. Nominative</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>Hmd</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>lil~ahi</td>
<td>li</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
<td>l~ahi</td>
<td>Proper Noun + Genitive</td>
<td>لاـl~ahi</td>
<td>الله Alh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>rab~i</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>rab~i</td>
<td>Noun + Masc. Genitive</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>rbb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>AloEaAlamiyna</td>
<td>ḥādż</td>
<td>Article</td>
<td>ḥamod</td>
<td>Noun + Masc. Nominative</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>Elm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MQC (Morocco)</td>
<td>AloHamodu</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>ḥamod</td>
<td>Verbal Noun</td>
<td>#</td>
<td>Hmd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
It is obvious in table 6 that there are differences between the three corpora with respect to their morphological analysis. These differences can be shown as follows:

• While the QAC and MQC provide a unique analysis for each word, the HQC contains multiple analyses for many words, as the case with the word *rab~i* "Lord". It has two analyses: the first analysis refers to the basic stem "lord" with the addition of the first person singular masculine dependent pronoun "ي" meaning "my lord". The second analysis, however, refers to the stem only, i.e. "lord".

• Both the QAC and MQC provide the lemma and root as part of the morphological analysis. The HQC, on the other hand, does not provide the lemma for words. In case of roots, some words do not have the root as part of their analysis.

• Both the QAC and MQC segment the stem from other affixes. However, the QAC assigns POS tags for each segment, while the MQC assigns POS tags to stems only. As for the HQC, it provides POS tags for all components of the word without word segmentation as shown in figure 1 above.

• The QAC and HQC contain more information about the morphological features of gender, number, and case.

• The analysis in the HQC does not contain information about the lemmas of words, while lemmas are given in the QAC and MQC.

• The lemma of the word عَلَهِبِنَ "worlds" in the QAC analysis is given as EaAlamiyna which is not actually the lemma but the stem. According to Zeroual and Lakhouaja (2014), many lemmas in the QAC are in fact stems. The MQC, in contrast, provides the correct lemma of the word, which is عَلَم EaAlam "world".

Based on the previous discussions, the key differences between the three corpora can be illustrated using five main criteria, as shown in table 7.

Table 7. Comparison of the Three Qur'anic Corpora

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Haifa Quranic Corpus (Haifa University, 2004)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Display of the text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word segmentation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Morphological disambiguation</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>POS tag set</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Manual verification</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**The Quranic Arabic Corpus (Leeds University, 2010)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Display of the text</strong></th>
<th>It uses the Arabic script, a phonetic transcription, word-for-word translation and location reference.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word segmentation</strong></td>
<td>Words are divided into morphological segments with POS tags assigned to each segment.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Morphological disambiguation</strong></td>
<td>It provides a unique analysis for each word in its contextual verse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>POS tag set</strong></td>
<td>The QAC has a well-defined annotation scheme. The POS tag set and morphological feature tags are published in Dukes &amp; Habash (2010).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Manual verification</strong></td>
<td>It involved automatic annotation using BAMA followed by manual verification. 98.7% accuracy using the approach of supervised collaboration was reported.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mohammed I Quranic Corpus (Mohammed I University in Morocco, 2014)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Display of the text</strong></th>
<th>It uses the Arabic script along with Buckwalter transliteration, but does not include word-for-word translation or location reference.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Word segmentation</strong></td>
<td>It segments the stem from other affixes and clitics but assigns a POS tag for the stem only.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Morphological disambiguation</strong></td>
<td>Initially 22% of input words have multiple analyses. Then, the correct analysis for each word has been selected.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>POS tag set</strong></td>
<td>It uses a fine-grained POS tag set. A sample of the tag set is described in the authors' paper about the corpus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Manual verification</strong></td>
<td>A semi-automatic method was used to annotate the Quranic text by means of using AlKhalil morphological analyzer followed by a manual treatment.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is noticeable that the morphological analysis in the Quranic Arabic Corpus (QAC) and Mohammed I Quranic Corpus (MQC) has a number of advantages that are lacking in Haifa Quranic Corpus (HQC). These advantages are concerned with the points that have been discussed in the previous table.
Though the QAC employs a fine-grained POS tag set as shown in appendices A and B, it uses a less fine-grained tag set with regard to nouns. The morphological feature tags for derivative nouns include only three categories: active participle, passive participle and verbal noun.

Based on POS sub-classification of Arabic nouns, more derivative types could be added to the three derivative nouns in the QAC. Table 8 shows the tags for the three derivative nouns in the QAC along with some additional POS tags for other derivative nouns. It should be noted that some of these types are included in the MQC tag set as shown in Appendix C.

**Table 8. Proposed tags for derivative nouns**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tags</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Arabic Equivalent</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ACT PCPL</td>
<td>Active participle</td>
<td>اسم فاعل</td>
<td>مالك maAlik (owner)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PASS PCPL</td>
<td>Passive participle</td>
<td>اسم مفعول</td>
<td>مطهرة muTah~arap (purified)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VN</td>
<td>Verbal noun</td>
<td>مصدر أصلي</td>
<td>إيمان &lt;iymaAn (faith)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VNM</td>
<td>Verbal noun with initial mīm</td>
<td>مصدر ميمي</td>
<td>مغفرة magofirap “forgiveness”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTM</td>
<td>Noun of instrument</td>
<td>اسم آل</td>
<td>ميزان miyzaAn (balance)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DIM</td>
<td>Diminutive</td>
<td>اسم تصغير</td>
<td>بني bunaY~a (my son)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ELTV</td>
<td>Elative noun</td>
<td>اسم تفضيل</td>
<td>أكثر &gt;aZolam (more unjust)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TM</td>
<td>Noun of time</td>
<td>اسم زممن</td>
<td>مؤعد mawoEid (appointment)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLC</td>
<td>Noun of place</td>
<td>اسم مكان</td>
<td>المشرق Alma$oriq “the east”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTN</td>
<td>Noun of instance</td>
<td>اسم مرة</td>
<td>رجفة r~ajofap “earthquake”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MNR</td>
<td>Noun of manner</td>
<td>اسم هيئة</td>
<td>وجهة wijohap &quot;direction&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REL</td>
<td>Relative noun</td>
<td>اسم منسب</td>
<td>عربى Earabiy~ “Arab”</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>FEXG</td>
<td>Form of exaggeration</td>
<td>صيغة مبالغة</td>
<td>علام Eal~aAm “All-Knower”</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**6. Conclusion**

In this paper the author aimed to make a survey of the morphological analysis in three corpora of the Glorious Qur’an. These three annotation projects are the morphological tagging in Haifa Quranic Corpus (HQC) in 2004, the morphological annotation of the Quranic Arabic Corpus (QAC) in Leeds University (2010) and the newly constructed and morphologically analyzed Qur'anic corpus in Mohammed I University (MQC) in 2014. In the survey a comparative
evaluation of the three corpora was conducted with regard to five main criteria, namely display of the text in the corpus, word segmentation, morphological disambiguation, POS tag set and manual verification. The evaluation shows that the morphological analysis in both of the QAC and MQC has a number of advantages that are lacking in the HQC. Most importantly, the QAC and MQC provide a unique analysis for each word in its contextual verse. In addition, the automatic analysis has been manually verified in both corpora. The HQC, on the other hand, contains multiple analyses for many words and remains manually unverified. The QAC is advantageous in another aspect, namely the way the annotation of the text is displayed. The QAC uses the Arabic script along with a phonetic transcription, word-for-word translation and location reference. As for the POS tag sets, the HQC authors did not publish a well-defined scheme concerning the POS tag set that was used to annotate the corpus. As for the QAC and MQC, both corpora use a fine-grained POS tag set, though some noun tags are underspecified in the QAC. Underspecification means that the POS tag in question does not provide a full description of the morpho-syntactic features of a given word. In this regard, some nouns are not subcategorized into its derivative types. Therefore, additional tags for subcategories of nouns have been proposed to be used along with the existing tagsets for potential POS tagging of the Qur'anic text.

Notes
3. This corpus has not been made available online till the time of writing this paper.
4. The author uses the standard Buckwalter transliteration scheme for converting Arabic script to the Roman alphabet.
5. MADA stands for "Morphological Analysis and Disambiguation for Arabic".
6. The translation of the verse is rendered by Pickthall, as shown on the Quranic Arabic Corpus website.

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Dr. Yasser Sabtan earned his PhD in Computational Linguistics from the University of Manchester, UK in 2011. He is currently an Assistant Professor at the Department of Languages and Translation, Dhofar University, Oman. Dr. Sabtan is also affiliated to the Department of English, Faculty of Languages and Translation, Al-Azhar University, Egypt. His research interests focus on Arabic computational linguistics, corpus linguistics, machine translation, audiovisual translation and pragmatics.

References
Atwell, E. (2012). Corpus resources for learning Arabic to understand the Quran. In Higher Education Academy workshop on "The Role of Corpora in LSP (Language for Specific Purposes) Learning and Teaching", Parkinson B08, University of Leeds, UK.


Appendices

Appendix A: Part-of-Speech tag set in the Quranic Arabic Corpus (QAC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>TAG</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Arabic Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N</td>
<td>Noun</td>
<td>اسم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PN</td>
<td>Proper noun</td>
<td>اسم علم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPN</td>
<td>Imperative verbal noun</td>
<td>اسم فعل أمر ضمير</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PRON</td>
<td>Personal pronoun</td>
<td>اسم اشارة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEM</td>
<td>Demonstrative pronoun</td>
<td>اسم موصول</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>REL</td>
<td>Relative pronoun</td>
<td>صفة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ADJ</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
<td>صفة</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>NUM</td>
<td>Number</td>
<td>رقم</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>T</td>
<td>Time adverb</td>
<td>ظرف زمن</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LOC</td>
<td>Location adverb</td>
<td>ظرف مكان</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix B: Morphological feature tags in the Quranic Arabic Corpus (QAC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Features</th>
<th>Tags / Descriptions</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prefix features</td>
<td>Al+ (determiner Al)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bi+ (preposition bi)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ka+ (preposition ka)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ta+ (preposition ta)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sa+ (future particle sa)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>yā+ (vocative particle yā)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>hā+ (vocative particle hā)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| letter alif as a prefixed particle | A: INTG+ (interrogative alif)  
A: EQ+ (equalization alif) |
| letter wāw as a prefixed particle | wa+ (conjunction wāw)  
w:P+ (preposition wāw – used as a particle of oath) |
| letter fa as a prefixed particle | f:CONJ+ (conjunction fa)  
f:REM+ (resumption fa)  
f:CAUS+ (cause fa) |
| letter lām as a prefixed particle | l:P+ (preposition lām)  
l:EMPH+ (emphasis lām)  
l:PRP+ (purpose lām)  
l:IMPV+ (imperative lām) |
| root | ROOT: (uses Buckwalter transliteration) |
| lemma | LEM: (uses Buckwalter transliteration) |
| special | SP: (used if the word belongs to a special group such as certain words in the corpus are tagged this way where this is relevant for syntactic function, and not easily determined by lemma or part-of-speech; for example, the particle mā (ما) in a negative sense can behave like the verb laysa (ليس) and place a predicate into the accusative case) |
| person | 1 (first person), 2 (second person), 3 (third person) |
| gender | M (masculine), F (feminine) |
| number | S (singular), D (dual), P (plural) |
| aspect | PERF (perfect), IMPF (imperfect), IMPV (imperative) |
| mood | IND (indicative), SUBJ (subjunctive), JUS (jussive), ENG (energetic) |
| voice | ACT (active), PASS (passive) |
| verbal form | I to XII |
| derivation | ACT PCPL (active participle)  
PASS PCPL (passive participle)  
VN (verbal noun) |
| state | DEF (definite)  
INDEF (indefinite) |
| case | NOM (nominative)  
ACC (accusative)  
GEN (genitive) |
| suffix features | PRON: (attached pronoun, compound feature with person, gender and number)  
+VOC (vocative suffix for Allāhumma (اللهُمَّ)) |
### Appendix C: Sample of Part-of-Speech tags in Mohammed I University's Quranic Corpus (MQC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Tag</th>
<th>English Equivalent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Particles</td>
<td>حرف جز</td>
<td>Preposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>أداة استفهام</td>
<td>Interrogative particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>أداة استثناء</td>
<td>Exceptive particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>أداة نفي</td>
<td>Negative particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>أداة شرط</td>
<td>Conditional particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>حرف ابتداء</td>
<td>Inceptive particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nouns</td>
<td>اسم علم</td>
<td>Proper noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>صفة مشابهة</td>
<td>Adjective</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>اسم تفضيل</td>
<td>Elative noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>اسم فعل</td>
<td>Active participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>مصدر أصلي</td>
<td>Gerund / Verbal noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>مصدر ميمى</td>
<td>Gerund/ verbal noun with initial mīm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>اسم الة</td>
<td>Instrumental noun</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Verbs</td>
<td>فعل ماض مبني للمعلوم</td>
<td>Perfect verb (Active voice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>فعل ماض مبني للمجهول</td>
<td>Perfect verb (Passive voice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>فعل مضارع مبني للمعلوم</td>
<td>Imperfect verb (Active voice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>فعل مضارع مبني للمجهول</td>
<td>Imperfect verb (Passive voice)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>فعل أمر</td>
<td>Imperative verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>فعل ما ض جامد</td>
<td>Perfect verb non-conjugated</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Effect of Role Play Strategy on Jordanian EFL Tenth Grade Students' Speaking Skill

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Abstract
This study examines the effect of role-play strategy on the Jordanian tenth grade English as a foreign language (EFL) students' speaking skill. It is an attempt to answer if there is a statistical significance difference between the experimental and control groups' scores on the speaking test due to the teaching method (role-play strategy vs. the Teacher's Book instructions). A total of 86 homogeneous participants were selected through a random sampling technique from two sections at Lameece Secondary School for Girls in Amman, Jordan during the second semester of the academic year 2016-2017. The experimental group was 42 students while the control group was 44 students. For data collection, a role-play instructional program based on the speaking activities in Action Pack 10, a speaking test and a rating scale were used. The collected data were analyzed using proper statistical measures such as ANCOVA and MANCOVA. The results revealed that the role-play strategy had a significant effect on the five components of the speaking skill with the students of the experimental group. Further empirical studies on the effect of role-play strategy on developing other language skills are needed.

Keywords: EFL students, P.P.P Model, role-play strategy, speaking skill

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Introduction

Speaking is one of the language skills which seems very significant and needs special interest in instruction as it is considered the natural way of communication. Speaking is the active use of language to express meaning; the spoken language is the medium through which a new language is encountered, understood, practiced, and learnt. Without speaking, people may lack the ability to communicate successfully with others. Accordingly, there are at least three reasons that make the teaching/learning of speaking a must in the EFL classrooms. Firstly, speaking activities, as Nunan (2003) states, provide practical opportunities to be used authentically and use the target language quickly and confidently without unnatural pauses, which is called fluency. Secondly, speaking tasks during which students try to use any or all of the language, could provide feedback about their learning level in oral communication. Finally, the more students have opportunities to activate the various elements of language they have stored in their brains, the more automatic and proficient use of these elements become.

In this regard, using effective learning strategies such as peering, grouping, dramatizing, simulating, games and role-play may highlight the significance of using teaching/learning strategies with the four language skills in general and with speaking in specific. Lewis (2011) explains that the variety and applicability of these strategies as teachable and responsive to different learners' styles could be a part of daily lesson plan of English classes.

Role-play strategy is one of these strategies that might have a notable effect on learners' performance in speaking. It is, according to Julius and Osman (2015, P.120), "a way in teaching and learning that offers holistic learning process in a multi-level experiential dimension of discovery, expression, and mastery where all learners and teachers learn and grow together”. It is an attempt to learn by doing, illustrating and dramatizing; the learners pass through varied practical situations which urge them to use their imagination, the acquired speech acts and registers to fulfill orally a language function and to develop positive emotions and attitudes towards EFL.

Ladousse (1987, P.9) says that "role-play belongs to that category of language learning techniques sometimes referred to as low input-high output". This means that the teacher-centered presentation phase of the lesson is very short and not at all the same as it would be for a controlled practice drill. After a brief introduction, the students plunge into an activity in which accomplishing the task is more important than using the exact word, in which fluency predominates over accuracy. Ladousse adds that the language that the students use "does not come out of a top hat at the wave of a magic wand, and must have been acquired at an earlier stage".

Moreover, Gardner (2001) also discusses the role of well-structured lesson plan in using role-play. He claimed that instruction should rely on designing cognitive structures of learners and giving them the opportunities to discover and use what they have already learnt by creating a scenario (imaginative context) and presenting English in an interesting, interactive and vibrant manner. Therefore, role-play strategy seems an important technique in teaching speaking as it provides learners with productive opportunities to practice communicatively varied speech acts in different occasions and situations by asking students to use a simplified imagination as a sort of game, put themselves in others' places and play their roles in reality for a while (Grill, 2013). Accordingly, role-play may be ideal in raising students' motivations and attitudes towards the target
language as they can stimulate a situation and pretending they are other people and practice the target language to achieve linguistic and pragmatic functions in appropriate contexts, so it seems as a part of drama which is a broader strategy and includes three components: miming, role-play and simulation.

Speaking activities may be taught to students in different instructional approaches. According to Doff (1997), the P.P.P Model, which the researchers used in this study, works through the progression of three sequential stages. The first phase is Presentation in which the teacher presents new words or structures, gives examples, and writes them on the board. While at Practice stage, students practice using words or structures in a controlled way such as making sentences form prompts, asking and answering questions and giving sentences based on a picture. Practice can be oral or written. However, at Production stage students use language they have learnt to express themselves more freely such as talking and writing about their own lives and interests, to express opinions, or imagine themselves in different situations. Like practice, production can be oral or written.

Practical studies on the use of the role-play strategy in teaching speaking are almost few in related literature, up to the knowledge of the researchers who looked into many sources such as ERIC, EPESCO, and Internet and university library. So they tried to report a number of studies that have some relationship with the current topic of the study.

Al-Jabali (1996) studies the effect of role-play and pictures in developing the speaking skill of tenth-grade students in English in Irbid district. The sample consisted of (50) male students from two public schools. Two experimental groups were randomly assigned for the treatments: one group for the role-play and the other one for the pictures. The control group was randomly selected from another school. The groups were subjected to a pretest and a posttest. The experiment lasted six weeks. One-way ANOVA was applied to analyze the results of the pretest, and a T-test was applied on the posttest. The results showed that there was some progress achieved by the subjects taught by both techniques (role-play and pictures) in the posttest but this progress was not statistically significant as compared to their results in the pretest.

Naqeeb (1999) investigates the effect of using role-play strategy on improving the speaking skill of eighth-grade students at UNRWA schools in Nablus area. The sample consisted of (60) male students. The sample was divided into two groups, one of them was the experimental group which applied role-play model by using role-play cards in eight-grade curriculum and it was prepared by the researcher himself. The other group was the control group which used the ordinary traditional method in teaching English. A pretest and posttest were applied to the two groups. The experiment lasted for eight weeks. T-test was used as a statistical tool. The statistical analysis of the results showed that the experimental group was significantly improved after applying role-play on it, i.e. there was a progress at the various levels of conversation skills. There was not any progress in conversation in the control group.

Benabadji (2007) examines the effect of using role-play strategy on improving the students' fluency in Sibawaih School of foreign languages in Algeria. The participants were 25 intermediate-level students who were evaluated in four categories: continuous delivery, looking for words, rich
vocabulary usage and pronunciation. The data were analyzed through using One-Way ANOVA and other descriptive statistics. The results of study revealed that there was a significant effect of using role-play strategy on students' fluency during the role-play based speaking activities. The results showed that the students had positive intrinsic and extrinsic motivations to learn English.

Graves (2008) conducts a study to check whether role-play strategy is an effective learning strategy, and to know the strengths and weaknesses of this strategy. The study was conducted at Pawpaw High School in Southeastern Ohio. All 78 participants were high school seniors ranging in age from 17 to 18. They were divided according to their academic levels into three groups: accelerated, honors and traditional students. All students except two were Caucasian. There was one Native American and one African American. The data were collected through a questionnaire, role-playing assignments and a survey. The findings of this study revealed that the accelerated and honors students were more likely to enjoy role-play strategy than the traditional ones, the majority of the traditional students indicated neutral attitudes towards role-play strategy as they did not perform better during implementing the speaking activities. The study recommended that teachers should verify in the strategies they use in classes, including role-play.

In her study, Al-Senaidi (2009) presents the effectiveness of using role play on improving the oral fluency of the fourth grade students in Oman by using four role-playing activities adapted from Hadfield and Hadfield (1999). The study was conducted for four months. A pretest and post test were conducted to collect data between two groups: Experimental group who were taught through role-play strategy and a control group who were taught in the conventional way. The findings revealed that the learners’ fluency improved over the course and the learners became more motivated to learn and speak using English by producing more chunks of language as they moved through the role-play speaking activities.

Khweireh (2017) studies the effect of role-play strategy (Shaftels' Model) on vocabulary development and speaking skill improvement among the Jordanian seventh grade EFL students. He chose 172 students from UNRWA schools in Amman and divided them into experimental and control groups. Pretest and post test were conducted and data was collected and analyzed. The results of his study revealed that role-play strategy contributed significantly to the vocabulary development and the speaking skills improvement among participants more than the conventional teaching strategy. The results also revealed that there were statistically significant differences in favor of the experimental group who experienced role-play treatment in comparison with those who were exposed to the conventional strategy. The researcher recommended that EFL educators should take into consideration the vital effect of using role-play strategy on speaking skills as an efficient strategy to accommodate EFL students' learning needs and levels.

In this study, the researchers investigated the effect of using role-play strategy on the tenth grade students' speaking skill, where they designed a speaking instructional program to achieve its outcomes stated in the guidelines. This enabled the teacher of the experimental group to be fully aware of the procedures and steps of implementing role-play strategy through P.P.P Model of instruction and helped students not only acquire language forms, but also learn how interaction might take place in a variety of situations which, in turn, may develop learners' fluency, promote
interaction in the classroom, and increase the motivation of the learners to learn and use the language.

Statement of the Problem

It is noticed that students' speaking skill in the public schools is generally described as low; the same is reported by some researchers (Aljabali, 1996; Irianti, 2011 & Naqeeb, 1999) who reported that many Jordanian students suffer from a low level of speaking proficiency. One possible reason behind such situation could be the lack of using appropriate strategies or not teaching speaking altogether.

Though the Teacher's books of Action Pack series provide teachers with a set of suggestions and recommendations on the most applicable learning and teaching strategies and procedures to use while teaching speaking activities inside the classroom (Al-Kharabsheh, Smadi & Baniabdelrahman, 2016), many teachers still ignore these suggestions and skip speaking activities to teach grammatical structures or repeat previous reading lessons. Action Pack textbooks integrate speaking activities with other language activities in order to equip EFL learners with oral and written forms of language that are functionally used in contexts. Unluckily, most of these activities are inappropriately taught by focusing only on reading and grammar not speaking. Therefore, among possible solutions to this problem can be using role-play strategy to develop students' speaking skill which is the focus of this study.

Purpose of Study

This study aims at examining the effect of using role-play strategy on tenth grade students' speaking skill by using Harris' (1977) components of the speaking-assessment tool (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension).

Question of the Study

The present study tried to answer the following question:
- Is there a statistically significant difference at ($\alpha = 0.05$) between the experimental and the control groups' scores on the speaking test due to using role-play strategy?

Significance of Study

The significance of the study can be summed up in the following points:
1- EFL teachers might vary in the strategies they use to teach speaking by using role-play strategy after they explore its procedures and effects on Jordanian EFL learners. For example, the researchers believe that EFL teachers may participate in workshops and training courses in order to use the role-play which may contribute to a better teaching/learning situation.
2- Curricula designers in the Ministry of Education in Jordan (MOE) might take into consideration the impact of using role-play strategy on learning English, so they may design speaking activities that use this strategy and help learners practice speaking inside and outside classroom.

Methods and procedures

Participants of Study

Two intact sections of 86 tenth grade students affiliated to Lameece Secondary School for Girls in Marka district in Amman involved in the current study. One experimental group during
the second semester of the academic year 2016-2017 was randomly chosen, it was tenth grade section C (42 students), while the control group was section A (44 students). The researchers selected two female groups in the current study in order to avoid the intervention of the gender variable in the results of the study.

The instructional program

The researchers redesigned the speaking activities presented in Action Pack 10 in the second semester of 2016/2017 to be in form of dialogues and conversations with meaningful and expressive pictures and appropriate level of language difficulty. They used the P.P.P Model of role-play strategy in this program. To ensure the validity of the instructional program material, copies of it were sent to a jury of twelve judges who are specialists and experts in English curricula and instruction, language and education. Their suggestions, which were very few, were taken into consideration when producing the final form of the program (See a sample of this program in Appendix A).

Instrument of the study

The study utilized a speaking test and a rating score in this study.

Speaking test

In this study, the test was used as a pretest and post test to measure the speaking skill among the participants before and after implementing the treatment (See Appendix B). The test was constructed by the researchers in light of the General Guidelines and the Specific Outcomes of the Secondary Stage (2006).

The rating score of the oral test

The second instrument was the five-point analytical rubric of Harris (1977) to measure the levels of improvement of the five speaking skill components through using the Rating Score of the Oral Test (See Appendix C, p. 24). The speaking rubric used in this study consisted of five criteria, which were considered as the five components of the speaking skill. Each criterion has a five-point rating scale ranging from 1=poor, 2=fair, 3=good, 4=very good, to 5=excellent.

Validity of the instruments

To ensure the validity of the instruments, they were submitted, in their initial forms, to the jury of the twelve judges who validated the instructional program. Therefore, the instruments were modified in their final versions according to the Jury members' comments and suggestions.

Reliability of the Instruments: The Pilot Study

Test-retest method was used where another group of students in the school were taught by the teacher of the experimental group. The tests were carried out and rated with the assistant of the two teachers who taught the experimental and the control group, and then the researchers used Pearson's Correlation test to obtain the reliability coefficient of the test; the results are presented in Table 1.
**Table 1: Pearson's Correlations-Coefficient of Overall Speaking Skill Test**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaking Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Pearson's Correlation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre-Post test</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>0.816**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Significance at 0.01 level**

It seems that the Pearson's Correlation reliability coefficient for the speaking rating scale of the overall speaking skill was reasonable and reliable for the purpose of this study.

**Data analysis**

Data were analyzed and means and standard deviations were calculated. The ANCOVA test was used to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference between the means of the post-test scores of the experimental and the control group in terms of the speaking skill development. To decide whether the effect of using role-play strategy on the five components of the speaking skill (grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, fluency and comprehension) in the post-test was significant or not, the researchers used MANCOVA to find out if there were statistically significant differences between the means of the post-test speaking skill scores between the experimental and control groups in term of speaking skill components.

**Training the teacher of the experimental group**

In order to ensure that the teacher of the experimental group understood the study, its aims, procedures and instruments, the researcher designed a two-day training program (five hours) and trained her on the execution of the instructional program (See Appendix D, P.25). The training program included the following points:

1- Planning to teach speaking activities through redesigning the instructional material.
2- Preparing the necessary learning material and the needed facilities to use role-play strategy in the class.
3- Training the teacher of the experimental group how to implement this strategy properly. The researcher used some speaking activities from the redesigned material while training the teacher. One of the researchers observed her way of teaching the speaking activities especially at the beginning of the semester during which the study was executed.
4- Assessing students by using the assessment tool adopted from Harris (1977).

**Results of the study**

To answer the question of the study, the researchers calculated the means (M) and standard deviation (SD) of the speaking skill pre and post tests scores for the experimental group. Table 2 presents the results of this calculation.

**Table 2: Means and Standard Deviation of the Pre and Post Tests of the Total Scores for Both Groups**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Total Pre-test</th>
<th>Total Post-test</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
This table reveals that the mean of the post test scores of the experimental group (M= 13.14) is higher than that of the control group (M= 10.07), with standard deviation of 4.088 and 3.150 respectively. Thus there is noticeable difference between the mean scores of the two groups in favor of the experimental group. In order to determine whether this difference of means is significant, One-Way ANCOVA was used. Table 3 presents the results.

Table 3: Results of One-way ANCOVA for the Post-Test Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total pre-test</td>
<td>1007.911</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1007.911</td>
<td>804.176</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.906</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching strategy</td>
<td>172.348</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>172.348</td>
<td>137.510</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.624</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>104.028</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>1.253</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>1315.081</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is evident that there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of both groups. Statistically speaking, the calculated value of (F) was 137.51 at $\alpha = 0.05$ which means that there is an observed difference between the two mean scores of the two groups in favor of the experimental group on the speaking skill post-test that can be attributed to the teaching strategy.

To have a deeper look into the improvement of the speaking skill of the experimental group, the researchers calculated the means and the standard deviations of the components of the speaking skill (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension). The results are presented in Table 4.

Table 4: Means and Standard Deviations of the Speaking Pre-Test and Post-Test on the Five Components of the Speaking Skill

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Components</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Pre-test</th>
<th></th>
<th>post-test</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Mean*</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>Mean*</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td>2.48</td>
<td>.917</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1.95</td>
<td>.680</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>.731</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.764</td>
<td>2.24</td>
<td>.853</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.826</td>
<td>2.83</td>
<td>.881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.664</td>
<td>2.23</td>
<td>.743</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>1.99</td>
<td>.744</td>
<td>2.52</td>
<td>.864</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>2.02</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>2.81</td>
<td>.862</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Effect of Role Play Strategy on Jordanian

This table reveals that the mean scores of the post test of the experimental group in the five components are higher than those of the control group. Hence, to find out whether these differences are statistically significant, MANCOVA test was performed on the post-test scores. The results are presented in Table 5.

Table 5: Results of MANCOVA Test on Post-Test Scores in the Five Components of Speaking Skill

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
<th>Wilks' Lambda</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Total Pretest Pronunciation</td>
<td>40.191</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40.19</td>
<td>193.24</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.700</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>42.313</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>42.31</td>
<td>265.10</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.762</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>40.698</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>40.69</td>
<td>246.80</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.748</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>42.176</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>42.17</td>
<td>201.72</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.708</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>36.352</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>36.35</td>
<td>191.25</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.697</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching strategy Pronunciation</td>
<td>3.527</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.527</td>
<td>16.956</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.170</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>6.652</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6.652</td>
<td>41.673</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>10.992</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.99</td>
<td>66.659</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.445</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>4.680</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.680</td>
<td>22.383</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.212</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>10.191</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>10.19</td>
<td>53.618</td>
<td>.000</td>
<td>.392</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error Pronunciation</td>
<td>17.263</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.208</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>13.248</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>13.687</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Scores are out of 5 points for each component*
| Corrected Total | Fluency       | 17.353 | 8 3 | .209 |
|                | Comprehension | 15.776 | 8 3 | .190 |
|                | Pronunciation | 61.872 | 8 5 |
|                | Vocabulary    | 63.453 | 8 5 |
|                | Grammar       | 66.930 | 8 5 |
|                | Fluency       | 65.256 | 8 5 |
|                | Comprehension | 63.733 | 8 5 |

It is clear that the calculated value of \((F)\) at \(\alpha = 0.05\) for teaching strategy in the five components of speaking skills which means that there are statistically significant differences between the two mean scores of the two groups in favor of the experimental group on the five components of the speaking skill post-test that can be attributed to the teaching strategy. In addition, Table 4 shows the effect size of the role-play strategy on the students' performance in grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension of the speaking skill. The effect size, according to Cohen (1975), was Low (0.170) for pronunciation, mid (0.334) for vocabulary, High (0.445) for grammar, mid (0.212) for fluency, and mid (0.392) for comprehension.

**Discussion of the results**

The question asked about the effect of the role-play strategy on the tenth grade students' speaking skill. The results revealed that there was a significant difference at \(\alpha = 0.05\) in the students' speaking skill in favor of the experimental group. This difference was attributed to the treatment (teaching methodology). The researchers believe that the difference in the students' speaking skill in the post test could be ascribed to the use of the role-play strategy through which various pedagogical practices were purposefully addressed. Moreover, the results could be also attributed to the fact that role-play strategy is supportive in creating an active, interactive and constructive learning environment for students to practice what they have already learnt in grammar, vocabulary, fluency, pronunciation, and comprehension. The students were positively motivated to participate and interact with their colleagues even if they had low level of proficiency in English. The researchers believe that the relaxing, comfortable and supportive learning environment might provide students with appropriate and feasible opportunities to take risks and communicate collaboratively. For example, some speaking activities were addressing the students' interest in visiting some local places in their own city like Al-Husseiny Mosque and the Dead Sea, while other activities presented daily routines in their life such as chatting, playing games and making experiments. These activities were very enjoyable for the students; they interacted with them effectively during the speaking classes.

Hence, one can clearly notice that the instructional program included interesting and encouraging conversations and dialogues that played a crucial role in raising the students'
motivation to participate in the speaking activities. This might caused improvement in the students' entire performance in the post test as the students of the experimental group were asked to respond to the questions in the second part of the test which were open-ended questions and needed a high-order thinking level to synthesize appropriate sentences that express their ideas; their results were better than those of the control group in this concern. For example, some questions asked the students about their opinions concerning internet, their solutions for the shortage of water in Jordan, their future plans for studying at university or characteristics of their favorite teachers. These questions urged students to use the words and structures they learnt with better level of pronunciation, fluency and grammar.

Conclusion

Based on the discussion of the results of the present study, it is concluded that using the role-play strategy was effective in developing the students' speaking skill as compared with the conventional methodology, so the researcher believes this strategy is effective and useful in improving the EFL learners' performance in the speaking skill regardless of the poor facilities in the classrooms; this can be achieved by incorporating input and output skills through providing the target learners with ample meaningful exposure to the target language accompanied with adequate practice. In other words, utilizing a cyclical integrative methodology through which input and output operations are introduced and visualized as one complementary process.

Recommendations

In light of the results of this study, it is recommended to the EFL textbook designers and curricula planners in the Ministry of Education should infuse the role-play strategy in the speaking activities in the textbooks. It is also recommended that the teacher's role should be changed from a dominator into a provider, assistant, facilitator and consultant who is able to use a variety of effective strategies in carrying out real-life activities with more emphasis on English as a medium of instruction in their EFL classes. In this case, employing role-play strategy is highly recommended in the Jordanian EFL classes from time to time as its advantages are plenty. Teachers should encourage their students to change their roles and attitudes from passive to active learners and work collaboratively by using the role-play speaking activities to improve their speaking skill.

About the Authors

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References


Appendices

Appendix A

Module Four: Journeys

The learning outcomes of the module (The teacher's Book, P.65 and Student's Book, P.41):

It is expected that students will

- pronounce the letters p and b
- use the Second Conditional to express ideas and opinions
- participate in a simple discussion by using relevant words and sentences from the unit.
- Talk about visiting the North and South Poles, make suggestions and plans, and choose items to take on a trip.

Activity One: A Visit to the North Pole (P. 43)

The Learning Outcome (The teacher's Book, P.65): It is expected that the students will:

- use the Second Conditional to express ideas and opinions
- participate in a simple discussion by using relevant words and sentences from the unit.

The Procedures:

First: Presentation Stage

- The teacher reads the role-play activity twice to the students, then asks them to memorize their roles at home
- The teacher prepares all necessary learning resources (pictures of TV, the North Pole, Iceberg and penguins)
- When speaking periods starts, the teacher writes the title of the speaking activity "A Visit to the North Pole" on the board.
- The teacher writes the learning outcomes of this activity on the board
- The teacher assigns roles to the students and divides the class into pairs (one takes the role of Fadia and the other takes the role of Jameela). The teacher explains the speaking activity and the role for each character
- The teacher draws students' attentions to the structure of the Second conditional clauses and the meaning of the new vocabulary such as Iceberg, Antarctica ...
- The teacher checks the students' understanding of what they will do in the activity before they start by raising some questions on their roles
- The teacher sets the time limit for the speaking activity and reminds the students to use their own English language resources and try to act as natural as possible.

Second: Practice Stage (Training stage)

- The teacher moves around the class to check what the students are doing, listen to their execution of their roles and gives help only when necessary or when he/she asked to.
- The teacher does not correct the errors in grammar or pronunciation during the activity, but takes written notes of them.
- The teacher lets the students do the role play without interference from him/her.

Third: Production Stage (Executing the Activity)

- The teacher asks students to act out their roles while he/she observes them and takes notes.
- The teacher gives feedback on grammar, vocabulary and pronunciation problems after the activity is over.
- The teacher assesses holistically the performance according to the taken notes and reinforces the students' participation by praising and encouraging them to be better.

Activity One: A Visit to the North Pole (P. 43)

(Fadia and Jameela are at Fadia's house. Fadia was watching a program about North Pole on National Geographic Channel on TV. The following dialogue was between the two friends.)

A-Fadia B-Jameela
A- It's a very nice place to visit! I like it so much!
B- What are you watching, Fadia?
A- It's a program about the North Pole.
B- The North Pole? What is the North Pole?
A- It's a very cold place at the north of the Earth where you can see polar bears and seals.
B- Wow! I like polar bears! What else can we see there?
A- You can also see icebergs and a lot of snow and ice.
B- Icebergs? Are they animals?
A- No, they are not. They are separated pieces of ice that reach the sea.
B- Aha! Are there penguins? I love penguins. They are funny birds while walking. (laughing)
A- No. Penguins don't live in the North Pole.
B- Mmmm! But how can one go there?
A- If I had a lot of money, I would go on an Arctic boat trip; such a trip would be amazing, but very expensive. I wish I could go there!

Appendix B

Speaking Skill Test for the Tenth Grade

**A- Section 1: The examiner asks 5 questions to each student.** (10 marks)

1- Where do you live?
2- How many brothers and sisters do you have?
3- What is your favorite (sport, food, subject, hobby)? Why?
4- What is your father's/mother's job? What does your father/mother do?
5- What would you like to be in the future?

**B- Section 2: The examiner gives each student 3 topics from the following ones and asks him/her to choose one of these topics to talk for 5-7 minutes after giving him/her 2-3 minutes to think about. The student may jot down some notes to use.** (15 marks)

1- Do you think the internet is good or bad? Why?
2- Talk about an invention which you think has changed our life.
3- Have you ever been in a trip or picnic? Talk about it.
4- Jordan suffers from shortage of water. Give some possible solutions.
5- Look at this picture (the examiner shows a picture of a natural scene). Describe what you see.
6- Who is your best friend? Talk about what you like/dislike in her/him.
7- If you found a treasure, what would you do with it?
8- Who is your best/worst teacher? Why?
9- Do you like the English language? Why?
10- What would you like to study at university? Why?
11- Talk about a person who impressed and inspired you.
12- The traffic jam is a real problem in Jordan. Discuss this topic and give some possible solutions
13- Talk about a country you like to visit. Why? What is it famous for?
14- Describe cooking your favorite dish (e.g. Mansaf and Maqloubah).
15- Compare life in the city and that in the country. Which do you prefer? Why?

Appendix C

The Rating Score of the Oral Test (Harris,1977)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Criteria</th>
<th>Scores</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Pronunciation</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>has few traces of foreign language.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>intelligible, thought one is conscious of a definite accent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>pronunciation problem that necessitates concentrated listening and occasionally lead to misunderstanding.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>very hard to understand because of pronunciation problem, most frequently be asked to repeat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>pronunciation problem to serve as to make speech virtually unintelligible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>makes few (if any) noticeable errors of grammar and word order.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>occasionally makes grammatical and or word orders errors that do not, however obscure meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>makes frequent errors of grammar and word order, which occasionally obscure meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>grammar and word order errors make comprehension difficult, must often rephrases sentence.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>errors in grammar and word order, so, severe as to make speech virtually unintelligible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Vocabulary</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>uses of vocabulary and idioms is virtually that of native speaker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>uses inappropriate terms and must rephrases ideas because of shortage in the lexical knowledge.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>frequently uses the wrong words conversation somewhat limited because of inadequate vocabulary.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>misuses of words and very limited vocabulary makes comprehension quite difficult.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>vocabulary limitation so extreme as to make conversation virtually impossible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Fluency</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>speech is as fluent and effortless as that of a native speaker.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>speed of speech seems to be slightly affected by language problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3</td>
<td>speed and fluency are rather strongly affected by language problem.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>usually hesitant, often forced into silence by language limitation.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>speech is so halting and fragmentary as to make conversation virtually impossible.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>appears to understand everything without difficulty.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>understands nearly everything at normal speed although occasionally repetition may be necessary.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Appendix D

**Training Program of the Role-Play Strategy**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>DAY</th>
<th>AIMS</th>
<th>PROCEDURES</th>
<th>TIME</th>
<th>NOTES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>day 1</td>
<td>At the end of this day, the trainee is expected to:</td>
<td>1- greeting the trainee and ask about the language skills and their significance especially speaking skill. 2- start talking about strategies of teaching speaking, then start talking about role-play strategy, its advantages, types, and effect on improving language skills especially speaking. 3 - presenting the P.P.P model as an approach of instruction for teaching role-play speaking activity.</td>
<td>2.5 hours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- recognize the significance of teaching speaking skill</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- use the redesigned learning material of speaking skill.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>- understand the stages of the P.P.P Model of instruction</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>at the end of this day, the trainee is expected to:</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1- conduct the speaking skill test for the tenth grade students.</td>
<td>1- greeting the trainees and asks her about way of assessing speaking skill 2- presenting the speaking tests and explaining its two parts and the procedures of conducting the exam. 3- explaining the Rating Score of the Oral Test, its criteria and way of assessing the performance of speaking skill according to its rating scale.</td>
<td>2.5 hours</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2- recognize the main components of the speaking skill (grammar, pronunciation, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension. 3- use the Rating score of the Oral Test (Harris, 1977) in assessing students' performance in speaking skill test.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Table

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Grade</th>
<th>Comprehension Level</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Understands most of what is said at slower than normal speed without repetition.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Has great difficulty following what is said. Can comprehend only “social conversation” spoken slowly and with frequent repetitions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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English Phraseology: Cognitive, Symbolic and Terminological Aspects
(Based on Idioms with Colour Adjectives Black/White/Red)

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Abstract
The authors focus on idioms as means of categorization of the world and means of keeping temporal and spatial cultural-historical data transmission. Special attention is given to the symbolic meaning of idiom components. Aspects of English phraseology are analyzed by emphasizing phraseological antonymy as an important linguistic universal that is pointed out as binary structures playing an important role in cognition by participating in cognitive and structural processes. The analysis considers explicit and implicit representation of the concept of ‘white’, its semiotic and symbolic meanings and its psychical effect on a human being. The article focuses on the process of phrase-forming as a language phenomenon and an efficient means of term-formation in the English language. The authors discusses possibility of using and reproducing idioms with the phraseological model adjective + noun and forecasts further term-formation according to the phraseological model. The article is aimed at showing interaction of linguistic and extra linguistic aspects within an idiom, as a linguistic unit, and the way the linguistic aspects transform into extra linguistic ones and vice versa.

Key words: English, idiom, semantics, semiotics, symbolic meaning, term-formation

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Introduction

The main point of a human being’s cognition is constant comparison, estimation of the surrounding objects and as a result their likeness and unlikeness are distinguished. The process has linguistic realization through antonymic connections of linguistic units in general and idioms particularly. As for the idioms from different languages, they are a terra incognita from one side and the source of information about the nation on the other side. Idioms tend to lay bare nation’s enthusiasms, fixations, antipathies and idiosyncrasies. Symbolic and semiotic content of the colour adjective meaning influence on connotation of idioms and forming of terminological idioms. Lexical-pragmatic function of these units is the filling of lexical gaps, as the vast majority of idioms of this type has no lexical synonyms.

The research is based on the material of the English language as:

English plays a significant role in people’s lives today. Several decades ago it used to be just a foreign language but it is the language of international communication now. Generally speaking, the whole world speaks English when dealing with political, economic, scientific and sports issues. English has been adopted as the official and working language of the UN. Different summits and meetings of heads of governments, enactment of laws and decrees, negotiations and disputes are carried out and held in English. English is used in the international trade, banking operations, maritime, land and air transportation system activities (Zerkina, Kostina, & et al., 2016, p. 5147).

The manuscript is an original work based on theoretical and empiric materials and data base of authors.

Cognitive Aspect Thought Phraseological Antonymy

A cognitive approach to phraseological antonymy, its binary structures allows stating its important role in a human being’s cognition by participating in cognitive and structural processes. Cognition reflects contradictive essence of existence and it is demonstrated at empirical, rational and irrational levels. Cognition is simultaneously the process of reflecting and estimating. It is based on opposite, converse notions.

Antonymy is an important linguistic universal. It is based on association of contrariety which reflects differences of congenerous subjects, phenomena, actions, quality and indication. Being a basic lexical category, antonymy reflects universal duality of existence and services to two types of thinking: formally-logical and symbolic.

Phraseological antonymy as a process of verbalization shows emotional estimation of events in view of national thinking. It allows touching upon the processes of world-perception and reflecting culture; features of national character in the semantics of phraseological units.

Antonymy is a part of the meaning of an idiom: it is a characteristic of lexico-semantic filling of an idiom on the one side and its verbalization of contrariety and contrast on the other side. It allows analyzing not only the meaning of an idiom generally but the meaning of its components particularly.
The importance of the binary oppositions in the English culture is very high. They depict fundamental categories of existence which are universal and immanent at all stages of historical evolution. Thus, binary oppositions are used in world-modeling.

In the group of idioms containing colour-adjectives black, white, red, phraseological antonymy is firstly based on binary opposition of black::white (white magic-black magic) and secondly is based on socially determined norms and shows the specific features of phraseological antonyms (to look white about the gills - to look red about the gills). There is no lexical binary opposition between white::red. It is a sophisticated entwinement of logical and lexical categories. Idioms may depict opposite social-cultural notions and phenomena, even if they have been formed by the same mode. It allows speaking about modeling in phraseology (Black letter day-Red letter day; to be in black –to be in red).

The given group of idioms contains so-called “false” antonyms (Black Friars-White Friars; Black Flag-White Flag). Idioms are based on different images. They can not be opposed. The cause of the phenomenon is symbolic and semiotic meanings of the colour which create different images. Symbolic and semiotic meanings of the colour predefine the paradigmatic position of the idioms. Capability of the idioms to form antonyms reveals “hidden” semantic of colour adjective.

Thus, phraseological antonymy is a case of general antonymy which is so entwined with cognition and estimation, conceptualization and categorization with the aim of structuring the world. Identification of specific features of phraseological antonyms allows us to establish linguo-epistemological substance of the process, semantic and expressive potential of lexical antonyms. Binary oppositions are types of cognitive structures which are participating in cognition and modeling.

Symbolic, Explicit and Implicit in Adjectives and Idioms

The dictionary definitional analysis and the recorded examples do not provide a comprehensive content analysis of the concept white, “… the language as a means of transmitting information improves human intelligence, creates new texts that have some informational value and contribute in their turn to circulation of information, including valuerelated information.” (Zerkina, Lomakina, Kostina 2015, p. 256).

Verbalization of the concept actualizes through the lexeme “white” and its semantic variants “ashen”, “colourless”, “pale”, “pallid”, “pasty”, “wan” etc. The lexical variants verbalize different characteristics of the general concept white. It is obvious the concept determines the semantic of linguistic means which are used to express it. But if we want to characterize the semantic usage properly which is accepted in any speech community and belongs to the described language, we should not only describe it. We can achieve the result only by applying collective estimations which are adopted in the community so we must take into consideration the public opinion. One and the same thing may have different descriptions in different civilizations. Such semantic definitions must have substantial consequences for the formal analysis of linguistic units.

So the concept white analysis and its explicit and implicit means of representation are possible only by considering semiotic and symbolic meanings of the white colour and its psychical effect.
on a human being. Originally the biopsychic experience of a human being and life experience of a person as a social being accept the white colour in the following meaning: it associates with light; it indicates the direction and signifies beginning, purity and cleanliness. The entwinement of symbolic and semiotic meanings of any colour has a very long history.

Having studied the dictionaries of symbols and some works about colour symbolism, we bring up the fact that the analyzed colour and the concept which is formed by it in the human mind can display the following symbolic meaning.

The white colour signifies cleanliness, simplicity, innocence, the truth, hope, holiness, charity. It is a symbol of peace, forgiveness. The Church regards the white colour as the colour of God (God rose in the White Clothes). It is the colour of Christmas, Easter, Ascension tide. It is the colour of ghosts in the folklore and the colour of beasts which took off knights to the full of adventures woods. It is the colour of majesty and aristocracy.

According to Cirlot (1973), symbolic colour meaning has three sources of origin.
1) The inherent characteristic of each colour, perceived intuitively as an objective fact;
2) The relationship between a colour and the planetary symbol traditionally linked with it;
3) The relationship which elementary, primitive logic perceives. (Cirlot,1973, p.53)

Cirlot (1973), asserts that contemporary psychologists and psychoanalysts give the third source the primary importance and consider the second one as an interlink. The purity of any colour reflects the purity of its symbolic meaning.

The basic colours reflect the main evident emotions; the minor, peripheral colours reflect more complicated, confused, derivative notions.

Thus, the analysis of the explicit and implicit representation of the concept white proves the fact that any concept is formed in a human mind as a result of his sense experience and practical activity and as a result of generalization of concepts of his mind. The process of forming is constant and its speed and qualitative changes depend on linguistic and extra linguistic reasons.

English cultural-historical idioms containing the colour adjective component have some symbolic value that is a special kind of the word meaning of sustainable and conventional or an associational correlation between a symbolizing one and the one being symbolized is motivated by extra linguistic social function of a symbolizing one. Such idioms act as a means of categorizing the world and contribute to the storage and transmission of cultural and historical values. Besides, such idioms as a linguistic sign are involved in the categorization process within history and culture concept spheres, serve as history and culture artifacts; participate in symbolization of the world. The motivational source of these idioms, the way they save cultural-historical symbols and the way meanings are "woven" in phraseological semantics are the questions which are to be considered.

The following idiomatic example also allows to trace the specific features of the symbolic meaning as conventionality, the iconic character, motivation and sustainability, reproducibility.
“Phraseological units absorb values of the ages in which it lives. The problem of understanding the meaning of a phraseological unit is linked with a possibility of increasing our knowledge about the world diachronically.”(Zerkina, Kostina, 2015, p. 143)

In the English language, culture and history the adjective purple has a special connotative meaning, as the colour assigned to this lexeme is a Royal symbol of power of the monarch. The actualization of this concept in phraseology (to be born (cradled) in (the) purple - to be the offspring of the king; to be highborn) only underlines its importance for the British. The history artifacts that have turned the colour into the symbol can be found when examining the etymology of the adjective purple.

The word “purple” comes from the Latin, purpura and from the Greek porphyra. The words originally meant purple fish or shellfish and we were the names for the whelk or snail from which a brilliant dark red or purple dye could be obtained. The dye was the basis for the wealth of the Phoenician trading Empire, which flourished in the lands around the Mediterranean Sea several thousand years ago. The whelk was extremely rare and costly, and cloths dyed with it was worth, its weight in gold. In fact, the people of the Phoenician city of Tyre were so grateful to the little animal that made their fortunes, they stamped their coins with the picture of a whelk shell. At one time the Roman emperors restricted the use of this dye to the imperial family, so it is sometimes called imperial or royal purple. As purple came to be associated with rulers and loyalty, a person born to rule was sometimes spoken of as “born to the purple”. (Balk, 2002, p. 68).

In these examples, the important is not the colour itself but its symbolic meaning, which transforms the phrase into the idiom, thus, the semantics of the idiom is specified by a symbolically marked component, and the idiom itself, as a secondary sign of semiotization, performs a specific function in the symbolization of the world.

The study of modern English lexical composition conducted by scientists of different directions, indicates that extra linguistic, referent referral of the word has an effect on its linguistic features. Any natural language is a special sign system that stores and transmits information of all kinds in time and space. The main and essential difference of the language is that it is a primary sign system, the system that is the basis of human consciousness. Its formation occurs by means of natural language. Using the language, a person acquires the ability to communicate, inference, think.

The example of the colour adjective red, as a component of the idiom, the interlacing and reflection of the symbolic and semiotic interpretations of color in the connotative aspect of the phraseological meaning is worth considering. In the syntagmatic sense, the colour adjective red can appear in its nominative meaning, but the motivation for its use has different sources, based in the field of extra linguistics and relating to some background knowledge.

The red color is associated with blood, fire and indicates danger, anxiety, stopping. E.g. the red cock; to see the red light; to be like a red rag to a bull; to blush like a black dog.) Semantics of the colour is interpreted as: a fiery life, energy, vivacity, love, strength, wealth, power, fame danger, war. E.g. A red letter day; to paint the town red; You have the red cap-said to a marriage-
maker; Lass in the red petticoat (shall pay for all) - young men answer so when they are chid for being so prodigal and expensive, meaning they will get a wife with good portion, that will pay for it.

In these idioms, connotative value includes a cultural element of socio-historical character: the former fashion for red colour in higher circles. In other words, the adjective red retains its nominative value, but it is relevant only to identify the attribute underlying the expression. The value of the idiom in general is directly dependent on its denotative orientation, which has a pronounced socio-cultural, national character. Because of its greater saturation in comparison with other colours, red colour has the property of being conspicuous, on which its use is based as a means of underlining, highlighting (to be in red, red tape).

Adjective red in the English language and red colour are able to display the following symbolic interpretation:

- in church interpretation, this is the colour of the feast of the Trinity, as well as of the martyrs, and it acts as a symbol of supreme power. This is the meaning of the colour of cardinal clothes (Red hat). In combination with black it symbolizes hell, the devil. The name of Adam, the first man created by God, means, according to ancient Jewish traditions, both "alive" and "red."
- in folklore, this is the colour of magic: since ancient times the fairy's cap and the musician's caps have always been red. In popular superstition, a positive connotation of red has remained, according to which red colour scares off witches and neutralizes their charms (Baker, 1974, p.43). This judgment is reflected in the proverb: Rowan tree and red ribbons scare the witches away.
- red colour in heraldry means generosity, steadfastness. This is the colour of blood, and therefore symbolizes both love, and hatred, aggression. This is the colour of the struggle for life, superiority, fire, danger.

In the English language and society the state "loyalty" to the red color appears in the symbols of power: the flags, emblems, sets of laws and reflected in the phraseological units (Red Dragon, the Red Duster The Red Book). The motivating source of the symbolic use of red colour in the attributes of state power, is due to the days of the Roman Empire, where civil laws were printed on red called rubrica, and the rubrica vetavit expression means "it is forbidden by civil laws" (The Red Laws - set of laws of Ancient Rome). Later in the British Empire the rescripts and a number of state books were printed also in red (the Red Book, the Red Book of the Exchequer, the Red Book of Hergest). Besides, red was always the colour of British territory on official maps and in mapping the "all red route" means travel within the British Commonwealth (Theroux, 1994, p. 175).

Red colour is the colour of the royal guild, it is also considered the colour of hunters because of fox hunting, which Henry II proclaimed to be a royal sport. In all cases, the important thing is not the color itself, but its symbolic meaning, which turns the word combination into an idiom. In this case, we can say that symbolic meaning is the actualizer of phraseological meaning. "(Repnikova, 1999, p.121-122)."
This color symbolizes iron and the planet Mars - the planet of war. Hence its importance as the colour of courage (The Red Badge of Courage), the revolution. In the idioms, containing an indication of the symbolism, the semantics of the colour adjective red is detached from the concept of the "colour" and acts as a qualitative characteristic of the person, a phenomenon, or an object.

The adjective red is able to develop a symbolic socio-religious semantics, not only as a way of embodying the colour symbol in the meaning of the idiom and the formation of some connotative meanings, but also by reversing the development of connotative meaning into denotative meaning. Such a feature is inherent only in idioms, which are the names of objects chosen by people as carriers of certain symbols. Symbolic social values develop real symbols, which are endowed with a symbolic colour. So, they are painted in this colour having symbolism known to a native speaker. For example, according to religious canons, harlots were depicted in red clothes - Scarlet Woman of Babylon, symbolic interpretation of colour is embodied in the Red Light District (Red Lamp).

**Terminology and Phraseology**

In the classical sense, terms are a class of emotionally neutral, uncommon vocabulary that does not have a portable meaning. But observations of modern speech processes suggest the integration of terminological and phraseological means in the terminology process.

In the speech practice, the process of stabilization and fixation of relatively stable definite verbal complexes is constantly undergoing, that is, the process of phraseologization that is the reinterpretation of the original word combination based on metaphor, metonymy, hyperbole, allogism, etc., when the semantic transformation of the word into a component of phraseology takes place.

The process of phraseologization can be considered as an effective method of terminology in the English language, and phraseology as a constant and inevitable source of replenishment of terminological vocabulary.

The phraseological character of the terminology testifies to a special type of linguistic assimilation of reality. Phraseologization, as a productive semantic way of creating terms based on various metaphorical and metonymic transfers of the meaning, has a long history and realization today.

Terms based on phraseological formation possesses complicated meaning, partially transposed meaning, with narrowed meaning (a red bead tree), broadened meaning (white bread) or shifted one (a Green Paper = the government's consultation document on immigration, taxes and social benefits) by value.

As Kunin (2005) marks:
The characteristic feature for idioms is the presence of a meaning that clarifies the meaning of the components of the variable word combination, which is the prototype of an idiom, and the literal values of the components are an integral part of the value of a turnover and as a whole are its internal form. The added value is narrower in comparison with the value of the prototype of the idiom. (p.327).

The uniformity of the units (the adjective + noun) common to this kind of idiomatic terms (a Green Paper / a White Paper) allows us to talk about the existence of a phraseological model of terminological nature that can be viewed both as a kind of "mechanism" and as its reflection in consciousness by means of which the same type of combinations are made. This generalized abstract logical-semantic construction is an invariant unity of semantic constants. The phraseological nature of these terminological idioms constructed according to typical models presupposes their active functioning in discursive practice and wide possibilities of usualization, that is, the acquisition by the given phraseomatism of the property of reproducibility. And as a consequence, in the semantic plan, a certain lexico-phraseological concept is formed, which is fixed in the linguistic consciousness and predetermines the functioning of the terminological idioms in speech activity.

According to a specially undertaken study, Repnikova, (1999):

The formation of this phraseological model, where the same type of units occurs around the colour adjectival, can be attributed to the beginning of the XIV century, since the first written mention of most idioms of this group dates from this century. red wine; white / red / black game; etc.). (Repnikova, 1999,p.93)

In a number of idioms of this group, the component colour adjective is used to shade one or another side of a phenomenon (black / white frost; white harvest; white / black squall). The phraseological model that existed in the Middle English language is very productive throughout the development of the language, but in the quantitative sense, the XVII century stands out particularly, which can be explained by the development of the natural sciences, which was accompanied by the need to create:

Accessible "terminology that could be used in journalism, colloquial speech, that is, words and expressions were needed that would give an idea of the object in an accessible form. Terminological word combinations perform the function of an exact name in any branch of human knowledge. They are based on a rigid combination of sem, in which the removal, replacement of any semes are almost impossible. (Repnikova 1999, p.94).

Lexical-pragmatic function of these units is the filling of lexical gaps, as the vast majority of idioms of this type, there is no lexical synonyms. When implementing similar turns in speech, the fact of an object designation is important, but not the stylistic use of the turnover, so these idioms are deprived of emotional colouring.

A sign is motivated with more or less clearly, but it is very conditional, as it in no way might be taken to reflect the substance of a feature of an object. This meaning is derived from paired or
multiple oppositions of terminology: White/ black/ red game; white/ red blood cells; Red/ Black/ White Sea; a Green Paper/ a White Paper; white meat, white fish

Although the term is a special kind of word, but even acquiring phraseological meaning, it, like any other word, can vary in the process of language development and gain other values and become polysemantic, to have synonyms (Black Book - Black List; white-collar worker - a white tie affair; black –coated worker - blue-collar worker). The process of change and acquisition of new values can be seen in the example of the idiom red rag – the language – the slang expression; anything that causes rage. Red rag is a derivative of an idiom to be like a red rag to a bull.

Also it is interesting for consideration the idiomatic fusions where the adjective component is included in the category of "ex-words". Their characteristic feature is a change in the denotations of denoting the literal meaning in which they are also terminological units. These idioms obtain their figurative meaning by semantic transfer, which is accompanied by the fact that the adjective loses not only its nominative value, but acquires sems, which are uncommon, potentially not inherent in its semantics. Intermediate steps of reinvention are the extra linguistic factors: tradition, social practice, customs (a white elephant; a black sheep; a red herring; a black eye).

The loss of potential sems having nominative and nominative - derivative nature and acquisition of new sems contributes to the increase of the phraseological activity and valence of idioms.

Among the units of this group there is also the phenomenon of semantic shift, where a component of the adjective retains its nominative value, acquiring sem terminology: White House, Blue Book, Blue/ White/Yellow Pages.

In modern English there appear the phrases of the model (adjective + noun) that were not yet recorded by the dictionaries as idioms, but have all the signs of their formation. For example, black hole(s). Not all "respectable" dictionaries, particularly The Oxford English Dictionary, still captures the meaning of the phrase as "unexplored, unknown, hypothetical object". (Oxford English Dictionary, 1989, p. 1078) Another phrase - white goods – fixed the dictionaries, but with no tag "idiom". White goods mean home appliances. The use of an adjective is motivated by the fact that the majority of home appliances are white in colour, but, as practice shows, the white colour of home appliances has been already widely replaced by designers with other colours to create the desired effect, this phrase gets a terminological shade and the component colour adjective white becomes a potential word, the “former” word from a number of real words of idioms.

Thus, idiomatic terms as a special type of lexical units, being the names of flora and fauna, objects, tools, various phenomena, processes, etc. can be the result of a phraseologization process passing on a model - an adjective + a noun.

In the course of further development of society and science, the number of terms of this type in the English language will increase due to wider use of analogy between real-world objects.

Conclusion
Some fascinating information about English history, culture and politics came to light as we studied the subject. The cognitive approach to the study of English phraseology allows to designate a vector for the development of this type of vocabulary - from summarizing and generalizing of the people experience to its embodiment in terminology. Such universal linguistic categories as antonymy is (which phraseologic/idiomatic antonomy belongs to) reveal and demonstrate both the development of the language and the people as the bearer of the language, fixing all the stages of the evolution of its intellect: from primitive thinking to scientific thought.

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References

Exploring the Construction of Professional Selves of Non-native EFL Teachers at a Saudi Arabian University

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Abstract  
This study aims to investigate the factors that develop the professional identity of Pakistani English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers in Saudi Arabia. This study is unique in the sense that there has been hardly any systematic investigation that has considered the professional identity of Pakistani EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia. This study has two considerations: the way EFL teachers' selves evolve and the personal, professional, social and pedagogical factors constructing a teacher’s professional identity. This study was conducted at the English Language Institute of Saudi Arabian University and the study employed a quantitative survey method. The quantitative data was collected from 41 Pakistani EFL teachers by using an online questionnaire. The findings from the research revealed that a number of intrinsic and extrinsic factors develop the professional identity of Pakistani EFL teachers. Among these factors are the participants' pre-Saudi Arabia lives and the decision to become EFL teachers, the decision to come to Saudi Arabia, the impact of their overseas EFL experience, and the social influence on their own professional identity. Moreover, other factors that develop these teachers' professional identities are: being non-native, their views on continuing professional development (CPD), interaction with other EFL teachers, and their professional futures.

Key words: constructing teaching selves, NNEST, Pakistani EFL teachers, professional identity, Saudi EFL context

Introduction

There has been a tremendous amount of research done on teachers' professional identity around the globe to explore the forces that shape the teachers' sense of self. Identity is a unique set of characteristics a particular individual possesses against the perceptions and characteristics of others (Pennington, 2015). Professional identity emerges out of social, cultural and personal discourses (Marsh, 2003,) and these discourses lead to a holistic professional identity construction. Furthermore, teacher professional identity development has attracted a good deal of research interest (Akkerman & Meijer, 2011) as identity is a lens which reflects teachers’ professional achievements and aspirations. The professional identity of an EFL teacher basically draws from extrinsic and intrinsic forces. Extrinsic forces are determined by external rewards whereas intrinsic factors reflect “personal desire” (Claeys, 2011, p. 4) for professional and identity development. Yet there is another altruistic factor, according to Claeys (2011), that influences identity shaping and reshaping and that is altruism which is defined as the tendency to serve society.

Teacher professional identity refers to the professional self of someone in his/her role as a teacher, as Pennington and Richards (2016) maintain that language teachers continue to develop the pedagogical skills as language teaching professionals as well as to construct their identity as language teachers. There is a burgeoning emphasis on teacher professional identity globally, with increasing focus on the development of teacher identity over the span of a career (Lamote & Engels, 2010). However, not enough attention has been paid to the ways a non-native EFL teacher’s continued identity evolves beyond specific teacher professional development and the actual teaching-learning experience. Teachers of English tend to mostly explore ways to enhance their professional identity with the help of improving classroom practices and socio-cultural engagement which further improves their job efficacy and satisfaction. This view point is in line with the recent research conducted by Nguyen and Bui (2016) which contends that in search of identity, English language teachers undertake different pursuits which cross the boundaries of their typical classrooms.

Due to the rapid growth and expansion of English language worldwide, EFL teachers have become globetrotters in the pursuit of better teaching opportunities as well as enhancing their travelling experience. As a result, the teachers of English from the outer circle (Kachru, 1986) along with those of the inner circle have been serving the English language since the onset of globalization. Similarly the number of expatriate EFL teachers from different nationalities around the globe is growing rapidly in Saudi Arabia, like in other parts of the world. Even though the teacher self-construction has gained importance in the literature on teacher self and identity development, the EFL teachers in Saudi context have been ignored. This study will investigate how non-native EFL teachers at a Saudi Arabian public university perceive the formation of their professional identities and how various intrinsic and extrinsic factors have led them to develop their professional identities over their career. As teachers' professional identity is a critical component of their identification, the teachers need to be aware of the multifaceted factors and their relationship among these factors. Thus this study will highlight the elements that influence the non-native EFL teachers' perceptions of their professional identities and will further provide guidelines for the novice and prospective teachers who envision their career in TESOL. Its distinct contribution to the field comes from the fact that there is hardly any research on EFL teachers' identity in Saudi Arabia and particularly studies pertaining to EFL teachers' identity development.
Also, the results of this research may be useful for administrative decisions regarding educational policies and the training of EFL practitioners. Therefore, it is hoped that this study will also contribute to the general understanding of what it is like to be an EFL teacher in Saudi Arabia where teachers face multiple socio-cultural challenges and how they cope with them.

This research intends to contribute to the discussion on how EFL teachers' identities are developed. The aim of the research is to widen the existing knowledge of the influence of personal, social, and professional factors on the teacher's self. This study aims to answer the following question:

What factors develop the professional identity of non-native EFL teachers at a Saudi Arabian public university?

**Literature Review**

**The nature of identity**

Identity researchers have used different theoretical positions such as psycho-social, socio-cultural, structuralist and post-structuralist perspectives to explore identity, and have focused on various facets of identity such as social identity, cultural identity, gender identity and professional identity, etc. For the purposes of this research, the working definition of "identity" is “how a person understands his or her relationship to the world, how the relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future” (Norton, 2000, p. 5).

Wenger (1998) argues that identity construction is a mutual engagement and shared repertoire. Identity is not fixed or static, but can comprise a broad set of attitudes, knowledge and practices (Henkel, 2000). According to Wenger (1998) there are five dimensions of identity: a) identity as negotiated experience: where individuals define themselves as who they are by way of participation and by the way they and others reify themselves; b) identity as community membership: where we define who we are by the familiar and unfamiliar; c) identity as learning trajectory: where we explore where we are and where we are going; d) identity as a nexus of multiple membership: where we reconcile diverse forms of identity into one identity, and e) identity as a relation between the local and the global: where we become part of the greater whole and manifest greater styles and discourses.

**Professional Identity**

Hooley (2007) defines a professional as a person who has completed a program of "rigorous initial preparation involving specialized knowledge as decided by the profession, and who has been approved by the profession as a registered practitioner with the right to exercise autonomous, professional judgment" (p. 50). Professional identity is the result of a process that facilitates individuals to achieve an understanding of their profession in conjunction with their own self-image enabling them to act their role, philosophy and approach to others within and outside their own selected field (Brott & Myers, 1999; Smith & Robinson, 1995). Thus professional identity is strictly related to profession and professionals.

In Henkel’s (2000) view, institutions provide a strong source of reification of a professional. Reification is the process by which a definitive value is ascribed to an abstract idea
such as identity. However, Talburt (2000) argues that disciplinary communities within institutions are not always neutral and stable and that while academics may be at the center of their discipline, in reality they play only a marginal role because of the identity that is imposed on him. Taking the similar idea further, Tsui (2007) asserts that the 'legitimacy of access to practice' is influenced by the power relationship within a community. He argues that there are two major sources of identity formation: the individual spots that his/her competence is valued in a specific community; and the individual is given the legitimacy of access to practice.

Teacher identity

According to Canrinus, Helms-Lorenz, Beijaard, Buitink & Hofman (2012) teachers' professional identity is "how teachers see themselves as teachers is based on their continuing interaction with their context"(p. 116). Similarly, Coldron and Smith (1999) observed the tension in the formation of teachers' identity maintaining that teachers' identity was partly given and partly achieved by active social location. In addition to the context and social location, Beijaard and Verloop (2000) contend that teachers' professional identity is a combination of teachers' distinct expertise such as subject matter, didactical and pedagogical. Therefore, teachers' identity formation lies in the reconciliation of competing social and academic arenas. Moreover, along with contextual, biographical and cultural factors, the teachers' sense of their professional identity, self-efficacy, job satisfaction, professional commitment and the level of motivation shape and reshape teachers' professional selves (Canrinus et al., 2012).

Negotiation of identity is also an important part of the teachers' identity formation process; however, according to Tsui (2007) identification and negotiability may come into conflict with each other. These conflicts either lead to new forms of engagement where an individual gets ready to perform a different role and own new meaning or to marginality and thus disengagement. Sometimes the teachers are not autonomous to the point where they can build their identities on the basis of their wishes and values. Henkel (2000) believes that educational policies are heavily structured around assessment which leads to a false distinction between good and bad practitioners. Echoing the same idea, Shah & Harthi, (2014) argued that EFL teachers at a Saudi Arabian university often face enormous challenges due to institutional policies such as the practice of classroom observation.

Teachers' professional identities consist of various aspects of expertise such as subject matter, didactical and pedagogical expertise. It is a widely accepted notion that mere knowledge of the subject matter is not enough as there are more complex realities like classroom management and facilitation of learning. Deep and full understanding of the subject matter coupled with a knowledge of many concepts and their relationships are expected from an efficient teacher (Calderhead, 1996). Though we can assume that classroom skills and practices can seem rather elementary, having sufficient competence and expertise make a teacher legitimate one, as Wenger (1998) asserts that "identity is an experience and a display of competence"(p. 152).

Practical and pragmatic aspects of teacher identity

There are a number of practical, pragmatic aspects that influence teacher identity. Salifu and Agbenyega (2013) identify the occupational status as one of the extrinsic factors that affect teachers' professional identity. The recognition and esteem teachers enjoy as professional is
counted as occupational status. However, the importance given to a teacher's contributions in an institution also adds to their sense of occupational sense of a teacher (Maslow, 1954). In addition, Muller, Alliata and Benningh (2009) assert that teachers derive satisfaction from the higher social needs like self-esteem and social relations. When teachers get opportunities to be promoted to the leadership position, their practices are legitimized and give rise to a new teacher professional identity (Nicholson and Carroll, 2013). Nevertheless, studies have found that some people come to the teaching profession as a last resort career (Ejieh, 2009); as teaching particularly ESL/EFL teaching is not among the established careers. Also, according to Alnefaie (2016), teachers in Saudi Arabia do not participate in curriculum designing which is affecting their classroom practices. Keeping in view the teachers' vulnerabilities, therefore, the CfBT (1989) warns that by the age of forty five, very few EFL teachers are left in full engagement in their career. McKnight's (1992) results echo those of CfBT's when he says that due to lack of structure EFL/ESL teachers are faced with low morale and social status, high rate of attrition and are considered underclass even by their colleagues.

Non-native English language teachers' identity

The debate of native and nonnative English teacher is as old as the notion of teacher identity, but has gained prominence in the recent literature. Canagarajah (1999) points out that 80% of EFL teachers worldwide are non-native speakers of English. When native teachers and non-native teachers work at the same place, the non-native teachers have a feeling of inferiority due to having insufficient sense of English language proficiency and insufficient knowledge of the teaching practices prevailing in the Western EFL/ESL teaching context (Richards, 2008). He also maintains that these facts negatively affect the non-native teachers' performance and thus hampers their professional identity. Fichner and Chapman (2011) explain how foreign language teachers come into contact with multiple cultures and how the resultant cultural identity impacts their classroom practices. Kim (2011) proves how the self-esteem of EFL teachers affects their identity and how non-native teachers see themselves as compared to native teachers. Similarly, Demirezen (2007) points out the identity problems faced by nonnative teachers and how they build a different perspective about their identity as an EFL teacher. However, this view is being disputed by Velez-Rendon (2010) by suggesting that both native and non-native teachers could be effective provided they gain proper training. Li (2009) suggests that non-native EFL teachers are not considered inferior by the students as long as there are no communication issues between the teacher and the students. Medgyes (1992) suggests that non-native teachers are often more proficient in teaching methodologies than native teachers while Daif-Allah (2010) and Zughoul (2003) suggest they are often more qualified since they struggle to keep their jobs and to achieve this objective they get involved in professional development more than the later.

EFL teachers' professional identity

Numerous factors contribute to the identity development of EFL teachers: contextual factors, such as work places (Xu, 2013); policies (Varghese, 2006); intrinsic factors, such as motivation (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2009); agency (Gao, 2010) as well as conflicts and interactions between individual's multiple identities (Tsui, 2007). Kong (2013) identifies three comprehensive themes for the investigation of the experiences of TESOL professionals. These three themes define identity being: a) multiple, subject to conflict and change, b) closely linked to context, and c) connected to discourse and power relations. Firstly, identity being multiple and subject to conflict
and change refers to the view that vagaries of life, social complexities and geographic relocation might give an individual multiple identities (Kramsch, 1998). Moreover, the different needs of an individual fluctuate and may give rise to contradictions and inconsistencies (Miller, 2000). Secondly, identity being linked to context implies that identity is influenced by different contexts in different situations. Different social settings demand different use of language and might influence the types of identities an individual can have (Lee, 2003). EFL teachers as global careerists expand the horizons of their expertise in a foreign context, as the overseas experience gained help the expatriate workers to look at their professional career and identity from a broader angle (Nasholm, 2011). According to Johnston (1999) expatriate [EFL] teachers embrace diversity and seek out new voices and new cultural values. However, identity formation can become complex for EFL teachers when the English language is considered a threat to the established values of a particular society. For example, a segment of Saudi Arabian society seems to think that English leads to Westernization (Al-Haq & Smadi, 1996, as cited in Mahboob & Elyas, 2014).

Methodology

This study was conducted in the positivist paradigm which regards human behavior as passive and determined by external factors, as Al-Bargi and Shah (2013) notice that “positivist methodology is concerned with explaining relationships among various phenomena” (p. 255). Therefore, this study sought to dig down into the teachers’ selves and ascertain the external and internal factors that impacted EFL teachers’ professional identity.

Method

This study employed a quantitative data survey method in order to probe the identity of EFL teachers accurately and objectively. The quantitative method was used for two purposes: firstly, the measurement of the teachers' identity should be reliable, valid and generalizable (Cassell and Symon, 1994) when it predicts the causes and effects of various factors that construct teachers' identity; secondly, the subjectivity of judgment on part of the teachers should be eliminated or minimized (Kealey & Protheroe, 1996). In addition, in order for the survey questionnaire to be uniformly understood by the vast majority of the participants, the survey questionnaire was totally self-explanatory and not too time-consuming (Blair and Blair 2015).

The Research Context

The venue and context for this study is the English Language Institute (ELI) of Saudi university. The ELI provides general English language courses to over 13,000 students enrolled annually in its foundation year program. To cater for these high numbers, the ELI currently has over 600 male and female teachers from various nationalities across different campuses.

Participants

For this study, the participants were 50 Pakistani EFL teachers working at the ELI. After giving them the details about the study, they indicated their willingness to participate in the study. The responses were collected electronically. Prior to sending them the survey link, I called all the participants and informed them about this research project. Furthermore, all participants were male since the research was conducted at the male campus of the ELI. The vast majority of participants (n=22) were in the 35-44 age range.
Before sending out the questionnaire to participants, the questionnaire was pilot-tested for reliability. For the sake of anonymity and convenience, the questionnaire was delivered via SurveyMonkey. 41 respondents completed the questionnaire.

Method of data analysis
Survey questionnaire data was analyzed with the help of the Filter and Compare functions of SurveyMonkey that allows researchers to view and analyze the responses of individuals or groups of respondents. These data analysis functions of the SurveyMonkey enabled me to tabulate and cross-tabulate different factors of the questionnaire and find out the relationships among these factors. For example, how the overseas teaching experience of one age group was different than the other age group.

Results & Analysis
Respondents’ pre-Saudi professional lives
The study shows clear evidence that the teacher identity of respondents was already being shaped before they arrived in Saudi Arabia. As illustrated in Figure 1, in terms of reasons for becoming an EFL teacher, over half the respondents (51%) indicated that they became English teachers due to their interest in the subject while less than a third (17%) indicated they used English language teaching as a vehicle to teach abroad. Similarly, 11% believed that they were left with no better career option. As indicated in figure 1, the respondents’ reasons for wanting to work abroad were better salaries (34%), professional opportunities (21%) and better living standard (20%).

![Figure 1. Reasons for becoming and EFL teacher and working abroad](image-url)
Respondents' views of their overseas EFL experience and the development of their professional identity

The participants' years of service at the ELI have an impact on their views about their professional identities, as explained in Table 1. The data seems to show that those with 5-9 years of experience at the ELI seem to more strongly agree with the statement than those with fewer years of experience.

Table 1: Participants' length of time at ELI and their professional identity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Answer Options</th>
<th>How long have you been teaching at ELI?</th>
<th>Response Percent</th>
<th>Response Count</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>31.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>48.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>17.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3-4 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents’ views of the social influences on their own professional identity

The data in Figure 2 show that opinions about whether EFL teachers have high social recognition seem to be quite diverse. While one third of the respondents were of the opinion that they were thought of highly by Saudi Arabian society, close to half indicated that they believed they were not respected.

Figure 2: Respondents' views on their social status

Respondents' views of being non-native Pakistani EFL teachers

Almost half of the respondents perceive that their accented pronunciation and intonation influence their professional identity, as illuminated in Figure 3. However, more than one third of the respondents perceived that their EFL teachers have high social recognition in Saudi Arabia.
the respondents believe that their accented pronunciation and intonation does not matter much.

![Bar Chart]

**My accented pronunciation and intonation influences my professional identity. (being non-native)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>My accented pronunciation and intonation influences my professional identity.</td>
<td>17.07%</td>
<td>31.71%</td>
<td>19.51%</td>
<td>24.39%</td>
<td>7.32%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 3:** The influence of accented pronunciation and intonation on professional identity

**Respondents’ views of continuing professional development (CPD) opportunities**

As Figure 4 exhibits, participants deem professional development (PD) as a major component of their professional identity development. Also, the majority of the participants, as indicated in Figure 5, believe that the non-ELI PD is more beneficial than the ELI-sponsored PD.

![Bar Chart]

**Continuing Professional Development has contributed significantly to my development as an EFL teacher.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Continuing Professional Development has contributed significantly to my development as an EFL teacher.</td>
<td>19.51%</td>
<td>60.98%</td>
<td>17.07%</td>
<td>2.44%</td>
<td>0.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4:** Participants’ views on CPD
Figure 5: Participants' views of the ELI PDU scheme and Non-ELI PD activities

Respondents' views of the significance of interaction with other EFL teachers
The data in figure 6 seems to represent the pivotal importance of interaction. Almost all participants perceive collegial interaction with other EFL teachers as a very strong factor in their professional identity development.

Figure 6: Interaction and professional identity

Interaction among EFL teachers with regards to their teaching has been valued by the vast majority of the participants, as illustrated in Figure 6. ELI administration has always encouraged the teachers and provided them different platforms to share their teaching techniques and classroom challenges with each other.

Respondents’ views of their professional futures
Future aspirations are a major determiner of their current professional practice. More than one third of the participants, as shown in Figure 7, aim to remain in teaching while more than half of the participants view their future careers as teacher trainers or administrators.
Figure. 7: Next stage in the participants' career development

Discussion
Respondents’ pre-Saudi Arabia professional lives
Teachers’ knowledge and beliefs are worth studying as they help to understand who teachers are (Brookhart & Freeman 1992). This study examined a more specific demographic (EFL teachers at a major Saudi Arabian public university) than many of the more general earlier studies. Even studies situated in the Arabian Peninsula are generally broader in terms of the participants. This study tried to explore the teachers’ reasons and motivations for becoming EFL teachers. According to Brookhart & Freeman (1992) there are three motives for selecting teaching as a career: extrinsic motives such as salaries; intrinsic motives as interest and intellectual fulfillment; and altruistic motives such as wanting to contribute to the society. This study found that the majority of the teachers’ motives behind choosing the EFL career were intrinsic which means they had interest in the subject. The results agree with Watt and Richardson's (2007) study conducted on the teachers of three Australian universities which found that intrinsic desires were the highest rated motivations for becoming a teacher. Similar to the study by Özsoy, Özsoy, Özkara, and Memiş (2010) the majority of the participants chose teaching not as a fallback career, but it was their ideal to teach. However, in this study it was also found out that some teachers came to this profession accidentally as they had no better career option left. This is similar to Ejieh’s (2009) study in which Nigerian students chose teaching as a last resort career. In a similar study conducted by Johnston (1997) and involving five expatriate and twelve local teachers, the teachers represented their entry into teaching as an accident rather than a calling.

EFL experience and the development of EFL teachers’ professional identity
The vast majority of the respondents perceived their ELI experience, which was the first overseas experience for most of them, as valuable and a significant factor in the development of their professional identity. In other words, being expatriate EFL teachers added value to their experience and identity, as global careerists experience shifts in their identities development in the course of their careers (Nasholm, 2011). Defining their professional role as well as professional identities was made possible for them as expatriates, as Strubler, Park and Agarwal (2011) state that accurate perception of self and situation is a key factor of expatriate work experience. Similarly, Richardson and McKenna's (2002) findings suggest that professional experience earned abroad was valuable for expatriate workers. This finding is also supported by a study conducted...
on Finnish expatriates by Suutari and Brewster (2003) who conclude that the participants’ experience had a positive impact on their career development.

**Social influences on EFL teachers’ professional identity construction**

The social status of EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia has been a pressing issue and this study did not ignore it. In response to the question about whether EFL teachers have high social recognition in Saudi Arabia, the majority of respondents disagreed with the statement. The reason could be the attitude of the people towards the English language, as it is easy to see how professional identities become more complex for university teachers when the language they are teaching is considered the vessel for western ideologies; such is the case in Saudi Arabia (Reddy, 1979). Similarly, McKnight (1992) contended, “TESOL has no proper career structure and that ESL teachers suffer from low morale and low status” (p.30).

**EFL teachers’ selves as non-native speakers of English**

The majority of the respondents agreed that their accented pronunciation and intonation influences their professional identity. Since having accented pronunciation and intonation is one of the key features of being a non-native EFL teacher (Kumagai, 2013), this question was meant to gauge the teachers' perception on their being non-native teachers in the institution. In fact, in Saudi Arabia native teachers have certain social and financial advantages over the non-native teachers; for instance, the native teachers draw better salaries than the non-native teachers. This finding seems to support Medgyes’ (1992) that non-native English teachers possess a pedagogical advantage over the native English teachers because of the experiences of learning a language as a non-native speaker. In addition, Li (2009) explores in his study that the majority of the participants showed acceptance of their non-native accents, provided that comprehension is not impeded. The current study suggests that non-native teachers regard themselves as being more successful teachers than native speakers because they have far fewer job opportunities than the native teachers. As a result of these fewer opportunities, the non-native teachers take part in more professional development courses to improve their classroom delivery and enhance their job prospects. Although non-native teachers are not as competent language users as the native speakers, studies suggest that many native EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia are less qualified than the non-native EFL teachers (Daif-Allah, 2010; Zughoul, 2003).

**The impact of continuing professional development (CPD) on EFL teachers’ identity formation**

Zuheer (2013, p. 1) suggests that it is imperative for ESL teachers to have the courage, abilities and skills of dealing with the emerging issues in the field. Following this train of thought, Magno (2009) recommends that EFL practitioners need to be effective in: knowing how language is acquired, embracing strong beliefs about learning EFL, and improving attitudes towards the learning-teaching process. The majority of the respondents demonstrated that CPD has played a significant role in shaping their professional identity.

The level of satisfaction (56%) with the ELI PD scheme and the very high levels of satisfaction with non-ELI PD (92.7%) suggest that the non-ELI PD events have been more popular with the teachers than the ELI-provided PD activities. The participants indicated that the ELI-provided PD initiatives rarely addressed the real classroom issues. This finding agrees with Gilbert
and Gibbs's (1999) study which asserted that there is little evidence regarding the impact of institutional training on teaching and even less impact on the students' learning outcomes. However, this contradicts what Days and Sachs (2004) states that institution based CPD has emerged as an important feature of the educational reforms in different African and European countries. In contrast to the institutional CPD, the extra-institutional CPD such as taking courses like CELTA, DELTA, TESOL Certificate, etc., are considered the backbone of professional development in the Arab context (Shah, Hussain & Naseef, 2013). However, Khan (2011) disagrees with these findings and believes that the above mentioned courses are less effective in the Saudi EFL context because they do not match the contextual and professional demands of the teachers working in the Saudi context. Although CELTA is basically pre-service training in international contexts, in this context it is frequently considered in-service training.

**Collegial interactions and teachers’ identity**

Social interaction is a key principle of the identity formation. EFL teachers' interaction with other EFL teachers, students and administrators reinforces their notion of being teachers and becoming teachers. In this study, almost all the participants believed that their professional identities have been influenced by their interaction with other EFL teachers. The discussion groups are similar to the concept of communities of practice which are "groups of people who share a problem, a set of problems, or a passion about a topic and who deepen their knowledge and expertise in this area by interacting on an on-going basis" (Wenger, McDermott, & Snyder 2002, p. 4). According to Wenger (2008) “collective learning' takes place in a kind of community by sustained pursuit of shared enterprise” (p. 45). However, for some participants who happened to have more than 10 years of EFL experience the discussions were not productive. This conforms to Hodkinson and Hodkinson's (2004) critique about the communities of practice being less effective for the more experienced teachers.

**EFL teachers and their future selves**

This study also explored how the respondents perceived their future role, whether they intended to stay in the teaching or looked forward to attain administrative or teacher trainer positions. While the participants indicated that the respondents would like to be EFL teachers; however, some participants perceive their future selves as administrators or teacher trainers. This suggests that the leadership repertoire helped the participants engage in an endeavor of undoing their previous professional identities (Nicholson & Carroll, 2013) which ultimately led to the reshaping of new professional identities.

**Conclusion**

The findings of this study suggest that most of the participants became EFL teachers because they liked English language and English language teaching. It was also found out that some teachers entered into this profession accidently or chose the teaching career as a last resort. Furthermore, for many of the teachers, their overseas teaching experience gave them a chance to gauge their EFL teaching performance and professional development. The majority of them focused on their professional development endeavors on getting trained in EFL to international standards and developed their professional identity on these newly defined pathways.
Another important finding of this study is that generally EFL teachers do not seem to have a high social recognition in Saudi Arabia which affects the professional identity of the teachers. In other words, EFL teachers do not have the privilege of enjoying a high social recognition in the country. Also, the dichotomy between the native EFL teachers and non-native EFL teachers did not elude the Pakistani EFL teachers' perceptions about their professional identity. Even when they are less-qualified and lower-ranked according to the institution, native English speaking teachers enjoy a better social and financial position at the ELI.

The findings of this paper also affirm that the vast majority of the Pakistani EFL teachers at the ELI embarked on the rigorous professional development. Also, the teachers indicated that the non-ELI professional development activities were considered more helpful than the internal ELI professional development activities. Also, interaction with other EFL teachers at the institution was considered a source of enlightenment and professional development.

Finally this study explored the teachers' future ambitions and future status in Saudi Arabia and in Pakistan. Some participants aspired to be teacher trainers or administrators in the future rather than teachers because being a trainer or administrator provides opportunities to look at the profession from a managerial point of view and provides an opportunity for the individual to further reshape their professional identity.

Implications

1. This study about the EFL teachers' professional identities has implications for in-service EFL Pakistani teachers already serving in Saudi Arabia. The Pakistani EFL teachers should steer their professional development efforts according to their future intentions. In other words, if they plan to return to Pakistan, they should engage in the academic pursuits which will increase their employability chances in Pakistan. For instance, in this study, those teachers who are currently enrolled in PhD programs visualize a better future in Pakistan than those who did CELTA, DELTA or similar courses for the requirements of the context.

2. This study also explored that teaching is a low paid profession as compared to other professions such as medicine and engineering in developing countries including Pakistan and Saudi Arabia. Those graduates or undergraduates who are pursuing their degrees in English language and/or literature with the intention of becoming EFL/ESL teachers should know that to become a teacher requires intrinsic or altruistic motives more so than the mastery of the subject matter. Studies indicate that prospective teachers are idealistic about their future career prior to entering their professions (Martin, Chiodo, & Chang, 2001). Therefore, good occupational choice depends on individuals' accurate self-knowledge as well as accurate occupational knowledge (Holland, 1959). Furthermore, those individuals from Pakistan who seek EFL employment in Saudi Arabia, should be aware that EFL teachers in Saudi Arabia are, no doubt, financially better off than their counterparts in Pakistan but the financial betterment is at the cost of professional or academic growth which will lead to their lower job opportunities when they repatriate after a certain period of time.

3. This study has also implications for teacher educators. The CPD courses should focus considerably on beliefs, values and teachers’ identities, as when a richer understanding of language teachers’ selves and their emotions is fostered, an opportunity is created for richer
training. Also, the EFL teachers should be made aware of the socio-cultural norms of the intended teaching context and the beliefs of that society about English teaching and EFL teachers. This would better shape the decisions of the teachers where to teach and where not to teach.

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Integrating Local Knowledge into Language Learning: A Study on the Your Language My Culture (YLMC) Project

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Abstract
Language and culture share a nebulous relationship with multiple considerations like which culture and how it should be represented, taking into account the diverse contexts in which English is taught. This paper investigates the integration of local knowledge into English language learning by examining the cultural content of the Your Language My Culture supplementary reading module and teachers and students’ acceptance of the module. Using a conceptual framework that incorporated types of culture, cultural senses and representation of cultural information, data were collected using a questionnaire, reflective blogs and evaluation checklists from 57 teachers from various schools in the state of Terengganu in Malaysia. Content and thematic analysis were carried out and the findings show that while local, target and international culture were represented, the emphasis was towards local culture. Most of the cultural information was represented in the form of visual illustrations and less in dialogue and video recordings with the aesthetic sense dominating in terms of cultural sense. It is recommended that types of representations like dialogues, recordings, written tasks, visuals, texts and realia be included to help students attain pragmatic skills to use the language. A richer inclusion of the cultural senses in a balanced way can help students reach a holistic understanding of culture and recognize different perspectives embedded in the language.

Keywords: cultural representations, cultural senses, language learning, local knowledge, types of culture

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Integrating Local Knowledge into Language Learning

Nambiar & Anawar

Introduction
The relationship between language and culture has been the subject of much debate (Brown, 2001; Chastain, 1988; & Kramsch, 1998). Chastain (1988) states that language and culture are inseparably bound while Brown (1994) talks about culture and language as “being intricately interwoven” (p.165). Kramsch (1998) claims that language and culture are bound together because language expresses, embodies and symbolizes cultural reality. Liddicoat et. al (2003) claim that language and culture interrelate with each other in that culture connects to all levels of language use and structures, as there is no level of language which is free of culture. In a word, culture and language are inseparable. As Jiang (2000) claims language is the mirror of culture in the sense that people can see a culture through its language. It is interesting to note that while the relationship between language and culture is acknowledged by many researchers what is unclear is the nature of the relationship.

Fuller and Wardhaugh (2014) posit that culture is socially acquired in that it is the “know-how” a person must have to get through the task of daily living. Mitchell and Myles (2004) also argue that “language and culture are not separate, but are acquired together, with each providing support for the development of the other” (p. 235). In the context of language teaching and learning the importance of integrating culture is explicitly stated by Bennett, Bennett and Allen (2003) who propose that learning a language without learning the culture can result in a ‘fluent fool’. What they are saying is that mastering only the linguistic structure may help a person learn the language but may limit the special insights into the political, social, religious and economic systems in which the language functions.

Culture and Language Learning
The one thing that is apparent is that language learning and teaching should never be conducted in isolation from culture and the issue henceforth is to determine which culture is to be used – target, local or international culture. When people learned a language because they wanted to migrate, settle down, do further studies or seek employment it is common to teach the language with the target culture to acculturate learners into the cultures of the country (Bennett, Bennett & Allen, 2000; Byram & Fleming, 1998). This view supposes that “you cannot teach a target language without teaching the target culture in a process called “cultural assimilation” of the “authentic” (Yahya et. al, 2017, p.44).

There is another view that focuses on a pedagogy of the appropriate which concerns the teaching of language using local culture as there is better familiarity for learners (Canagarajah, 1999; Kachru, 1998; & McKay, 2003). Incorporating local culture in language teaching is essential to help learners communicate and function effectively in the community that they live in. When learners are aware that the new language can be used to describe their local culture, they will see the value of the language to promote their own culture (Kirkpatrick, 2011; McKay, 2003; Rodliyah & Dian, 2006) . This suggests that for learners to communicate effectively with their own people the understanding of their own culture is as important as the understanding of the target culture.

The material used in learning English should not only focus on the linguistic aspects of the language but also on how the language can be used by learners in any communicative event or surrounding they are engaged in (Anawar, 2017; Nault, 2006). Kim and Paek (2015) analyzed
culture related content in five English textbooks in Korea and found that the textbooks had more content on the little c at the expense of the Big C. Hence intercultural interaction was seriously lacking in these books depriving students the opportunity to gain an understanding of different cultures. Silvia (2014) analyzed six English textbooks used in Indonesia and found that target culture dominated the content and this is in line with the objective of EFL teaching in Indonesia. Silvia also found that culture is introduced mostly through its aesthetic sense and presented as surface culture in the form of visual illustrations and pseudo realia with little emphasis on daily dialogues. She proposes a more balanced representation of local, target and international target culture to enable students to communicate better and to understand how other cultures are similar to or differ from theirs.

Shin, Eslami and Chen (2011) studied the content of seven English language teaching textbooks and found that while cultural aspects were diverse the inner circle cultural content dominated in most of the books. They also found that surface culture was prevalent and did not help engage learners in deep levels of reflection. Ahmad and Shah (2014) claim that language material should be developed with a practical focus on the learners’ culture and context rather than using a set of Western standards. They analyzed the impact of English textbooks on Saudi EFL learners’ cultural attitudes and proficiency and found that the books failed to foster intercultural understanding. They suggest that including local culture will help students broaden their horizons and outlook towards non Islamic communities and help develop better intercultural relationships.

In Malaysia, Zakaria and Mohd Hashim (2010) employed a checklist to investigate the portrayal of local cultural aspects of Malaysia as a multicultural country in English language textbooks. They found that there was insufficient portrayal of cultural aspects in the textbooks used in all secondary schools and these cultural aspects were not incorporated in depth but presented at a superficial level and hence did not provide learners with the cultural experience. Moreover the aspects were presented mostly in the Literature segments of the textbook. They posit local textbook writers have not even fully utilized and portrayed the local cultures of the country in the materials in the textbook. Abdullan and Chandran (2009) examined the cultural elements in Form Four English textbooks used in Malaysian English as a second language (ESL) classrooms and found clear evidence of local culture in the books. They claim the “cultural orientation ...is based on the source cultures in which there is a direct and explicit inclusion of local culture … explaining local festivals and dances” (p.16).

Acknowledging the importance and the benefit of including local culture into English language teaching and learning materials, the state of Terengganu in Malaysia has also integrated local culture in its language textbooks. The Your Language My Culture (YLMC) supplementary reading module was developed to increase the English language proficiency of Terengganu’ secondary school students through the use of Terengganu culture in specific and Malaysia in general as the content. This programme aims to promote students participation in class and provide them with opportunities to practice speaking in English. The philosophy here is that by incorporating what is familiar to them students will have the background knowledge and will therefore be able to speak about it.
This paper focuses on the integration of local culture in material developed to teaching the English language but rather than focusing on textbooks it focuses on a supplementary module. The supplementary module was developed for secondary students in the Malaysian East Coast state of Terengganu and was to be used by teachers at least once a week. The paper reports on a study that investigated to what extent the module facilitated the integration of local content and the acceptance of the module by stakeholders – teachers and students. To do this a conceptual framework was developed by incorporating types of culture, cultural senses and representations of culture as discussed below.

**Conceptual Framework**

Cortazzi and Jin (1999) highlight three categories of culture that can be used in language textbooks and these are:

- Target culture materials which focus on one or two target cultures like that of the United Kingdom or the United States
- Local culture materials which present learners’ own culture and are produced by a country.
- International target culture materials that focus on a wide variety of cultures from English speaking countries.

Cortazzi and Jin (1999) further posit that for a textbook to be useful learners, teachers and textbook writers should share the same cultural values or at least be familiar with the cultural norms of one another. This will ensure learners are not only exposed to the big C of culture like famous places, traditional costumes and food but also the deeper sense of culture which talks about the values and beliefs of the people.

Adaskou and Brittern and Fahsi (1990) suggest culture be categorized into four senses namely aesthetic, sociology, semantic and pragmatic (Figure 1). They describe the aesthetic sense as the big C or the physical idea of culture with the sociological sense as the small c which encompasses the organization of relationships among people while semantic senses are the beliefs and values held and pragmatic senses are the shared knowledge, social and paralinguistic skills necessary of communication. According to Adaskou et. al (1990) while the aesthetic and sociological senses represent surface and deep culture they are important to inform learners on the features of a culture. However semantic and pragmatic senses are even crucial to be included in language material as they can ensure communicative competence of students.
In suggesting how cultural information should be represented in a language textbook Adaskou et al (1990) suggest the use of 8 different forms which are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 *Types of cultural representation (Adapted from Adaskou et al, 1990)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Types of cultural representation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Informative text</td>
<td>Text that informs or describes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texts presenting attitudes and opinions</td>
<td>Text that relays society’s opinion, belief or attitude towards certain issues</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dialogues on everyday conversation</td>
<td>Simple every day conversation in the form of speech or writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Contextualized speaking and writing activities</td>
<td>Speaking &amp; Writing tasks that require responses based on theme, conditions or context</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lexis, idioms and collocations</td>
<td>Words or phrases that involve foreign concepts or have meaning of its own</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Realia or pseudo-realia</td>
<td>Real life object or image (pseudo realia) to understand culture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Visual illustration</td>
<td>Visual presentation accompanying stories, dialogue or procedure to ease understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Recordings</td>
<td>Video/Sound recording of a conversation, announcement, accent, or radio programme</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The conceptual framework of the study was based on the types of culture (Cortazzi & Jin, 1999), the senses of culture and the types of cultural representation (Adaskou et al, 1990). These make up the cultural content which were used to measure stakeholders acceptance of the module.
The Study

Context of the Study

This study is conducted in selected secondary schools across the East coast state of Terengganu in Malaysia where the Your Language My Culture (YLMC) programme is implemented. Through this programme trainers were trained to use the local culture of the state and the country to enhance the mastery of English language among students. For this study data were collected from three types of schools in the state which are religious schools, national schools and vernacular schools. Using convenience sampling 57 male and female teachers aged between 20 to 59 years with varying teaching experiences from 34 schools in 7 districts of the state participated in the study.

YLMC Reading Module

The supplementary module was designed by a team of writers from the YLMC programme who comprised experts in the fields of English language and linguistics, literature who had many years of teaching experience at various levels. Their experience and knowledge in the field helped in the development of the module which showcased the wealth of tradition and culture in the state of Terengganu. The module is developed specifically to be used during English lessons by Form 1 teachers and students based on four different tracks namely heritage, language, literature and across discipline. For each track 4 lessons were planned making it a total of 12 lessons in the Form 1 module. Each lesson in the module begins with a topic exploration to guide the students into the topic being introduced, followed by 2 to 6 activities on the four skills namely listening, speaking, reading and writing and ends with a section named Closure which requires the students to reflect discuss and share their thoughts on the topic learned. Table 2 illustrates the contents of the module.

Table 2 Contents of the YLMC Module according to the four tracks

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lesson</th>
<th>Topic</th>
<th>Track</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>The Terengganu Sultanate</td>
<td>Heritage</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Instruments
Three different instruments were used to collect data for the study. Two evaluation checklists based on Adaskou et. al (1990) and Cortazzi and Jin (1999) were developed to evaluate the cultural content of the module. The first checklist contained a classification of types of cultural representation available in each lesson and categorized each into types of culture (local, target or international). The second checklist employed aspects of senses from Adaskou et. al (1990) and categorized them into local, target and international culture. The second instrument was the teachers’ reflections collected via blog entries. A YLMC blog was set up and teachers were asked to reflect on the lessons they had carried out, their likes and dislikes about the lessons, their insights on why they thought the lessons were successful or unsuccessful and how they would improve the lessons if given the opportunity. The final instrument was an online questionnaire comprising 17 items in the form of nominal and open ended questions that focused on demographic details and acceptance of the module.

Content analysis was carried out on the data from the evaluation of the module while thematic analysis was done on the reflective blog entries and the questionnaire. Data reduction (Miles & Huberman, 1994) was carried out to extract recurring themes via coding for the first analysis and grouping information according to themes for the latter.

Findings
The findings will focus on how the cultural information is represented in the module, the types of culture and cultural senses involved in the representation before expounding the teachers and students’ acceptance of the module.
**Representation of cultural information**

A total of 123 forms of cultural information represented in 8 different forms were found in the Form 2 YLMC Module and these were categorized into informative texts, presenting attitudes, dialogues about everyday life, contextualized writing or speaking tasks, idioms, collocations or phrases, realia or pseudo realia, visual illustrations and recording. It was found that culture is also represented in the form of literary texts such as folktales, poem and lyrics. Figure 3 shows the representation of cultural information in the YLMC module.

![Figure 3 Representation of cultural information in the YLMC module](image)

The most common form of cultural information is visual illustrations (26%) and two distinct forms were evident in the module. Computer generated illustrations like maps, charts and posters and authentic images like images of famous people, scenery, historical events and procedures. This type of information is used to accompany a topic to give learners a better understanding about topic being discussed. Following this is cultural representation in the form of pseudo realia (20%) throughout the module. These realia include items related to royal regalia, local food and squid jigging equipment. Although the realia are from the learners’ culture their appearance is accompanied by short informative texts and vocabulary in English included to help learners. Figure 4 shows the images of the royal regalia accompanied by short texts on size, material and function with English names.
Contextualized writing and speaking tasks (17%) are the third most frequent form of cultural information in the form of fill in the blanks and letter writing or role play and oral discussion respectively. Next are informative texts (14%) with occurrences of varying length. Short texts usually accompanies pseudo realia as shown in Figure 3 while length ones appear in the form of recipes, announcements and articles. Literary texts occur 8% of the time throughout the 12 lessons and comprise lyrics, poems, short stories, nursery rhymes and folk tales. Idioms, collocations or phrases with language transfer appear 7% throughout the book.

The least common form of cultural representation are dialogues which appear account for only 4% of daily conversations and 3% of recordings. The representation of cultural information in the form of dialogues focus on how to carry out speech acts.

Local culture was also identified in the module in the form of 4 video clips. The first two were used to highlight different ways of pronouncing words in English while the other two are the declaration of independence in 1957 and a traditional Terengganu dance the Ulek Mayang.

**Categorization of culture in the representation**
Cortazzi and Jin’s (1999) types of culture was used to analyze the representation of culture in the module. Local culture was found to be the most common (68%) followed by international culture (20%) and target culture being the least mentioned culture (12%)
Local culture is presented by using names like His Royal Highness (HRH) Al-Wathiqu Billah Sultan Mizan Zainal Abidin, Azizulhasni Awang, Lee, Raj, Pak Pandir; names of places such as Kemaman, Redang Island; pictures and names of local food such as keropok lekor, satar, nasi dagang, stuffed squid; and pictures and names of Terengganu’s Sultanate family and Royal Regalia. Local culture is also presented through the use of Malaysian English in the dialogues between friends, informative texts on historical events in Malaysia such as the flood in Terengganu, as well as literary texts on Pak Pandir and Princess Ulek Mayang.

International culture is represented through names like Kazunari Watanabe; world map; names and pictures of countries such as Poland, Japan, Switzerland, Turkey; and activities and events such as keirin, (a Japanese term of an eight-laps track with a pacer for the first five) and Japan Track Cup II. International culture is also presented through the mention of Italian food like Italian stuffed squid, complete with the recipe and image of the food and the ingredients such as parmesan cheese, oregano and thyme. Target culture which had the smallest representation was usually in the form of literary texts such as the nursery rhymes - *Humpty Dumpty* and *Row Row Your Boat*, and the mention of names such as King Arthur, Merlin and Lancelot in the comic illustration of King Arthur.

While the authors have presented local culture on its own to reinforce students understanding of it, international and target culture is often presented with local cultural information. For instance in the explanation of a village shaman, a character from the Princess Ulek Mayang folktale is compared with Merlin from King Arthur and learners are asked to discuss the similarities between the two. Similarly students listen to two videos – one of a conversation between English Speakers and another between Malaysian English speakers. They are then asked to pay attention to differences between pronunciation and vocabulary used by both speakers. This is done deliberately to help raise students’ intercultural awareness and recognize that local culture can be associated with international and target culture.

**Cultural senses in the representation**

The types of cultural representation were then categorized into the four cultural senses – aesthetic, sociological, semantic and pragmatic. Figure 5 illustrates the distribution of cultural senses in the module.
It can be seen that the three cultures are always presented through the aesthetic sense with local culture having the most number of occurrences (22 times) followed by target culture (12 times) and international culture (7 times). The aesthetic sense is presented through the mention of famous personalities such as Tunku Abdul Rahman Putra al-Haj and Azizulhasni Awang; names of places such as Kuala Terengganu, Tasik Kenyir and Redang Island; and literary texts such as Pak Pandir and Princess Ulek Mayang. In target culture and international culture on the other hand, the aesthetic sense is presented mostly through literary texts like the folktales of King Arthur, nursery rhymes like Row Row Your Boat and Humpty Dumpty; and through the mention of international sportsman Kazunari Watanabe from Japan and international sports events such as Asian Cycling Championship and UCI Track Cycling World Championship, respectively.

The semantic sense was the least presented in the module with only 7 occurrences and only in local culture. This sense is presented through the explanation of the symbols for Islam, the concept of Merdeka to Malaysians and the concept of the Sultan as the leader of Islam. The pragmatic sense appears in target culture (11 occurrences) in the form of speech acts of asking permission, making a complaint and greetings. It is evident that while all the senses are present in the module they are not presented equally.

**Teachers and Students’ Acceptance of the Module**

Four aspects were used to evaluate acceptance of the module and these were choice of topics, aesthetic value of the layout, level of difficulty, and types of activities.

With regards to the choice of topics, teachers and students were very positive about these and claimed they were very engaging. This was mainly because of familiarity and interest in the topic and the relevance of the topic currently. Among the topics that were identified as being popular were Lesson 7: Traditional Terengganu Food, Lesson 4: A World Class Sportsman from Terengganu and Lesson 3: Princess Ulek Mayang. The main reason is because these revolve around cultural information that is known and familiar to the teachers and students. Teachers in their reflective blog entries said students did show more interest in topics like the Terengganu Sultanate and the local food of the state.

*They really love their Sultan so they really-really enjoy learning about him and his ceremonial dress, royal regalia such as the royal crown, royal headdress, royal emblem, royal waist suckle, royal long keris, etc (T 16)*

*My students love food. They can name every food that is listed in the picture (T 9)*

*I asked them on which lesson that they would like to do first and they choose the one on food. (T 4)*

It was interesting to note that while the students were familiar with the names they did not really have thorough knowledge of the topics. Hence they were reported to be active in asking and answering questions and being more open to offering opinions and suggestions.

*They are very excited to know Terengganu Sultan’s background. They kept asking me questions which some questions I can’t really answer well. (T31)*
Most students didn’t know the real story behind ulek mayang. They always think that it is a ghost story so they are very surprised when I told them the story. (T11) They asked me on how much does the royal regalias cost and starts talking on how rich must the Sultan be. (T9)

The lessons ended up with students suggesting Terengganu’s traditional kuih for me to try during my next visit to pasar malam as I am originally from Perak. (T5)

Teachers who were interested and familiar with the topics were found to be more enthusiastic in planning and delivering the lessons. They put in extra effort to search for additional material and are able to provide the students with more information.

I like this topic as it involves the folklore…. Apart from telling students Ulek Malayng story, I told them about “the river styx” because at the end of King Arthur’s story, the king rode a boat with Merlin. We even did the ritual where we place coins on the eyelids of the dead (T2)

I like these two lessons as the topic is close to me and my students so I can share my experience with them….I also found a lot of additional materials online( T40)

Conversely, teachers who were unfamiliar and disinterested in the topic tend to be passive and dismissive about the lesson. They would either not do the topic or simply run through it for the sake of doing it.

The lesson that I did not like is lesson 8 because it is too factual and my students they don’t feel that enthusiastic about their country. I felt like I was teaching them history but in English. I did not change a thing for this lesson (T27)

I have no idea on how to teach the students about this topic… I’ve showed them the pictures of ‘choosing a site to build a house’ but they did not know what the pictures were all about. Even me myself did not know what kind of ritual is ‘choosing a site to build a house’. I just skipped the lesson and choose another lesson for my students. ( T36)

When the topic was relevant there was better interest and excitement as students could relate to it better. For instance student were keen to do the lesson on A World Class Sportsman – Azizulhasni Awang. This cycling champion had just brought home the bronze medal after the Olympics when the lesson was conducted and the state was still rejoicing over the champion. This is proof that when material is current and up to date students will be better able to relate to it and show keen interest. To highlight this point, teachers talked about how student were uninterested when introduced to historical or ancient rituals as they could not see the relevance of it.

They are puzzled as they have never seen the rituals (T23)

My students are not interested to learn this topic as they don’t see the relevance and people doing the rituals anymore (T21)
In some cases even teachers claim they have difficulty explaining rituals like choosing a site to build a house (Lesson 5) as they are unfamiliar with this. Students also commented they found this strange as no one in their families knew about this ritual.

With regard to the aesthetic value of the layout, more than 80% of the teachers claimed their students were contented with the module and how it is structured. They commented the colours and visuals were a welcome break from the textbook which was very content laden and wordy. They did however want to see more visuals and perhaps the inclusion of cartoons or joke of the day and fun activities like brain teasers in the book.

While most teachers believe that their students can cope with the difficulty level of the lessons they were concerned for low proficiency students. In the questionnaire teachers commented,

*It seems like the book is designed with the proficient speakers in mind. Do vary the level of proficiency so that all users can benefit from it.*

*Use simple language and vocabulary or terms which are easier to understand. The content should be suitable to Form 1 students. Most of Form 1 students still have limited knowledge about English*

They also wanted to see shorter texts and simpler vocabulary to help motivate the less proficient students to read the texts.

With regard to the activities in the module teachers claimed the students enjoyed watching the videos, drawing, singing, role playing, organizing stories, writing letters and participating in discussions.

*I took my students to the computer lab and they are very excited when I told them that we are going to watch a video that day (T39)*

*My students, I could see that they really enjoy singing. They sing the Terengganu’s song to their heart content (T8)*

*For the banner, I ask the students to role play the situation. They all want to play the character of Azizulhasni. We pretend as if we are fans greeting him at the airport. Some students also act as photographer. It was fun. (T46)*

Teachers commented on how the module was successful in encouraging students of varying proficiency levels to participate in class after they had modified some of the activities. This was very inspiring as teachers were invited to use the activities in the module as it was presented or adapt them accordingly. It was clear that teachers did carry out other activities to make learning more meaningful and enjoyable by organizing a cooking competition, having a fashion show, role play and storytelling sessions.

**Discussion and Conclusion**
Apart from providing information on the module’s cultural content and teachers and students acceptance of the module the findings also shed some light on the suitability of the content and the value of local cultural content in getting students interested and enthusiastic in learning English.

The cultural content of the module is heavily presented in the form of visual illustrations, realia and pseudo realia and the abundance of visuals are suitable for today’s learners who are more visually oriented. The limited cultural exposure through dialogues and recordings reflects an imbalance in the representation and this is similar to Silvia’s (2014) findings. However Adaskou et al (1990) posit the imbalance of the representation is not necessarily wrong as some cultural information is more suitable for certain types of representation and vice versa. Nevertheless, it is important to provide students with all types of representations including dialogues and recordings to help them attain the pragmatic skills they need.

The analysis of the types of culture in the module revealed that while the focus is on local culture the two other types – international and target cultures are not neglected. It is important for students to develop intercultural awareness and be able to compare cultures (Kim and Paek, 2015). Like Cortazzi and Jin (1990) state culture should be a part of textbook writing as it can help deliver the objective better. Students need to have local cultural knowledge to draw from in performing oral and written communication while recognizing Western perspectives embedded in the language to develop a local reading perspective.

The findings point to the dominance of aesthetic cultural sense in the module and this is in line with the findings of Shin et al (2011), and Silvia (2014). A more holistic understanding of local culture can be achieved if the module presents a richer inclusion of each of the senses in a proportionate balance (Abdullan & Chandran, 2009). Materials developers need to pay more attention to the types of cultural sense they include in their materials.

No definite claims can be made for the enhancement of students’ mastery of the English language; the module can be seen as a great effort in encouraging students to increase their participation in the English language class, making the journey to mastery one step closer. The inclusion of local culture is found to be able to attract the interest of students to remain engaged in the lesson. As teachers commented students are more involved and interactive in class and are asking questions and providing opinions and suggestions because the material is familiar to them. (Anawar, 2017; Rodliyah & Dian, 2006). Teachers also commented on better students-teacher relationship in class as students were engaged in more meaningful conversations with the teacher. Being able to share knowledge and experiences on cultural items and topics did increase students and teachers motivation and interest in the lessons.

The findings while leading to some revealing insights need to be further enhanced. Data on acceptance was collected from the teachers’ perspective and not directly from the students themselves. It is believed that data from students will provide more interesting insights on students’ acceptance and needs and this should be considered for another study. The sample population was only a small section of the total population of the state of Terengganu and having more data may lead to more profound findings and trends.
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Using Habits of Mind to Develop EFL Writing Skills and Autonomy

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Abstract
The main purpose of this study was to determine the impact of habits of mind (HoM) based strategies on students’ writing skills and autonomy. Questions formulated to achieve the purpose of the study focused on. (1) Determining the habits of mind suitable for EFL students. (2) Finding out differences in both English as a foreign language (EFL) students’ writing performance test regarding experimental and control group. (3) Finding out differences in both EFL students’ autonomy scale of experimental and control group. Thirty three EFL students constituted the sample for this study and four instruments-designed by the researchers- were used for data collection. Results indicated that students of experimental group outperformed their counterparts of the control group in EFL writing performance test and autonomy scale scores. The effect of using HoM on students writing skills and autonomy was profound and significant.

Key Words: Autonomy, EFL Writing Skills, Habits of Mind

Introduction
The aim of English language teaching in EFL training is to develop communicative competence to help students produce written and oral language in social situations. One can deliver a great number of messages to all kind of readers through writing. Writing is the central element in the language teaching setting as students need to write down notes and to pass written exams (Abdelwahab, 2002). Yet, over the years it has seemed that writing has been seen as only as a support system for learning grammar and vocabulary rather than a skill in its own right. However, methodologists have looked again at writing and acknowledged the importance of writing as a vital skill for a foreign language speaker as much as for everyone using their first language (Harmer, 2004). Writing is the activity of being able to communicate with language through a graphic representation of ideas. Hence, writing could not be naturally acquired like speaking, so it should be learned. The reasons for teaching writing for EFL learners include: reinforcement, language development, learning style, and most importantly, writing as a skill in its own right as Harmer assures. The fact that writing requires some criteria of acceptability relative to different aspects of writing which include content, organization, vocabulary, language use, spelling, punctuation and accurate capitalization and paragraphing makes writing a very toilsome task for EFL learners (Hamadouche, 2010).

At their school levels, students are not taught English in a proper way. Students feel frustrated because they do not know how to write in English properly (Ansari, 2012). Al-Khasawneh & Huwari (2013) and Zahran (2015) assure that the reasons behind the weakness in writing among students are summarized up in lack of vocabulary register, structure, organization of ideas, grammar, spelling, and referencing. Therefore, teachers should employ multiple writing teaching techniques that are related to learners’ needs in order to develop their writing skills. Students are expected to write well, but are not taught to do so. In most classes students are left to use whatever strategies and competencies they have. Moreover, the students’ role in completing a writing task is made yet more difficult by the lack of provision for the teacher when time and syllabus constraints come to the fore (Moony, 2004). Moreover, the lack of explicit criteria and standards is considered a writing difficulty for students. In some courses, students have little or no information about what constitutes appropriate or good writing (Holmes, 2003). A number of studies (e.g., Mogahed, 2007; Hamadouche, 2010; Ansari, 2012) assure the impact of teaching writing on the language proficiency of students. They reached the same conclusion that developing writing is among the multiple factors that affect students’ language proficiency. Thus, developing students’ language proficiency requires promoting the effectiveness of writing.

For students to succeed in EFL writing skills, they need to deal with writing habitually, to think in English and express their thinking through writing. HoM are means to develop students’ thinking. Costa & Kallick (2008) believe that HoM focused on how to act when a student does not know the correct answer. Ritchhart, et al. (2011) add that HoM development requires teachers to use teaching methods to embody the ideas to be absorbed, it is also linked to the stages of cognitive development. Costa & Kallick (2005) believe that training on HoM will aid learners in solving problems in life, taking rational and right decisions, managing business and facing challenges. Wineburg (2003) assure that using HoM make them stable and repetitive. Cognitive researchers started to care for educational strategies that put students in open environments in order to enable them to make use of the thinking strategies in their daily life.
Using Habits of Mind to Develop EFL Writing Skills and Autonomy  Koura & Zahran

The Context of the Problem
The writing skill has been totally ignored in the preparatory stage curriculum. There are problems in students’ writing skills. A number of studies (e.g., Al-Khasawneh & Huwari, 2013; Zahran, 2015) note that students’ lack of use or ineffective use of strategies affected the content, organization and coherence of their writings. Moreover, Fabregas & Gaeta (2015) assure that one of the causes of weak performance of students is lack of autonomy. They recommend developing autonomy to better support students with the skills, attitudes and knowledge to succeed in school and to become lifelong learners after leaving their formal education. El-Nagar (2016) assures the relation between using habits of mind strategies and writing enhancement.

It is assumed that habits of mind strategies can affect English language learning and improve students’ writing skills and autonomy. Students would be able to take the responsibility of their own learning through knowing how to make use of appropriate strategies while learning the target language.

Statement of the Problem
The problem of this study is that in spite of the stressed importance of writing skills, preparatory students lack many of the EFL writing skills which may have a negative impact on their autonomy. Therefore, the researchers suggest that through using HoM strategies, students’ self-autonomy and writing skills could be developed.

Questions
The problem of this study can be addressed in the following questions:
1. What are the habits of mind strategies suitable for EFL students?
2. What is the effect of using habits of mind strategies on developing EFL students’ writing skills?
3. What is the effect of using habits of mind strategies on developing EFL students’ autonomy?

Significance
The study gains its significance from the following:
1. Helping students to learn new strategies based on HoM.
2. Providing EFL teachers with a model that may develop students’ writing skills and self-autonomy.
3. Raising the awareness of English language curricula developers to the importance of using HoM strategies.

Hypotheses
1. There is statistically significant difference between the mean score of the experimental group and the control group on the post administration of the writing test favoring the experimental one.
2. There is statistically significant difference between the mean score of the experimental group on the pre- and post- administration of the writing test favoring the post administration scores.
3. There is statistically significant difference between the mean score of experimental group and the control group on the post- administration of autonomy scale favoring the experimental one.
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4. There is statistically significant difference between the mean score of the experimental group on the pre- and post- administration of autonomy scale favoring the post administration scores.

Delimitations

The study is delimited to:

1. A sample of the second year students from Dreen preparatory school in Dakahlia Governorate.
2. Four HoM based strategies (applying prior knowledge to new situation, metacognition habit, striving for accuracy and precision, questioning and posing problems).
3. Five writing sub-skills (convention, word choice, coherence, organization and description).

Review of Literature

Nature of Writing Skill

Writing is a sophisticated, prestigious social activity of communication and an important skill for language learners. It is directly linked to people’s roles in society. According to Matsuda (2003: p. 22), to be deprived of the opportunity to learn how to write is “to be excluded from a wide range of social roles, including those which the majority of people in industrialized societies associate with power and prestige”. Hence, writing is a powerful effective communication instrument that allows writers to grow personally (Johnson, 2008). Writing is considered as a tool for creation and using ideas for communicative objectives in an interactive way. Accordingly, the successful transmission of ideas from an addressee to another via a text and this exchange of information through writing becomes a powerful means to promote and develop the language skill. Hyland (2003) argues that writing is conceived as a skill, and that skill is a process dependent upon a range of other skills.

Writing Challenges

The difficulty of writing lies in organizing, generating and translating ideas into a text. Students often lose interest even with the simplest exercises. They lack the motivation needed for language learning because of the difficulty of writing (Tessem, 2005). Badger & White (2000) point out that students have no clear understanding about the characteristics of writing and are provided insufficient linguistic input to write in a certain text. Although proficiency in writing is somewhat related to overall language proficiency as Archibald (2001) states, improvements in general language proficiency do not necessarily affect a student’s proficiency in writing. According to Wang (2005) writing is a problem for many teachers. They spend a lot of time correcting students’ composition. Although teachers do their best, students’ composition remain poor, grammatically awkward and deprived of sentence structure variety and use. The reason for all this is that learners have not been involved in their own learning. They have not been taught to become self-sufficient. Monaghan (2007) assures that teaching writing should include methods of imparting necessary knowledge of the conventions of written discourse and the basis of grammar and syntax. So, the purpose of teaching writing is guiding students toward achieving the highest ability in communicating in words. Additionally, Taggart (2009) states that writing has not been giving the attention it deserves in schools. Students have not been taught to make ideas flow on papers. Nazim (2012) investigates students’ writing problems at preparatory stage. The sample was fifteen teachers and sixty students. The instruments of the study include questionnaires and writing samples. The results indicate that students repeat the errors in conventions, punctuation, spelling,
language use and organization. Some remedies were suggested to improve writing skills such as remedial exercises in conventions, punctuation and spelling.

Writing for communication is very important. Through writing, a person can communicate a great number of messages to different kinds of readers. Students need regular opportunities at school to write in all subjects. Following a consistent approach to the writing process in all subject areas and an explicit instruction in writing would help students become better writers. One of the important variables that affect students’ writing skills is their autonomy.

**Autonomy in Language Learning**

According to what autonomy research has acknowledged, developing learner autonomy is concerned with both the individual and social interaction. Social autonomy pertains to awareness raising and learning generated by interaction, collaboration, individual reflection and experimentation while the individual dimension of autonomy involves individual learning styles over collaborative learning. Social autonomy, emphasizes that "the development of a capacity for reflection and analysis, central to the development of learner autonomy, depends on the development and internalization of a capacity to participate fully and critically in social interactions" (Little 1996, p.211). Ushioda (2003) assures that teachers take the basic role of supporting learners' motivation through building necessary scaffolds, and facilitating interactions in the classroom. Ushioda (2006a, p. 287) raises an argument about whether teachers and other social practices are relevant and applicable in "learners' attempts to exercise self-motivation and take control of affective learning experience" on top of "the genesis and growth of individual motivation". Teachers play an important role in facilitating the development of effective motivational thinking through the process of giving feedback to their students. The possibility of exercising self-motivation and taking control of affective learning experience depends on the presence of "local constraints on the exercise of self-motivational resources". Dickinson (1995: p.167) defines autonomous learners as "those who have the capacity for being active and independent in the learning process; they can identify goals, formulate their own goals, and can change goals to suit their own learning needs and interests; they are able to use learning strategies, and to monitor their own learning". Autonomy is operationally defined as students' ability to acquire knowledge and skills independently using learning strategies that he/she determines and it is measured by the score that the students get on the post administration of autonomy scale.

Ushioda (2006a, p.289) posits that the "processes of engaging, constructing and negotiating identities are central to [the] ... interface" between motivation and autonomy, and distinguishes individual identity of self and social identity. Whereas to individual identity of self where an individual has great control over his/her pursuit, social identity is "subject to conditions and constraints imposed by surrounding social practices" (Ushioda 2006a, p.291). Norton (2000, p.5) describes social identity as "how a person understands his/her relationship to the world, how that relationship is constructed across time and space, and how the person understands possibilities for the future" and L2 motivation as the "investment" learners make which has the potential of increasing their cultural capital, self-concept and identity, and aspirations with the acquisition of symbolic and material resources. Exerting control over one's acquisition of symbolic capital, and engagement of self-concept is subject to the constraints imposed by the surrounding social environment. Ushioda (2006a) points out the importance of creating an enabling environment for
students to engage their identities so that they would be able to have a better understanding of their identities, aspirations and the ways of relating themselves inside and outside the classroom.

Research has been focused on autonomy and motivation in relation to specific skills of language learning such as writing (e.g., Deng 2007, Zhao 2007) and vocabulary (e.g., Dam & Legenhauzen 1996), knowledge about the language system (e.g., Allan 1997), examination preparation (e.g., Barrett-Lennard 1997), and strategy use (e.g., Schmidt & Watanabe 2001). In addition, although there have been some studies trials to explore how various motivation-related variables were related to success and failure in language learning (e.g., Nikolov 2001), those studies were not specific to the self-access learning context where learning takes place outside the classroom.

In EFL classrooms, writing teachers commonly use direct feedback (Williams, 2003). Teachers enter all corrections onto students' writings and then ask them to incorporate the corrections into a subsequent draft. Lee's (2003) study concerning Chinese writing teachers' perspectives found that most writing teachers corrected students' writings because they felt that it was their duty to correct students' errors. This method is based on the traditional role of the teacher, as owner of knowledge, didactically provides correct answers for students who then receive the feedback and copy them down in revision stage. Accordingly, the students' role in the learning process is purely passive receptive. Habits of mind help students to build up their autonomy, academic writing competencies and help student writers become less dependent on the teacher (Costa, 2007). An autonomous classroom places a strong emphasis on pair and group work as means to promote learner autonomy. In fact, students become less dependent on the teacher by learning to collaborate with their peers. An autonomy-supportive environment for learners that allow them to engage in activities and develop a capacity to control their learning (Benson 2001) can be created both inside and outside the classroom. Habits of mind based activities as a mean for developing students’ writing skills encourages learners to move from being teacher-dependent to autonomous students. According to Voller (1997), teachers have three major roles in autonomy-supportive classrooms: 1) facilitator, 2) counselor, and 3) resource. The role of teachers in habits of mind training is deciding the content, skills and strategies, resources, materials, patterns and which habits of mind to focus on. Teachers also measure students’ learning and identify the purpose, intentions and goals. Moreover, they need to design the cognitive tasks that can engage students in deeper thinking processes.

Habits of Mind

Habits of mind based strategies are considered as an educational theory which indicates what and how people should learn (Tishman, 2000). HoM enable students to confront difficulty, learn from each other and develop their skills (Costa & Kallick, 2000). Costa (2007) assures that when teaching is based habits of mind, students learn how to behave when they do not know an answer. HoM are intellectual behaviors that lead to educational productive actions. They also include making choices about which pattern should be used at a certain situation because it is a composite of many skills, past experience, cues and attitudes which indicate that students prefer one pattern over another. Costa & Kallick (2000) define HoM as dispositions toward behaving intelligently when confronted with problems, the answers to which are not immediately known. HoM are operationally defined as behaviors which help students to improve their writing skills through four habits of mind (applying past knowledge to new situations, metacognition, striving for accuracy and precision, and questioning and posing problems).
The sixteen HoM identified by Costa & Kallick (2004) are: persisting, thinking flexibly, striving for accuracy, questioning and posing problems, creating, imagining and innovating, managing impulsivity, listening to other with understanding and empathy, thinking about our thinking, striving for accuracy and precision, applying past knowledge to new situations, gathering data through all senses, responding with wonderment and awe, taking responsible risks, thinking interdependently, learning continuously, and finding humor. Costa & Kallick (2009) declare that when teachers draw upon intellectual resources, the results are more powerful of higher quality and significance. Studies on developing habits of mind (e.g., Perkins, 2010, ; Spencer & Claxton, 2012) indicate that habits of mind are effective in life skills and improving realization levels. Moulds (2002) indicates that teachers have a great responsibility for instilling thinking process and dispositions in students. Teachers must teach students to value intelligent, rational and creative actions. Furthermore, providing the conditions that will nurture these habits must be supported.

Among the studies that were done linking HoM strategies to developing writing skills is the study of Dugler (2011). The researcher examines the effect of metacognitive strategy as one of the HoM on achievement and retention in developing writing skills. The study was conducted on 77 students enrolled in English department at Selcuk University. The results proved the contribution of HoM on developing writing skills. Wiggins & McTighe (2005) indicate that when teachers are intentionally developing students' skills using understanding by design, a focus on habits of mind strength the capacity of students for deeper understanding. Learning is not simply about mastery of a subject matter, but it involves developing the habits of mind of those who engaged in the discipline. Based on the previous studies, it was indicated that HoM were not widely used in the field of language in general and writing in particular. It was also indicated that integrating habits of mind in learning English language can develop students' level and mind.

**Implementing Habits of Mind for Developing Writing**

The school’s vision must seek ways to provide students with high proficiencies, self-confidence and desire to continue learning in addition to meeting challenges creatively. Accordingly, students need to be prepared with the skills of problem solving, critical thinking, self-direction, communication, flexibility, social skills, responsibility and productivity. Learning based habits of mind can help students to go through that vision. It provides a map for classrooms, individuals and for a full system to enhance curriculum, instruction and assessment (Partnership for 21st century skills, 2007). Costa & Kallick (2008) assure that the habits of mind cannot be added onto overcrowded curriculum but they are an important part of a generative curriculum that included students so that they think not just for exam but to apply in other subjects and in their lives. Cooper & Jenson (2009) suggested some procedures for implementing HoM: determine what skills students need to know, guide students to specific idea, raise the habits of mind to the consciousness level, make the teacher a collegial learner, use thinking time to maintain focus and merge the habits of mind into curriculum.

Costa & Kallick (2008) indicate that teachers have to focus on the coherence and the effects of activities in the classroom besides employing thinking skills in the content. Thus, they help students to think creatively and critically, observe and collect data, formulate hypothesis, draw
conclusions and pose questions while students can plan and demonstrate their understanding. Students can evaluate themselves in groups in addition to thinking and working interdependently. The researchers assure that students must use the HoM to reach the cognitive task. Schwertner (2005) examined the effect of using habits of mind to improve writing to understand why the HoM might be considered useful in the writing classroom and find ways to incorporate the habits of mind in the writing classroom. Organization and word choice was found to be better. Moreover, the results indicated that most students were able to provide a clearer focus.

Methodology
Participants
A feasible sample of students from Dreen Prep School was selected and then assigned to a control and an experimental group (33 students in each group). Students’ age ranged from fourteen to fifteen years. They had been learning English for seven years, six at the primary stage and one at the preparatory stage. The researchers selected that school to perform their experiment for some reasons:

1- The instructors of the experimental group were the researchers themselves.
2- The researchers were offered some facilities and support by the school administration.

Design
Adopting the quasi-experimental design, the control and experimental group were pre-tested on their writing skills and autonomy. Then the experimental group received training through habits of mind. On the other hand, the control group received the regular course of the writing skills. Both groups received the pre-post application of the writing skills course and autonomy scale to measure improvement in students’ writing skills and autonomy.

Instruments
To achieve the purposes of the study, the researchers prepared four instruments:
1) Writing skills test, see Appendix (A).
2) Analytic scoring rubric, see Appendix (B).
3) Habits of mind checklist, see Appendix (C).
4) Autonomy scale, see Appendix (D).

Validity and reliability of the four instruments were established through jury validation and the calculation of internal consistency for the autonomy scale (alpha coefficient = 0.710).

The Treatment: Program for Developing EFL Students Writing Skills and Autonomy
Objectives
Based on reviewing related literature and the habits of mind checklist, training program was designed in order to improve students’ writing skills and autonomy (Appendix (E)). The program aims at developing the following skills:
1- Developing writing skills including the five components; conventions, coherence, organization, word choice and description.
2- Training EFL students on using habits of mind.
3- Developing students’ autonomy.

Materials
The selected topics for second year of preparatory stage.

**Aids**

1- Worksheet.
2- Mind maps.
3- Grouping.

**Duration and Content**

The program consisted of five topics that were distributed over ten sessions. Each session was 45 minutes. The program lasted for one semester. Teaching to the experimental group took place over a period of 12 weeks (October, November and December) during the academic year 2016/2017 from 2/10/2016 till 22/12/2016.

**Description**

The program was designed based on habits of mind for the experimental group. On the other hand, the control group received regular training. The intent of habits of mind based strategies is to help students get into the habit of behaving intelligently. The habits of mind employed in the present study are:

1- Applying prior knowledge to new situations through effectively responding to students and providing them with feedback. In addition, relating classroom learning to students’ prior knowledge, life experience and interest.
2- Metacognition habit through using mind maps and asking students questions like (what make you think that? and how do you know that?).
3- Striving for accuracy and precision habit through the reporter’s notebook. It is a strategy for distinguishing between facts and thoughts as identifying a situation, story or dilemma for discussion.
4- Questioning and posing problems through using the parking lot strategy in which the teacher creates a parking lot area in the classroom and ask students to post their questions in it using the six starters (how, what, why, who, when, where).

**Evaluation**

Students are told that they will be evaluated according to their contribution and participation in class discussion, in addition to their answers to the assigned writings activities. Students are allowed to evaluate each lesson, give their comments and suggestions and are also encouraged to write any difficulties or challenges they face during the lesson.

**Results and Discussion**

It was hypothesized that the experimental group will outperform the control group in the post administration of the writing test. t-test was used to compare the differences between the mean scores of students in the writing test in the experimental and control group as shown in table 1.
Table 1. Comparing the writing performance of the control and experimental group on the post test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing Skills</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>9.026</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>8.40</td>
<td>0.86</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
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<td>1.12</td>
<td>1.037</td>
<td>0.304</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Post-test</td>
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<td>1.81</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conventions</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>5.932</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>2.61</td>
<td>1.54</td>
<td>1.714</td>
<td>0.121</td>
</tr>
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<td>1.45</td>
<td>5.891</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.83</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Control</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
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<td>1.161</td>
<td>0.273</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>Post-test</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>1.10</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word choice</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>4.590</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>0.49</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
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<td>1.200</td>
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<td>Post-test</td>
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<td>0.98</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>4.66</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>4.612</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
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<td>0.451</td>
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<td>Post-test</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
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<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
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<td>5.65</td>
<td>10.915</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>30.70</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
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<td>0.398</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>22.52</td>
<td>4.12</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Results in table 1 shows that the mean score of the experimental group post-test is higher than that of the control group’s mean score. The increase in students level in the experimental group could be interpreted that students in the experimental group were active in using habits of mind especially questions that are related to their thinking. Moreover, using habits of mind activities and strategies like mind maps, parking lot area, discussion, group work and report’s notebook led to entertaining lesson and thoughtful environment.

It was hypothesized that the experimental group post- administration of the writing test will outperform the pre- administration scores. t test for paired sample was used to compare between the pre- and post- test score of the experimental group to determine the effect of the study intervention on writing skills as shown in table 2.
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Table 2. Comparing the writing performance of the pre-post-test administration for the experimental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Writing Skills</th>
<th>Groups</th>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>t value</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Conventions</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>4.06</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>9.026</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>Post-test</td>
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<td>0.86</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Coherence</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>2.57</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>5.932</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>5.41</td>
<td>1.34</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word choice</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>1.89</td>
<td>1.45</td>
<td>5.891</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>3.76</td>
<td>0.83</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Organization</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>1.16</td>
<td>4.590</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>5.76</td>
<td>0.49</td>
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<tr>
<td>Description</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
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<td>4.612</td>
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<td>Post-test</td>
<td>6.70</td>
<td>1.38</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Experiment</td>
<td>Pre-test</td>
<td>19.49</td>
<td>5.65</td>
<td>10.915</td>
<td>0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Post-test</td>
<td>30.70</td>
<td>2.89</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Results in table 2 shows that the higher mean score is for the post administration of the experimental group post-test. Therefore, HoM training was effective in developing writing skills. Most of students liked parking lot area activity as it made them focus and gave them chance to express their questions and problems. Moreover, mind mapping taught students to organize their thinking and to order ideas in context. The most improved sub-skill among the five writing sub-skills is convention. Whereas organization and description were the least. This may be because students were not good writers and they did not know how to describe events or place. Coherence also was low. This could be because of students’ lack of developed ideas.

It was hypothesized the mean score of the autonomy scale post-administration of experimental group will outperform the control group. Chi values were used in order to compare the results of the students in the experimental and control group regarding writing autonomy as shown in table 3.

Table 3. Chi square results of the writing autonomy post-scale of control and experimental group.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Control group</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>N</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pre I don’t do it</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t do it well</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do it well</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post I don’t do it at all</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I do it well</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t do it well</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>18.8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chi-square X2</td>
<td>13.018</td>
<td></td>
<td>10.563</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The chi square values indicate that the difference between the percentages of the students writing autonomy scale score in the experimental and control group were statistically significant at 0.001 levels in favor of the experimental group post administration.

It was hypothesized that the experimental group post- administration scores of the autonomy scale will outperform the pre- administration scores. Chi values were used in order to compare the pre- post scale results of the students in the experimental regarding writing autonomy as shown in table 4.

Table 4. *chi square results of the writing autonomy pre-post-scale of the experimental group.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Experimental group</th>
<th>Chi-squared</th>
<th>P-value</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pre</td>
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<tr>
<td>I don't do it</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>42.2</td>
<td>13.018</td>
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<tr>
<td>I don't do it well</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>57.8</td>
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<tr>
<td>I do it well</td>
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Chi square values indicate that there was significant difference between the pre and post writing autonomy scale at (0.001) level favor the post one which indicates that the habits of mind based training had a great effect on developing students’ autonomy. The increase in writing autonomy level of the experimental group may be due to applying habits of mind strategies as share strategy and thinking routines for managing impulsivity. Habits of mind strategies made students enjoy learning and have tendencies towards writing and expressing their thoughts. Students were encouraged to use resources in order to complete learning assignments, use dictionaries during the writing activities and use mind maps to organize thinking process.

**Conclusions**

Based on literature review and related studies, it is assumed that students need to deal with writing habitually, to think in English and express their thinking through writing. Habits of mind are means to develop students’ thinking. Students’ ineffective use of strategies affects their writings. Moreover, lack of autonomy results in students' weak performance.

Developing autonomy is highly recommended to better support students with the skills, attitudes and knowledge to succeed in school. Hence, the relation between using habits of mind strategies and autonomy and writing development is investigated in this study. According to the findings of this study, habits of mind based training gave students opportunities to practice discussion, give feedback, answer questions and make suggestions. Students get benefit through idea exchange with their partners. In spite of being curious concerning habit of mind based training at the beginning, students became interested and they concentrated in order to listen and take notes to take ideas for their writings. Thinking in every step students did and reflecting on these thoughts in solving writing problems was a new experience for students that encouraged them to be active.
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and motivated. Hence in the light of the results of this study, preparatory education programs should incorporate habits of mind into their language arts curriculum. Furthermore, future research is needed to investigate the impact of habits of mind on students’ achievement.

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References


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Helping Students Master Interview Skills

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Abstract
This action research paper reports on successful class sessions designed to teach students communication skills required to navigate career level interviews. The work is divided into three sections: the first introduces the literature concerning the need for interview training to assist students seeking jobs; the second details the practical class sessions and gives clear instructions on how to conduct them with special emphasis given to practice of interview questions in a classroom setting; and the third suggests two class sessions on mock interviews, one done in pairs and the other in a group setting. The conclusion states that the sessions have been successful and well-received by the student as shown by their higher quiz grades. The authors offer this course in a private university in Lebanon where English, not the mother tongue for the majority of students, is the language of instruction. The students vary between near-native fluency for those who obtained their high school diploma in an English-system school to an intermediate level of fluency for those who did their schooling in a French-system school. The level of fluency in the language is crucial since it seems to indicate how familiar students are with the culture of the system in general. As professors, our aim is to train the students to master the necessary interview skills to prepare them for the positions they are applying for.

Keywords: Candidate, communication skills, interview, mock interview, prospective employer

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Introduction

As the title indicates, “Helping Students Master Interview Skills”, this action research paper presents English in the Workplace as one of the most challenging but interesting courses to be taught at the university level. It is the last of a series of four courses in language communication skills offered at the university level. The first two courses cover basic writing, the third teaches argumentative writing, and the fourth prepares students for business communication.

On the first day of class, students are introduced to the need for excellent communication skills, and the “critical role communication plays in the contemporary organization” (Ober, 2003, p. xiii).

One of the five main learning outcomes of the course is to prepare students to find a suitable job, and to acquire the necessary skills currently needed to do so. To reach this outcome, the students are introduced to the complex work environment and are taught to consider the employment interview as a sales presentation. Five and sometimes six class sessions are regularly devoted to the mastery of interview skills. The preparatory class sessions are designed to make the mock interview and the final graded interview successful experiences for the students.

According to Locker and Kaczmarek (2014), many employers expect their potential employees to be more assertive, follow instructions scrupulously, and participate in up to five interviews (phone, video, Skype, face to face). In addition, prospective employers may expect the candidates to provide a sample of their work, and often, their writing. Candidates may also be asked to give an oral presentation. Besides emphasizing the importance of communication skills during an interview, this course also motivates students to prepare very seriously for the actual interview. Teaching interview strategy offers instructors an opportunity to be creative and proactive in presenting the information and gives students ample time to practice the skills needed to succeed, building their confidence before they begin the interview process.

Current views on interview skills

There is ongoing research interest on the validity of the employment interview as one of the most prevalent methods to assess and select a candidate. Obtaining a job interview is considered a sign of success from the applicant’s perspective. According to Hansen and Hansen (2017), a survey showed that the best bet for getting hired is to master interview skills, since, according to the authors, poor communication skills are one of the prime reasons interviewees were not considered for the open position. It is common practice today for employers to value the interview performance and professionalism more highly than the candidate’s background and qualifications. It is also believed that practice will help reduce interview anxiety and improve interview skills.

There are several ways to practice before a job interview, such as mock interviews, video-recorded mock interviews, interview simulations, rehearsal, and informational interviews (Hansen & Hansen, 2017).

Mock interviews simulate real job interviews and are conducted with a prospective employer and a candidate; the career professional can provide worthwhile feedback and guidance.
to point out the candidate’s shortcomings and also acknowledge the areas in which the interviewee excels. Boosting the candidate’s confidence by indicating his or her strengths will result in improving interview skills, according to Krueger (as cited in Hansen & Hansen, 2017). This is supported by the fact that many career coaches and consultants offer such training. The syllabus of English in the Workplace course supports this statement.

Mock interviews provide additional valuable preparation when they are recorded to assess the non-verbal aspects as well. Focusing on attitude and non-verbal communication allows the interviewee to reduce distracting habits or nervous gestures, thus avoiding interview blunders that he or she may be unaware of (Hansen & Hansen, 2017).

If the candidate thought he or she did very well on the interview, but did not hear back from the interviewer Mele (2017) suggests the following:

According to Alpert (as cited in Mele, 2017), a psychotherapist and coach in New York City, some applicants rely too much on similar generic replies. Alpert recommends that the candidate act naturally during the interview since the prospective employers want to know what is unique about the candidate. In addition, he recommends that the applicant be familiar with the workplace culture to assess whether they share similar values or not. In the same article, the author advises the candidate to learn as much as possible about the company culture. He also points to the fact that applicants should talk about their professional successes with confidence. Another piece of advice is for the interviewees to ask pertinent questions and to answer questions about their accomplishments.

**Training Students for the Interview**

The class sessions described here have been effective in the classes of Junior and Senior students preparing to search for career employment. In the authors’ experience, many students are unfamiliar with the concept of a résumé and cover letter, as well as the need to actually prepare for job interviews. Most students working while studying are in jobs that are most often not related to their majors; they have been hired as waiters, shop employees, work in family businesses, or employment certainly beneficial from a communications standpoint, but the job may not have required stringent interviews. It is not uncommon for students to comment that résumés can be exaggerated somewhat, or that cover letters may not be necessary at all. Due to this misconception, it is important to inform students that competition on the job market is extremely difficult, and that setting oneself apart from all the other graduates by showing one's individual competencies is necessary in order to be hired for a career position. In these classes on interview strategy, tips on résumés for international company interviews are also included. For instance, many students may have a different view of what is suitable to include in a résumé. Since students may be looking for employment abroad, it is important to bring to their attention the cultural nuances of working outside their country. One point discussed is that personal information such as age, marital status, and religious affiliation is often considered privileged information in other parts of the world.

There are several means to convince students that a job search, especially one during the last semester of university must be given ample time. The first method is to invite a guest speaker
into the classroom, preferably a graduate that has been successful in landing a solid position and can present first-hand experience that correlates with the information on the student syllabus. Allow ample time for questions and make sure the session is informal. Such sessions have been more successful when instructors have sat in the audience and allowed the guest to moderate. Another very effective means of motivating students to be pro-active in a career search is to invite the director of the university Placement Office to give a short presentation to the class concerning the services it offers. In most cases, the Placement Office has sample resumes, lists of companies in the area that are hiring, or have recently hired graduates from the university. They also sponsor annual Job Fairs and publicize regularly scheduled visits by companies interested in the university's graduates. This information will help the students to be more informed and in charge of their job-search process. A third means is to select one or two examples of sample career and job search sites from the web. ‘Monster.com’ offers company profiles and reviews, career advice, education programs and résumé help (Monster.com). According to Edwards (2015), 4 Best Websites for College Graduates Seeking Jobs, students should be encouraged to join LinkedIn, and consult Indeed, Start Jobs.net and Career Builder. Once the students are informed and motivated to get to work, the following class sessions can be fruitful.

Interview Basics. It is helpful to begin the series of classes dedicated to interview preparation with a definition and some theory. According to the Collins English Dictionary, a job interview is “a formal meeting at which someone is asked questions in order to find out if they are suitable for a post of employment.” This definition makes it clear to the student that the interview is very important since it may determine whether the applicant is chosen for the position or rejected. Thus, students are informed that the objective of an interview is to present one’s best features and show strength under pressure during an important meeting. Interviews measure an applicant’s personality, character traits, social skills, team-playing ability, emotional intelligence, and people skills among others. Candidates should know their skills and what sets them apart from other candidates.

Moreover, an interview may take 30 minutes to an hour or sometimes longer. It is estimated that the first 5 minutes are used for introductions, the next 15 to 40 minutes are dedicated to background and credentials, and approximately 5-10 minutes are left for the interviewer to ask questions and find out if the interviewee is a fit for the organization. Students must also be aware that the primary focus for the recruiter is how well the candidate is suited to the job description, as well as their competency and compatibility.

Students need to know the difference between the types of interviews; the most common being structured and unstructured: It is commonly agreed that the structured interview is a more valid indicator than the unstructured interview (Judge, Higgins, & Cable, 2000). The interview is thus considered a selection tool, and it helps in the decision-making as it provides pertinent information about the candidate. Interestingly enough, the interview is also seen as a selection tool by applicants for evaluating the recruiting organization.

The professors realize that students cannot be expected to know what to do and not to do during the interviews, since the majority have not had work experience and are not always familiar with the culture of the workplace. The authors insist that applicants present themselves as being
well-prepared and having done research on the company. They must also be ready to discuss an offer if it is made. It is suggested that students take notes during the interview.

As candidates have only one chance to make a first impression, non-verbal communication (smiling, eye contact, facial expressions, body language, voice, etc.) is also explained. One additional element that stressed in the interview preparation sessions is professional dress for the interview. The tips given are simple, but necessary. First, perfume for both men and women should be light or non-existent. Human Resource representatives who have come to classes as guest speakers have reported that when they see up to 25 candidates in one day, strong perfumes have a negative effect. Jewellery should also be kept to a minimum; it is suggested that earrings be simple and not dangling, for instance. Both men and women should wear, to a formal interview, a jacket and a long-sleeved shirt. Though navy and black are often suggested, they are not the only colors; the idea is to be professional.

Students also benefit from practicing posture and attitude during an interview. Often classes are begun by asking the students to shake hands with each other. It is useful to remember that a handshake is firm and brief and uses only one hand. Students should also bring a small notebook and a pen with them along with their portfolio and an extra copy of their résumé to the interview as it may be necessary to write down information the interviewer shares; an address, a website to consult, etc. The answers to the student's questions may also be written down.

According to Macan (2009) students should keep in mind that the interview is a social interaction between the interviewer and the candidate in which both parties gather information from each other. The importance of promptness is emphasized, along with a positive attitude while answering the questions, professionalism, and complete honesty. The writers also stress four factors applicants should consider before making a final decision if an offer is made:

1. Job content: what is the nature of the job; is it interesting, does it fit into long-term plans or is it a temporary position?
2. Employer: Does it seem that the candidate will be comfortable in the organization; will it contribute to their personal growth?
3. Salary and benefits: How are individual increases determined, how are promotions handled, and what are the benefits offered?
4. Co-workers: Is the candidate able to “fit in” with other employees; what is the culture of the company?

Students are also informed to write a thank you email after the interview (Doyle, 2017).

**Interview Practice.** Once students are familiar with basic interview theory, the necessity of knowing how to answer the questions calmly and sincerely is emphasized. Students read interview questions; it is not necessary to have the students answer all of them; rather, they must learn the process and principles involved. Following is a list of common questions students must be prepared to answer:

1. Tell me about a difficult decision you have made
helping students master interview skills

2. How did you overcome an obstacle when working with a difficult colleague?
3. How did you get along with your team members?
4. Was there a time when you went beyond expectations?
5. What would your fellow employees say about you?
6. Tell me about a time you had to deal with a crisis
7. How do you handle having too much work and too many deadlines?
8. What accomplishment gave you the most pride?
9. How do you work under pressure?
10. What is the title of the last book you read?
11. What are your hobbies?
12. Who are your role models?
13. Would you consider furthering your education?

Most students have been genuinely surprised when they realize that it is quite negative to begin an interview with: I'm willing to do anything. Rather than portraying a hard worker, this answer shows that the applicant is desperate for any job.

Classroom Sample Sessions

Divide the class into groups of three or four. If the class is large, a group of five is also appropriate. Have students designate a moderator to guide the discussion, a note taker to keep a record for the whole class discussion, and a time keeper to ensure that all the tasks are completed on time. Encourage all members of the group to take notes. We have found the following questions beneficial for practice:

1. Tell me about yourself.
2. Where do you see yourself in five years?
3. Are you willing to travel?
4. Tell me about a time when you were successful in a team project.
5. Are you a leader or a follower?
6. Describe your strengths.
7. Describe your weaknesses.
8. Why should I hire you?
9. What is the most significant contribution you have made or can make?
10. What is the biggest mistake you made?
11. What is your greatest fear?

Ask the students to prepare what they believe are the wrong answers to these questions and then what the correct answers are. Students share their findings in a whole class setting after 25 minutes.

Before students begin their collaborative work, it is helpful to give an example so that students get the idea without having to ask a lot of questions. For example, ask students the question: What is the salary you expect in this position? The wrong answer is to give a precise number such as $35,000 annually. One possible correct answer could be: "I have read that an entry-level engineer at your company begins at $35,000 annually. I believe after this interview..."
you will be convinced that I merit at least that amount.” Another appropriate answer could be: "I would like to start with the same salary given all your entry-level engineers. I am certain I will prove my efficiency quite quickly.”

After having conducted these sessions a number of times, it has become clear that culture plays an important role in how students answer these questions. Before being trained on how to answer professionally, a large number of students tended to answer without pausing or without having thought through the answer; their answers were often similar to narratives rather than explanations that highlighted their many strengths. Poise in one's answers is a means to project maturity.

**Sample interview questions and answers**

The goal is for students to feel confident in their answers and to showcase their strengths. The suggested answers below do just that:

1. Tell me about yourself: How would you describe yourself is a common question, and here is where students should highlight education, experience, and career aspirations.
   
   I am an ambitious Education student presently in the last year of my degree. I have completed a minor in English and I now feel confident that my language abilities would allow me to teach high school students. I also love music and have played the piano for the last 10 years. I am interviewing here today because I believe my credentials meet the job description you published.

2. Where do you see yourself in five years?
   
   In five years, I see myself as being more experienced in this field, able to instruct others, and having been promoted once.

3. Are you willing to travel?

   The question concerning travel is an interesting one. The wrong answer that is often given in class sessions is: No, I cannot travel as I do not want to leave my family and friends. Though this answer may be true, it is not a mature answer. For the positive: I am willing to travel for work and see it as a means of increasing my knowledge in the field as well as learning about how others do work. Negative: Presently, I have family responsibilities, which do not allow me to be away for long periods of time; I am however able to travel for short periods for conferences and whenever needed.

4. Tell me about a time when you were successful in a team project.

   I led a student group in my Senior Study class last semester. We were eight people and our task was to prepare a proposal for a new Attendance Policy for the University. I found that the way to succeed was to make sure that all of us had a role to play, deadlines to meet, and one member who volunteered to be the moderator. As I had learned about collaborative work in my Business English course, I volunteered and we scored an A.
5. Are you a leader or a follower?
   This question merits a class discussion. Most students are tempted to answer: I am a leader very quickly and leave the answer very short. Though it is important to learn how to answer questions concisely, this question requires thought. After class discussion, the following answer was agreed upon as a basis on which to work: "I am a leader when, in a group setting it is clear that I have information that will benefit the group. For example, in my senior project last semester, I was able to lead since the subject, New Technologies in Mechanical Engineering, was one in which I had experience after having done a three-month internship with X company during the summer of 2015. But, I am also willing to follow when I can benefit from others in my team who are more knowledgeable than I am.

6. Describe your strengths.
   This is a complex question, but I can honestly say that I am a good communicator. I am interested in listening to other people, and I enjoy a fruitful discussion. For this reason, I always score high in university debates. Another one of my strengths is that I am ambitious. Though I realize that success takes time and experience, I am constantly looking ahead.

7. Describe your weaknesses.
   This is also a question that students must practice. It is an opportunity for a little humor in the classroom as some "wrong" answers lead to a few giggles. It is important to discourage students from mentioning how they have been on probation, are excessively impatient with others, or shy away from working with others. Rather the principle is to be honest and to turn the weakness into a positive opportunity for learning. For example, I am quite introverted and would like nothing more than to work on my own, individually. But I do realize that today's businesses are not run like that and we all need each other's input. So, I have been making an effort to join small teams in my classes and to collaborate with others. It is working and last month I scored a B in my Chemistry Group Experiment.

8. Why should I hire you?
   I believe I should be hired because I have the credentials you are looking for to fill this position; I have the Economics degree, and have completed three internships in the same area; I believe I have the basic expertise required. In addition, my résumé shows that through participation in university engineering clubs, my familiarity with other cultures, due to the travel I have done, I am confident I am able to do this job. Show that you understand the position you are applying for and that you are the type of person they are looking for. Demonstrate through examples, not only words.

9. What is the most significant contribution you made or can make?
   Last summer, I was working to earn money for my fall tuition at a children's sports camp in the mountains. My actual responsibility was to ensure the children's safety on the bus that brought them to the daily activities. As I was observing the 10 year olds at the swimming pool, it was evident that some were less experienced swimmers than others. The life guards were hard pressed to take care of all the children. So, I asked the camp director if she would mind if I volunteered to give swimming lessons to those children who were not confident in the water. She agreed and at the end of the summer, the children I had instructed had improved greatly. This is
just one example of how I believe that when we are committed to an organization, we should give all we can.

10. What is the biggest mistake you made? Be honest, and show integrity. Explain what you learned from the mistake.

The biggest mistake I have made so far is not having taken my first semester at university as seriously as I should have. I was very excited to have more freedom than during high school, to choose my courses and their timing. I was surprised to know I could choose even my professors. I wasted too much time on socializing rather than on studying. My GPA suffered the first semester; I did learn that I have to focus on my goals. My GPA is now 3.00 again and I am on track to graduate in June.

11. What is your greatest fear? Not succeeding in your career, not landing the job desired, failing your loved ones, whatever the answer, be honest and stay calm.

My greatest fear is not succeeding in my career after having put in so much time and effort at university. My parents are so proud that I am their first university graduate; I think though that it must be normal to be a little anxious as I transition into working life. I am confident that with hard work I will be hired and will make my way up in the company that I choose to join.

Along with the questions that they will be asked, students must also practice asking a few questions of their own to the interviewer. In our classes, we always stress that these questions show the interviewer that the students have “done their homework” concerning the company and are informed about the company’s outlook, but are also thinking ahead.

**Sample students’ questions:**
1. How does this company ensure professional development?
2. How long does an average employee stay in his or her position before being promoted?
3. Are employee initiatives taken into consideration?
4. Are employees encouraged to participate in decision-making?
5. What do employees say about your organization?
6. Why is this position open?
7. Who determines raises and promotions?
8. What are some benefits for employees?
9. Do you offer a bonus for extra work or excellent job performance?
10. What does a typical work day look like?

**Mock Interviews in Groups**

Before this session, students prepare a résumé, practice writing both solicited and unsolicited cover letters, and review typical interview questions and responses. When the mock interviews are held after the interview practice classes, students are less hesitant and genuinely enjoy the opportunity to share their work with their classmates. During the class in which typical interview questions are discussed, emphasis is laid on how to personalize interview answers to set one apart from other candidates.
Procedure

In this context, provide a job ad to the class members three days before the mock interview. This gives them time to properly prepare as though they were going to a real interview. Example: A multinational company located in X is searching for graduating students in the fields of Engineering, Business and the Humanities to build a new children’s shoe factory. Candidates should have completed their degrees within the last year or be planning to do so at the end of the present academic year. Fluent English is required; other foreign languages are an asset. Candidates should have computer and excellent presentation skills in addition to the ability to work in a team atmosphere.

1. Tell students to fine tune their résumé, write a cover letter for this position, and come to class dressed for an interview on a specific date. Inform them that some students will be randomly chosen to play the role of interviewer while others will be interviewed. Prepare a rubric for successful interviews and post it on your class website.

2. Before the students arrive in class on the day of the interview, assign students to a group, name the interviewer of the group and post the lists on the classroom door. Take a few minutes to set up the class in a group setting and make it easy for students to go to their group table by placing a copy of the list of names and number on one of the desks. Groups of five are most successful. One interviewer will interview four fellow students.

3. Welcome the students at the door and ask them to join their groups at the desk. Compliment them on their professional attire and attitude. Simulate a job interview atmosphere. Distribute a list of questions to the interviewers, a rubric for each student, review the ground rules and ask all students to leave the classroom to wait outside to be called back in. The interviews begin with the interviewers going to the door and calling in the candidate. The duration of each interview is approximately 5-6 minutes.

4. After the interviews have been completed, each interviewer tallies the points of the rubric and chooses the candidate he or she would have hired. The class is called back in and in a whole class format, each interviewer gives a short presentation in which they announce the “winner” and explain the rationale behind the decision. After the class has heard the interviewers' decisions, the class reflects on the exercise and what they have found beneficial. In a 50 minute session, only the interviews and the announcement of the candidates chosen can take place. The discussion is continued during the following class.

Mock Interviews in Pairs

Below is the second approach to preparing students for the “job hunting experience.” Prior to the mock interview session, we review the parts of a résumé and emphasize what should be included and what is not necessary or discriminatory. Also, the cover letter, and the difference between solicited and unsolicited cover letters are explained. Finally, review sample interview questions and possible answers to present the candidate’s best features, and minimize weaknesses.
**Procedure**

Before the mock interviews session, the students are asked to prepare their résumé and bring their own ads based on their majors or area of interest (online, or newspapers, university billboards, or other sources, may be used to find an appropriate ad). Students respond to the ad by writing a solicited cover letter and attaching it to their résumé. Students are advised to minimize weaknesses or failures and to turn them into learning experiences and positive challenges. They are also required to dress formally. This role-playing method seems to actively engage the students and provide good practice for the actual graded interview.

1. Students work in pairs and take turns interviewing each other; one playing the interviewer and the other taking on the role of interviewee. They will give each other feedback on answers, eye contact, body language, and attitude, (general delivery), and discuss what they did well, and what they need to improve so as to acquire better interview skills. When done with the interviews, each pair shares their “findings” or results with the whole class (professor and classmates).

2. A class discussion follows to emphasize the positive outcomes and to overcome the negative ones. Sample answers are given for “difficult” or more challenging questions.

3. Last, students are asked to come up with adequate questions of their own to ask the interviewer on the graded interview day.

**Graded Interview**

On the day of the graded interview, students come to the professor’s office dressed professionally, with their résumé and cover letter, and any sample, for example, a portfolio (for a graphic designer, engineer, or architect) or a sample of their writing (for a journalist, etc.). In this simulated interview session, the professor acts as potential employer and the student is the candidate. At the end of the 7-10 minute interview, the professor/interviewer gives the candidates appropriate feedback and tells them if they have been hired or not with a reason/rationale as to why. Their strengths and weaknesses are addressed and appropriate feedback is given.

**Reflection and conclusion**

This action research article underlines the importance of acquiring interview skills in order to be competitive since today’s employers look for highly qualified communicators. Most textbooks and interview-preparation websites list the most commonly asked interview questions. They also encourage students to be prepared for stress interviews, panels, and interviews over lunch. Two crucial goals must be planned into the in-class activities: first, interview answers must be prepared in advance so as to present the student’s particular credentials, and second, the students must practice giving concrete examples from their previous employment or university courses to show how they are capable of taking on new responsibilities.

In conclusion, there has been continuous research on the employment interview. It is agreed that the structured interview has greater predictive validity compared to the unstructured (Macan, 2009). The job interview is a very popular tool among prospective employers and
organizational decision-makers. It is considered an essential and reliable factor in the selection process.

Upon reflection on the methods practiced in the training sessions, professors found that all the sessions were beneficial and that both mock practice sessions are valid for preparing the students to acquire the necessary skills needed in the workplace.

The first method (in group), though the instructor provides the job ad, has the advantage of providing valuable peer feedback. From experience with this class session, the interviewers provide the class with excellent feedback: Examples of student feedback is as follows:

1. Clara gave examples of how she used creativity in an Engineering project. She was friendly without going overboard. She had excellent posture and showed interest in the questions I asked.

2. Brad explained very clearly how he was obliged to leave university for one year in order to make money to pay his tuition and thus explained the gap in his résumé.

3. Cyril does have a 3.8 GPA, but he was able to show me that he also participates in extra-curricular sports and holds down a part time job at the gym near his house.

As university instructors are quite aware, students are not always on task during a typical class session. However, it was noticed that during the first mock interview, students do eagerly wait outside the classroom reviewing their résumé, and take interest in what questions the interviewer asked their colleagues. Requiring that students dress professionally is a positive feature in making the class a success.

The second training session (in pairs) is a cooperative learning experience in which one student provides feedback for a classmate; all students are engaged and participate actively until the final feedback is given by the professor. In this scenario, students bring their own ad to class rather than the professor providing a generic job ad, which allows the students to practice for future job hunting.

In fact, students practiced mock interviews in our courses have praised them for their similarity to real interviews, as they have provided an excellent picture of what to expect in real life situations. Moreover, by having held classes in which theory was explained, students were familiarized with the process of an interview, and practiced interview strategy in small group, and a whole class format, the outcome of the graded interview has been significantly more positive. Students are consistently better prepared and less stressed, while also showing critical thinking in their responses.

Finally, English in the Workplace is a practical course in which students realize that effective communication is the most sought after skill in the job market worldwide. There is no doubt that employers today expect superior qualifications in an increasingly “shrinking” world. Clearly, excellent communication skills and language competence are highly valued. The ability to speak, read, and write fluently, gives the applicant an edge on the competition. Specifically, a
well-prepared and professionally conducted job interview is a critical “cornerstone” of good business communication (Ober, 2003).

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References
The Relationship between Competency and Work Motivation of EFL Teachers at Public Secondary Schools in Yemen

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Abstract:
The present study aimed to explore the levels of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) teachers’ competency and work motivation and to investigate the relationship between competency and work motivation of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen. To this end, two questionnaires were used to elicit data on the study variables which are: EFL Teachers’ Competency Questionnaire and Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale. The sample of the study consisted of 300 female and male EFL teachers at public secondary schools who were selected by using a simple random sampling technique to be the participants of this study. The findings revealed that the overall level of EFL teachers’ competency was high. In addition, the overall level of their work motivation was moderate. Additionally, it is found that there was a statistically significant, strong positive correlation between EFL teachers’ competency and their work motivation. The results also showed that female EFL teachers had a higher level of competency than male EFL teachers. In contrast, the effect of gender on EFL teachers’ work motivation was not confirmed. Finally, results indicated that the greater the level of experience, the higher the levels of competency and work motivation among the EFL teachers. The researchers recommend performing professional training and improving conditions of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in order to gain a higher level of work motivation and improve outcomes of the EFL teaching-learning process.

Keywords: Competency, EFL teachers in Yemen, public secondary schools, relationship, work motivation

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1.1 Introduction

Teaching English language is very important at secondary education in Yemen because it is a compulsory subject at this stage. It prepares students for the tertiary level, and students will need it in so many fields (Al-Sohbani, 2015). Despite the fact that the English language is important in Yemeni educational system and it is taught as a subject for six years in primary and secondary schools in Yemen, school leavers are not competent and ineffective in using English language (Al-Sohbani, 2013). Wang (2010) asserts that EFL teachers’ performance is very important for the improvement of students’ English language performance. Results of several studies show that there are significant positive relationships between teachers’ motivation and performance (Arifin, 2015; Nzulwa, 2014). Effective EFL teachers’ performance does not typically depend only on teachers having the appropriate skills (competencies) but also on them motivating to apply the skills (Dweik & Awajan, 2013). This is because EFL teachers are unlikely to make the effort to properly apply their skills unless they are motivated to do so, that is unless they have positive or strong motivation (Dweik & Awajan, 2013).

Niculescu (2014) argues that EFL teaching process requires numerous and various competencies which must be available in EFL teachers. Some of these competencies are acquired by EFL teachers during the years of their preparation for the teaching profession, while the other EFL teachers’ competencies are based on the components of their personality and characteristics. These competencies together constitute an integrated unit for the character of EFL teachers (Richards, 2011). The desired competencies are language proficiency, content knowledge, teaching skills and professionalism; and EFL teachers are responsible for achieving and acquiring these competencies to succeed in their teaching performance (Richards, 2011).

According to Dessler (2001), motivation is the intensity of a person’s desire to take part in some activity. Motivation is usually seen as the engines behind human behavior (Abdulsalam & Mawoli, 2012). There is a reason or several reasons behind any human behavior, and these reasons are related to the internal status of the human on one hand and stimuli of the external environment on the other hand (Justine, 2011). So, motivation is the driving forces that drive the individual and direct his behavior toward a particular goal (Kant, 2014). Based on the above, research has shown that EFL teachers’ competency and motivation are important factors affecting EFL teachers’ performance.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

EFL teachers vary in their levels of motivation and this disparity is due to several factors, including what is an internal linked to the existed individual differences between teachers, and some of which is an external linked to the environment in which the teacher teaches (Dweik & Awajan, 2013). Motivational factors lead to quality EFL teachers’ performance and high productivity which enhances quality assurance in the educational system (Inayatullah & Jehangir, 2012). Tao (2013) finds that teachers who were demotivated had many absenteeism rates than those who were motivated. Research on EFL teachers’ work motivation is becoming more and more important due to its relationship with the growing number of EFL teachers leave the profession and with the high or low level of EFL teachers' performance. In fact, many studies state that in several educational contexts, teachers increasingly leave the profession after a few years in service (Getahun, Tefera, & Burichew, 2016). In addition, as mentioned above, researchers find that EFL teachers’ competency and work motivation are influential factors affecting EFL teachers’ performance.
Consequently, exploring the level of EFL teachers' competency and work motivation is an important issue which should be addressed in order to improve the entire teaching-learning process outcomes (Baleghizadeh & Gordani, 2012; Jusmin, Said, Bima, & Alam, 2016; Richards, 2010). Also, there are few studies investigate the relationship between teachers’ competency and their work motivation (Aziz, Akhtar, & Rauf, 2014; Sukrapi, Muljono, & Purmaningsih, 2014; Wetipo, Rante, Wambraw, & Bharanti, 2015). However, to the best of our knowledge, there is no study examined the relationship between competency and work motivation in the context of EFL teachers.

Specifically, Yemen is facing the problem of low-quality education, especially in the case of EFL teaching that is one of the most significant issues in this field (Al-Sohbani, 2013). Policy makers in Yemen pay little attention to the competency and work motivation of EFL teachers and their relationship with teachers’ performance (Al-Ahdal, 2010; Al-shamiry & Alduais, 2013; Alsofi, 2009). Sometimes teachers are observed competent but not motivated and in certain cases are motivated but not competent. Both cases affect EFL teaching and learning. As a matter of fact, there is a need for competent and motivated EFL teachers in Yemen in order to promote quality EFL education. For all of the mentioned reasons, the aims of the present study are to explore the level of competency and work motivation of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen and to investigate the relationship between competency and work motivation in this context.

1.3 Significance of the Study
The findings of the present study may benefit EFL teachers, EFL teachers' trainers, school administrators, policy-makers, and the Ministry of Education. This study might contribute to the understanding of the relationships between competency and work motivation. Obviously, English is a very important language in Yemen. So, the results are expected to make particularly significant contributions to the improvement of the quality of Teaching English as a Foreign Language (TEFL) at Yemeni secondary schools and in turn to achieve the objectives at this stage. It may also enable stakeholders to design more effective intervention programs to influence EFL teachers’ competency and work motivation. Results of the present study may serve as a guide for other scholars who would like to research on relevant issues.

1.4 Theoretical Framework
EFL teachers’ competency: EFL teachers’ competency has been categorized clearly and specifically by the three theories of Cross (2003), Mulhauser (1958), and Richards (1998). These three theories indicate constant domains of what an EFL teacher should know and be able to do (Soepriyatna, 2012). These three theories show an agreement in three domains of EFL teachers’ competency: English language competence, content knowledge, and teaching skills related to English language teaching. Arshad (2009), in the light of the above-mentioned theories, propose the three main domains and dimensions of EFL teachers’ competency: knowledge competency, professional competency, and personal competency.

EFL teachers’ work motivation: EFL teachers' work motivation is the process that arouses, energizes, directs, and sustains EFL teachers' behaviors and performance (Dweik & Awajan, 2013). In the Self-Determination Theory (SDT), Deci and Ryan (2000) distinguish between different types of work motivation based on the different reasons or goals that give rise
to an action. Therefore, the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS) was developed by Gagné, Forest, Vansteenkiste, Crevier-Braud, Van den Broeck, et al. (2015) based on the SDT to measure six motivational constructs: amotivation, external regulation - social, external regulation - material, introjected regulation, identified regulation, and intrinsic motivation.

**The Relationship between EFL Teachers’ Competency and their Work Motivation:**
Based on Bandura's (1977) theory of self-efficacy, EFL teachers' beliefs about their capabilities to organize and engage in various activities are required to gain the established performance or achievement. This theory explains that EFL teachers tend to avoid tasks and situations that they supposed beyond their abilities. But, when they are competent, they feel confident being able to carry out and complete the duties. In addition, based on Deci and Ryan (2000, 2002) Self-Determination theory, motivated behaviours stem from the innate psychological needs which are the needs for competence (feeling of self-efficacy), relatedness (feeling connected to the outside setting) and autonomy (feeling of control). This is supported by the findings of previous studies (e.g., Aziz, Akhtar, & Rauf, 2014; Sukrapi, Muljono, & Purnaningsih, 2014; Wetipo, Rante, Wambraw, & Bharanti, 2015) which reveal that teachers’ competency has a relationship with their work motivation. It can be assumed that the higher the EFL teacher's competency, the higher the level of work motivation she/he has.

**Figure 1** Conceptual Model of the Study

![Conceptual Model of the Study](image)

**1.5 Research Questions**
The current study attempts to address the following questions:  
RQ1. What are the levels of competency and work motivation among EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen?  
RQ2. Are there significant relationships between competency and work motivation of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen?  
RQ3. Do competency and work motivation differ by gender and teaching experience of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen?  

**2. Literature Review**

**2.1 EFL Teachers’ Competency**
With the emphasis on the importance of teachers’ competencies, competency-based teacher education has appeared (Mulder, Weigel, & Collins, 2006). Niculescu (2014) states that teachers’ competency is fundamental for the quality of education which has multiple functions in a society...
that wants the renewal of itself. It is true that there are many interpretations and theories of teaching and learning process, also there are many tools, machinery, equipment, and programs to facilitate teaching and learning process, but the quality of education cannot be achieved only through the availability of competent teachers.

In order to assess pre-service as well as in-service EFL teachers’ competency in Pakistan, Arshad (2009) designed a questionnaire. He concentrated on the core competencies which English language teachers should strive to attain. He categorized EFL teachers’ competency into three general categories: knowledge competency, professional competency, and personal competency. These categories represent areas in which teachers require knowledge, a variety of competences and abilities to make decisions related to teaching EFL.

Firstly, knowledge competency is the knowledge, skills, and abilities of EFL teachers which enable them to deal with educational and social context in which they work. In this study, knowledge competency contains core knowledge of English, content area approved by the curriculum, communicative competencies (grammar, discourse, sociolinguistic, and strategic), enhancement of the knowledge according to the need of the time, and connecting the study of the subject with other subjects (Arshad, 2009).

Secondly, professional competency is the broad professional knowledge, abilities, and skills required in order to work as EFL teachers. Professional competency consists of four components: planning, teaching techniques, classroom management, and evaluation and recording (Arshad, 2009). According to Richards (2010):

> English language teaching is not something that anyone who can speak English can do. It is a profession, which means that English teaching is seen as a career in a field of educational specialization, it requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience (p. 119).

Thirdly, personal competencies are personal traits and abilities that affect EFL teachers’ results in the workplace and in life (Guillen & Saris, 2013). According to Arshad (2009), personal competency includes three components: collaboration with colleagues, national and Islamic perspectives, and communication skills. Studying one of the competency elements means just covering some aspects of EFL teachers’ competency, but none of them fully explain what teachers’ competency is (Roelofs & Sanders, 2007). Therefore, it is essential to study a unified comprehensive concept of EFL teachers’ competency.

Based on the above, the researchers believe that EFL teachers’ competency occupies an important place in the modern educational literature due to its relationship with the EFL teachers’ performance. So, it is increasingly important to explore the level of EFL teachers’ competencies and to address the gap between required and existing competencies of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen.
2.2 EFL Teachers’ Work Motivation

Unfortunately, the amount of research in the field of language teacher motivation is still meager (Dörnyei, 2001; Kassagby et al., 2001; Taqi, Taqi, & Akbar, 2017). Erkaya (2013) argues that, about ESL/EFL teachers’ motivation research, not much has been found. She attributed that to the previous focus of researchers on students’ motivation since they thought it was the only prerequisite for language success. But, the concept of teachers’ motivation is gradually receiving attention in TESOL nowadays, especially in educational psychology and teacher education (Tsutsumi, 2014).

SDT focuses on the causality orientations rather than on the need strength as the individual difference. It emphasizes three basic psychological needs: a need for competence, a need for autonomy and a need for relatedness are the nutriments of motivation (Deci & Ryan, 1991). So, an EFL teacher needs to satisfy the needs for competence, autonomy, and relatedness and will show positive consequences when they are satisfied. Based on Deci and Ryan’s (2000) self-determination theory (SDT), EFL teacher's work motivation can be classified into six motivational constructs: intrinsic motivation, identified regulation, introjected regulation, external regulation - material, external regulation - social, and amotivation (Gagné et al., 2015). They can be examined at a level and arranged in a continuum according to the levels of self-determination (Ryan & Connell, 1989).

The first type of work motivation is the intrinsic motivation, which reflects the most self-determination motivation, involves performing behaviors or engaging in an activity because of internal reasons, such as enjoyment, pleasure or for the feeling of satisfaction (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Next, the identified regulation refers to doing an activity because an individual’s motivated behavior is consciously driven by their values and goals (Koestner & Losier, 2002). After that, the introjected regulation refers to the regulation of behavior through self-worth contingencies such as ego-involvement and guilt. It involves the process in which external demands become a strategy to generate an internal response. Thus, to make sure they perform an activity, they place pressure on themselves through internal reinforcement, such as shame or guilt (Koestner & Losier, 2002).

The lowest level of the self-determined types of extrinsic motivation is external regulation (social or material), which refers to doing an activity in order to obtain rewards or avoid punishments (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Behavior so regulated is therefore completely noninternalized. External regulation is considered to control extrinsic motivation behavior; it is reinforced and maintained by the contingency but will disappear when the rewards and punishments are withdrawn. Finally, at the lowest end of self-determination, there is the third type of motivation which is amotivation. It reflects a lack of motivation or desire as illustrated in people who do not engage in behavior no matter how many external prompts are provided (Deci & Ryan, 2000). Amotivation results from not valuing an activity, not feeling competent to perform it, or not expecting it to yield the desired outcome (Bandura, 1977; Deci, 1975; Seligman, 1975). So, each type of the motivation types is determined by a series of regulatory processes, which can be values, rewards, self-control, interests, fun, satisfaction, etc.
2.3 The Relationship between EFL Teachers’ Competency and their Work Motivation

“Most prominent approaches to the study of motivation today involve competence in some way, whether it be the desire to become competent, to appear competent to others, to feel competent, or even to avoid feeling or appearing incompetent” (Urdan & Turner, 2005, p. 297).

Aziz, Akhtar and Rauf (2014) find a significant positive correlation between competency and work motivation of teachers. Teachers’ competency is closely related to the concept of motivation. Teachers’ competency in the present study refers to EFL teachers’ knowledge or abilities which enable him/her to be a successful or unsuccessful performer. Teachers’ motivation increases with the feeling of competency. So, to be motivated, teachers need to perceive them as competent due to teachers’ competency enhances their motivation. For the cognitive field, they said that the perceptions people have of themselves indeed play a powerful role in affecting their motivation.

According to Bandura (1977), teachers tend to avoid situations they believe surpass their capabilities, but conduct and perform with confidence those tasks or activities they judge themselves capable of achieving successfully. Teachers’ beliefs about their competencies make up their sense of self-efficacy. Self-efficacy beliefs, according to Bandura (1977), are significant determinants of whether teachers will make a greater effort on a task and persist in the face of difficulty. Teachers with low self-efficacy make a minimum of effort, are easily discouraged and, in many cases, give up easily. Vice versa, teachers with high self-efficacy believe that they can perform well and they deal with difficult tasks as something to be managed rather than something to be avoided.

Fisher (1978) states that teachers’ competency promotes his or her level of motivation according to the level of the competency. Thus, poor level of teachers’ competency is more likely to contribute to reduced teachers’ motivation and effort because a low level of teachers’ competency communicates a lack of ability that may be difficult to change. On the other hand, high level of teachers’ competency communicates that success is within reach if more effort is expended. Previous studies suggest that those teachers holding a high level of competency tend to exhibit a high level of motivation, and thus lead to high level of performance (Sukrapi, Muljono, & Purnaningsih, 2014).

Sukrapi, Muljono, and Purnaningsih (2014) find that teachers’ competency and motivation together positively and significantly correlated and have a close relationship with his/her performance. This may imply that teachers’ competency and motivation together would be the factors that determine the success of a teacher in performing his/her duty as a teacher. Therefore, policy makers, educational administrators, and teacher trainers have to provide professional development opportunities that are in line with specific teachers’ needs in order to reinforce teachers’ competency and motivation.

To sum up, the review of the related literature proposed that competency and motivation have important impacts on teachers’ performance. However, there were limited studies about the relationships between teachers’ competency and motivation. In fact, there is a lack of studies which
reflected the linkages between EFL teachers’ motivation and competency. Thus, the present study is an attempt to bridge the gap in research.

3. Research Methodology

The instruments of data collection which were utilized in the present study to elicit data on the study variables are the EFL teachers’ competency questionnaire which is adopted from Arshad (2009) and the multidimensional work motivation scale which is adopted from Gagné et al. (2015). According to Gillham (2008), questionnaires offer an objective means of collecting information about people’s knowledge, beliefs, attitudes, and behaviors. Both instruments were pilot tested on 40 EFL teachers at public secondary schools for their validity and reliability. Reliability of EFL teachers’ competency questionnaire was 0.96, and the reliability of the multidimensional work motivation scale was 0.90. Experts in the fields of EFL teaching and human resource management verified the face validity and content validity of the instruments. A simple random sampling was utilized in order to choose the participants among EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen. The questionnaires were administered to the participants in person.

4. Results

Q1. What are the levels of competency and work motivation among EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen?

Means and standard deviations were extracted in order to answer this question. The overall mean of EFL teachers' competency is (M=3.66), with Std. Deviation (25.76) which is considered high (5 points Likert scale). The personal competency has gotten the highest level of the three competency dimensions with the mean (3.87), then the professional competency with the mean (3.71), and the least level is the knowledge competency with the mean (3.52). The results are shown in Table 1.

Table 1 Descriptive Statistics of EFL Teachers' Competency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Mean Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Deviation Statistic</th>
<th>Skewness Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge Competency</td>
<td>3.52</td>
<td>14.10</td>
<td>-.971</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional Competency</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>9.15</td>
<td>-.565</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Competency</td>
<td>3.87</td>
<td>5.95</td>
<td>-.819</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Competency</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>25.76</td>
<td>-.727</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In addition, Table 2 shows the descriptive analysis of EFL teachers’ work motivation and its factors. The overall mean of EFL teachers' work motivation is (4.42), with Std. Deviation (19.72) which is considered moderate (7 points Likert scale). The mean score of Amotivation (with reverse-coding) is (5.58) which is the highest. Then, the mean score of Identified Regulation is (4.97), Introjected Regulation (4.59), and Intrinsic Motivation (4.57). Finally, the mean score of Extrinsic Regulation-Social is (3.41) and Extrinsic Regulation-Material is (3.32) which are the lowest. It indicates that the teachers are de-motivated with these two factors.
Table 2 *Descriptive Statistics of EFL Teachers' Work Motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Mean Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Deviation Statistic</th>
<th>Skewness Statistic</th>
<th>Std. Error</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amotivation</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>4.56</td>
<td>-1.143</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Regulation-Social</td>
<td>3.41</td>
<td>4.65</td>
<td>.333</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Regulation-Material</td>
<td>3.32</td>
<td>4.77</td>
<td>.349</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introjected Regulation</td>
<td>4.59</td>
<td>6.16</td>
<td>-.115</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identified Regulation</td>
<td>4.97</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>-.498</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>4.57</td>
<td>5.15</td>
<td>-.380</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Motivation</td>
<td>4.42</td>
<td>19.72</td>
<td>-.266</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q2. Are there significant relationships between competency and work motivation of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen?

To answer this question, Pearson Product Moment Correlation Coefficient was performed. Cohen’s (1988) classification of correlation strength has been used in the present study. Cohen (1988) suggested that a correlation is considered small/weak when r = .10 to .29, medium/moderate when r = .30 to .49, and large/strong when r = .50 to 1.00. In this first analysis, there was a significant strong positive correlation between the two variables (EFL teachers' competency and their work motivation) (r = .586, n = 300, p = .000 < 0.01), high levels of EFL teachers' competencies associated with high levels of EFL teachers' work motivation.

In addition, the results in Table 3 indicate that there was a significant strong positive correlation between EFL teachers’ competency and the intrinsic motivation factor r = .551. There were significant moderate positive correlations between EFL teachers’ competency and three factors of work motivation which are amotivation (with reverse coding) r = .473, identified regulation r = .447, and introjected regulation r = .403. Also, there were significant weak positive correlations between EFL teachers’ competency and two factors of work motivation which are extrinsic regulation-social r = .230 and extrinsic regulation-material r = .179.

Finally, the results indicate that there were significant strong positive correlations between two factors of EFL teachers’ competency and their work motivation, which are EFL teachers’ knowledge competency r = .535 and EFL teachers’ professional competency r = .534. Also, there was a significant moderate positive correlation between EFL teachers’ personal competency and their work motivation r = .449.

Table 3 *Pearson Correlations of EFL Teachers' Competency and Work Motivation*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Knowledge Competency</th>
<th>Professional Competency</th>
<th>Personal Competency</th>
<th>Competency</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Amotivation</td>
<td>.485**</td>
<td>.433**</td>
<td>.230**</td>
<td>.473**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Regulation-Social</td>
<td>.181**</td>
<td>.186**</td>
<td>.279**</td>
<td>.230**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Extrinsic Regulation-Material</td>
<td>.133*</td>
<td>.183**</td>
<td>.181**</td>
<td>.179**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introjected Regulation</td>
<td>.340**</td>
<td>.377**</td>
<td>.358**</td>
<td>.403**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
In the second analysis, simple linear regression was performed in order to examine whether EFL teachers’ competency is a significant predictor of their work motivation. Table 4 provides the extent to which variability in EFL teachers’ work motivation as the dependent variable is accounted for by their competency as the independent variable. The standardized coefficient of simple correlation is presented in the ‘R’ column. R is the measure of the prediction of the dependent variable (work motivation). A value of 0.586 indicates a good level of prediction. The ‘R Square’ value is the proportion of variance in the work motivation that can be explained by the independent variable (competency). It indicates that competency explains 34% of the variability of work motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Identified Regulation</th>
<th>.393**</th>
<th>.413**</th>
<th>.368**</th>
<th>.447**</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrinsic Motivation</td>
<td>.556**</td>
<td>.485**</td>
<td>.322**</td>
<td>.551**</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work Motivation</td>
<td>.535**</td>
<td>.534**</td>
<td>.449**</td>
<td>.586**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4  
Model Summary

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of the Estimate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>.586a</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.341</td>
<td>16.005</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant), Competency

Q3. Do competency and work motivation differ by gender and teaching experience of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen?

To answer this question, the one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was performed. Based on the results, seen in Table 5, there are statistically significant differences for the level of competency among EFL teachers in accordance to the variable of gender (male, female) in favor of female EFL teachers, $F(1, 298) = 4.57, P = .033 < .05$, partial eta squared = .015. The value of partial eta squared of .015 means 1.5% of the variance on competency attributed to gender (weak effect size). The mean for the female EFL teachers was (3.79) compared with (3.60) for male EFL teachers as seen in Table 6.

Table 5  Summary results of (ANOVA) to compare between the effect of male and female EFL teachers on competency

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>2999.296</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2999.296</td>
<td>4.573</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.015</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>195459.051</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>655.903</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6  Descriptive summary of competency across gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
<th>N</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>21.40</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>3.60</td>
<td>27.39</td>
<td>203</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3.66</td>
<td>25.76</td>
<td>300</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Based on the results, seen in Table 7, there is no effect of gender on EFL teachers’ work motivation $P = .218 > .05$.

**Table 7** Summary results of (ANOVA) to compare between the effect of male and female EFL teachers on work motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>591.951</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>591.951</td>
<td>1.525</td>
<td>.218</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>115670.436</td>
<td>298</td>
<td>388.156</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results, seen in Table 8, there are statistically significant differences for the level of competency among EFL teachers in accordance to the variable of teaching experience in favor of the more experienced EFL teachers, $F(4, 295) = 2.51$, $P = .042 < .05$, partial eta squared $=.033$. The value of partial eta squared of .033, means 3.3% of the variance on competency attributed to teaching experience (weak effect size). Teachers were grouped by years of experience: 1-5 years with the mean (3.55), 6-10 years with (3.60), 11-15 years with (3.71), 16-20 years with (3.90), and more than 20 years with (3.95).

**Table 8** Summary results of (ANOVA) to test the effect of teaching experience on EFL teachers’ competency.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>6539.642</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1634.911</td>
<td>2.513</td>
<td>.042</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>191918.705</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>650.572</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Based on the results, shown in Table 9, there are statistically significant differences for the level of work motivation among EFL teachers in accordance to the variable of teaching experience in favor of the more experienced EFL teachers, $F(4, 295) = 2.67$, $P = .033 < .05$, partial eta squared $=.035$. The value of partial eta squared of .035, means 3.5% of the variance on work motivation attributed to teaching experience (weak effect size). Teachers were grouped by years of experience: 1-5 years with the mean (4.30), 6-10 years with (4.39), 11-15 years with (4.40), 16-20 years with (4.43), and more than 20 years with (5.02).

**Table 9** Summary results of (ANOVA) to test the effect of teaching experience on EFL teachers’ work motivation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>4055.237</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1013.809</td>
<td>2.665</td>
<td>.033</td>
<td>.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>112207.150</td>
<td>295</td>
<td>380.363</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
5. Discussion

This study explored the levels of competency and work motivation among EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen. The descriptive statistics revealed that the overall level of competency among EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen was high. The knowledge competency dimension has got the least degree among the three dimensions of competency. English language teaching "requires a specialized knowledge base obtained through both academic study and practical experience" (Richards, 2010, p.119). Therefore, there is an urgent need for pre-service and in-service training in order to improve EFL teachers’ knowledge, skills, and abilities.

The findings of the study indicated a moderate level of work motivation among EFL teachers at public secondary schools. The results revealed that the most motivating factor of EFL teachers was amotivation (with reverse-coding). This means that the EFL teachers were highly motivated to work and do not want to fail. Also, it is found that the EFL teachers were more motivated with some factors which were identified regulation, introjected regulation, and intrinsic motivation, respectively. In contrast, they were less motivated with the extrinsic factors of motivation which were respectively extrinsic regulation-social and extrinsic regulation-material. The results of the study are in line with those of Demir (2011) which provide support for the adequateness of the Self-Determination Theory for predicting and understanding of teachers’ work motivation and found that the teachers’ intrinsic motivation had a greater level than the extrinsic motivation. These results confirmed those of (Doyle & Kim, 1999; Kassabgy, Boraie & Schmidt, 2001; Menyhárt, 2008) who found that ESL/EFL teachers were mostly intrinsically motivated to teach.

The answer to the second research question showed that there was a significant strong positive correlation (\(r = .586, n = 300, p = .000 < 0.01\)) between EFL teachers' competency and their work motivation. The results also indicated that EFL teachers’ competency contributed was a significant predictor and a strong effective factor in the level of EFL work motivation. In other words, EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen who have a high level of competency are more motivated to work than those with low-level competency. The findings of the present study were consistent with those of Aziz, Akhtar, and Rauf (2014) and Sukrapi, Muljono, and Purnaningisih (2014), who revealed that there were significant positive correlations between teachers' competency and motivation. They have also confirmed those findings of Wetipo, Rante, Wambraw, and Bharanti (2015), who found that there was a significant positive effect of teachers' competency on their motivation.

The analysis of the results of the third research question showed that female EFL teachers had a higher level of competency than male EFL teachers. This finding is in line with those of (Anbuthasan & Balakrishnan, 2013; Mustafa, 2013), who found that competency among female teachers is higher than male teachers. In contrast, the effect of gender on EFL teachers' work motivation was not confirmed. The results did show that experience levels have an effect on EFL teachers’ competency, meaning that EFL teachers with high levels of experience had higher levels of competency compared to those with low levels of experience. These results confirmed those of (Kömür, 2010; Mustafa, 2013), who found that experienced teachers had a higher level of competency than less experienced teachers. Finally, results indicated that the greater the level of experience, the higher the level of motivation among the EFL teachers. These results came in line
with the results of Khan (2011), who reported that teachers with more years of teaching experience have got higher levels of motivation.

6. Recommendations
Based on the findings of the study, the researchers recommend performing professional training and improving conditions of EFL teachers of public secondary schools in order to gain a higher level of work motivation and improve outcomes of the EFL teaching-learning process. In addition, there is a need for designing a balanced EFL teachers’ education curriculum and programs to expose them to theoretical and practical experiences which will support equally their knowledge, professional, and personal competencies. Additionally, for obtaining better levels of work motivation, it is strongly recommended that the Ministry of Education must review the financial matters and the current salary scheme for public schools teachers. Also, they should consider teaching experience and gender differences when making strategic decisions. For future studies, the researchers suggest replicating this study with a larger group of participants and in different contexts. Finally, in future, it is recommended to combine the self-reporting questionnaires with other more qualitative tools because the responses to this type of measuring instruments may be influenced by personal or social values.

7. Conclusion
The findings of the present study draw a conclusion that high levels of EFL teachers’ competency enhance their work motivation. So, competent EFL teachers will have high levels of work motivation and feel confident being able to perform well. They have the self-confidence/self-efficacy and will tend to accept tasks and situations beyond their abilities. This conclusion suggests that the levels of competency of EFL teachers at public secondary schools in Yemen need to be improved for gaining better levels of work motivation and thus better EFL teaching and learning.

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References:


Post-Class Reflections of English Language Lecturers Working at a Kazakhstani University

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Abstract
This study describes post-class reflections of 10 English language lecturers working at a university located in Almaty, Kazakhstan in order to learn more about their perceptions of reflection in education and different ways they engage with teacher reflections after conducting their English as a foreign language (EFL) classes. The research design utilized multiple semi-structured, recorded interviews. The participants’ responses were grouped and analyzed through a reflection framework comprised by Hatton and Smith (1995), which discusses four types of reflections: technical, descriptive, dialogic, and critical. The findings revealed that most participants understood the concept of reflection in education similarly rather than differently. Second, the results showed that the most frequently produced single reflection type was descriptive, followed by technical, dialogic and critical. Overall, all 10 participants produced different single as well as hybrid reflection types, which was a rather important finding of this study as hybrid reflections have not yet been thoroughly explored in the research literature. The use of hybrid reflections also indicated that reflective thinking is not a linear process that can be easily categorized based on a certain reflection type. Third, the study describes a few characteristics of highly and less reflective participants. The main teaching implication entails a need for the organization of seminars focused on introducing and exploring the impact of different types of reflections on EFL teaching in higher education.

Keywords: English, reflection, teacher, university, education

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Introduction

Reflection and reflective thinking constitute the initial steps toward establishing and sustaining a reflective teaching practice, which is one of the ultimate goals for teachers willing to develop professionally. Since there is no research on how English language faculty members working at universities in Kazakhstan understand the concept of reflection in education and what kinds of reflection they engage in, the researcher of this study decided to explore these essential questions. Dewey’s (1933) definition of reflection was adopted as a working term in this study, for it is widely accepted by different educators from around the world. Dewey (1933) views reflection as “an active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds supporting it and future considerations to which it tends” (as cited in Yost et al., 2000, p. 39). Thus, this study is focused on exploring how the English language lecturers working in Kazakhstan understand and engage in reflection after teaching. More specifically, the research questions are:

1. How is the concept of “reflection” perceived by English language university lecturers working in Kazakhstan?
2. What are the different types of reflection that English language university lecturers engage in when reflecting on their teaching?
3. What common patterns emerge in the reflective comments of English language university lecturers working in Kazakhstan?

Literature Review

Although Dewey (1933) was the first to define reflection, it did not receive much attention until the 1970s and only in the 1980s did reflection become a guiding principle for teacher development in Western countries (Markham, 1999). It then continued to flourish in higher education instruction in the 1990s (Biggs, 1999; Brookfield, 1995; McAlpine et al., 1999). In general, reflection in education is understood differently in diverse academic settings. As Markham (1999) notes, it can mean “anything from general discussion of one’s methods and motivations, to rigidly prescribed analysis of the formal aspects of one’s lecturing technique, to nuanced discussions of the larger ethical and social goals of education (p. 55). Campbell-Jones and Campbell-Jones (2002) describe reflection as an “inner dialogue with oneself whereby a person calls forth experiences, beliefs and perceptions” (p. 134). For Kreber (2005), reflection is a visible and focused process that preferably produces valid knowledge and results into improved practice. Reflection and reflective practice in teaching still gain a lot of attention at present because through reflecting upon one’s own teaching, “educators achieve a higher level of awareness of how and why they teach and of the value and consequences of particular instructional decisions they make” (Richards, 2001, p. 1). Overall, reflective educators tend to develop more reflective, autonomous students who are focused on individual, responsible and continuous analysis of their own learning (Scales, 2012).

Indeed, those educators who engage in reflection demonstrate their ability to think reflectively and their effort to become reflective teachers. Reflective teachers can link theory to practice based on multiple sources of information, scrutinize one’s own practice as well as institution’s policies resulting into better teaching, appraise issues from various perspectives and apply new evidence to reevaluate decisions (Valli, 1997). Taggart (2005) identifies reflective thinking as “the process of making informed and logical decisions on educational matters, then assessing the consequences...
of those decisions” (p. 1). Such reflective thinking encourages teachers to move from being reactive, or responding only to the occurred consequences of an action, to being active, or dealing with situations on the spot, or even proactive, by preventing or foreseeing probable events and behaviors. Reflection calls on teachers to be honest with themselves and aware of both their successes and challenges. Undeniably, reflective teachers learn lessons each time they teach, evaluate what they do and use their self-critical reflections to adjust what they prepare and implement next time (Scales, 2012).

Reflection is an integral part of reflective teaching practice. But reflection is not an end in itself; it is the starting point for a teacher to ultimately engage in reflective practice, which is based on self-observation and self-evaluation generated through reflective thinking. Reflective practice helps teachers to introduce necessary changes into teaching and learning processes that will most likely result in better learning outcomes in the classroom and other work-related tasks (Scales, 2012). In Schön’s (1987) opinion, reflective practice is “a dialogue of thinking and doing through which I become more skillful” (p. 31). Later, he conceptualizes reflective practice as a critical process during which a person refines his artistry or craft in a particular discipline (Schön, 1996). Osterman and Kottkamp (1993) consider reflective practice as “a means by which practitioners can develop a greater level of self-awareness about the nature and impact of their performance, an awareness that creates opportunities for professional growth and development” (p. 2).

Methods

This qualitative study was implemented at a private, mid-sized university located in Almaty, Kazakhstan. English is used as a main language of instruction at this university that offers its educational services to a multicultural student population represented by over 20 different countries. The participants were 10 English language lecturers who work in the same language center at this university and teach various courses in the foundation and academic English programs. Six of them are local Kazakhstani faculty who speak either Kazakh or Russian as their native language and the other four are foreign educators with English, Greek or Russian as their native language. The two male and eight female participants were between 30 and 65 years of age. Their English language teaching experience ranges between 5 and 35 years. Two lecturers hold doctoral degrees, three – master’s and five – bachelor degrees. Since this research explores several qualitative questions, there was no intention to test how these independent variables may possibly affect the ways the faculty members reflect on their teaching. The data was collected in 2012-2013 through a series of semi-structured, audio-recorded interviews in which the questions allowed for a lot of flexibility for personal teaching reflections. Every participant shared their teacher reflections during two or three 20-30-minute interviews totaling to an average of 60 minutes per person. The interview questions invited the participants to reflect upon different aspects of their teaching during two or three particular lessons, and on the students’ responses to their teaching.

As for the data coding and analysis, the researcher of this study first elicited similarities and differences in the participants’ understandings of reflection so as to generate a better picture of how the English language faculty, who work at a Kazakhstani university, perceived reflection in teaching. Although people construct their own knowledge, nevertheless, the participants’ understandings of reflection were reviewed in light of Dewey’s (1933) definition in order to see how far or close these understandings were compared with his widely accepted definition of
reflection. Second, the interview data was analyzed based on the reflection framework comprised by Hatton and Smith (1995) because it is one of the seminal studies in the field, which was then followed by the research of Kane et al. (2004) and Ward (2011). On the basis of this framework, it became possible to examine whether participants focused on some particular reflection type in their teaching or used a combination of them. The technical type included teachers’ reflections on decision-making about immediate behaviors or skills and was focused on the practical skills of teaching. In addition, it involved considering how to select and implement preset lessons with simple, non-problematic objectives and outcomes. The descriptive type was characterized by Hatton and Smith (1995) as the analysis of a teacher’s performance based on certain reasons for their actions. The dialogic reflection involved “hearing one’s own voice exploring alternative ways to solve problems in a professional situation” and critical reflection was “thinking about the effects upon others of one’s actions, taking account of social, political and/or cultural forces” (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p. 45). Third, the data was analyzed in terms of common reflection patterns, which revealed several characteristics of highly and less reflective participants. Member checking was then initiated by emailing the coded reflections back to the participants for their review and approval; this procedure helped to ensure the accuracy of the results.

Results and Discussion

Participants’ perceptions of the concept of reflection in education

The first research question was focused on how the English university lecturers working in Kazakhstan understood the concept of “reflection”. In brief, the participants’ understandings of reflection pointed to a few similarities with Dewey’s (1933) definition of reflection, which is “an active, persistent, and careful consideration of any belief or supposed form of knowledge in light of the grounds supporting it and future considerations to which it tends” (p. 9). One similarity was that half of the participants stated that reflection is a persistent process and includes careful consideration of the reasons and goals of teaching decisions and actions. Another one was that all participants indicated that through reflection they usually analyze what effects their teaching and tasks have on students, whether their needs are met and whether they learn something beneficial for themselves. Interestingly enough, P7 commented that engaging in only analytical reflection is not enough in teaching; educators need to reflect on the appearance of things and take into account the so-called “feel good” factor (personal communication, 2013). In other words, an important component in teaching is to observe whether students feel good about the subject that they are learning and that the teacher helps them develop a long-term feeling of a love for the subject. Fourth, eight
participants discussed an exploration of alternatives to either teacher habitual practices or current teaching practices that could lead even to better student development and learning. Several participants distinguished different ways of reflecting on past actions, e.g., P7, P8 and P10 noted that there could be self-reflection and P4, P7 and P10 referred to peer-reflection as well. P9 also noted that there could be reflection with a supervisor, whereas P4 and P6 added than students’ responses to instructor’s feedback and reflections on completed tasks can also be used to analyze whether some learning took place. Overall, all 10 participants were not only familiar with the concept of reflection in education, they mentioned that reflections helped them analyze their teaching and students’ learning. Moreover, most of them highlighted that reflections helped them explore better alternatives to current practices.

**Participants’ reflective comments arranged by specific reflection types and frequency of usage**

Figure 1 depicts the participants’ frequency of using different single types of reflection in their post-class reviews and reflections. Overall, the largest number of reflective comments for any single participant was 11 (P1, P2, P8 and P9), the smallest number of provided reflections was five (P6); the average number of reflective units during an hour-long interview per participant was nine reflections.

The results from the analysis of transcribed interviews demonstrate evidence that all 10 English language lecturers engage in different types of reflection after their classes. The largest proportion of coded units (52%) was descriptive reflection, which turned out to be the most common type of reflection, followed by technical (36%), dialogic (9%), and critical (3%). Based on the results of the study, it became evident that most participants were mainly engaged with descriptive and technical types of reflection. This indicates that quite a few participants tended to analyze their own performance and give reasons for their actions, which also corresponds with their understandings of reflection where analysis of own teaching is part of reflection.
During the coding process, the researcher of this study also noticed that some participants’ reflective comments represented some sort of a mixture of different reflection types. These were categorized under different hybrid types of reflection, e.g., technical/descriptive, descriptive/dialogic, dialogic/critical or another type, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Frequency of participants’ reflective comments by hybrid types of reflection

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participant</th>
<th>Hybrid type of reflection</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P1</td>
<td>De/T/C</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P2</td>
<td>T/De, T/C, De/Di(4), De/C, Di/C(2)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P3</td>
<td>T/De</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P4</td>
<td>De/Di</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P5</td>
<td>De/Di</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P6</td>
<td>None</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P7</td>
<td>T/De(3), T/De/Di, De/Di(3), Di/C(2)</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P8</td>
<td>T/De(3), T/Di, De/C(2)</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P9</td>
<td>T/De(2), De/Di(3), De/C</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>P10</td>
<td>T/De</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* T: Technical; De: Descriptive; Di: Dialogic; C: Critical.

The total sum of the participants’ reflective comments arranged by the single and hybrid types of reflection revealed more accurate results in terms of participant reflectivity. The more reflective educators were P2 (20 comments), P7 (18 comments), P8 (17 comments) and P9 (17 comments). Among these participants, three were foreign and one was a local faculty member. The average level of the produced reflections was demonstrated by P1 (12 comments), P10 (10 comments) and P4 (9 comments). The least reflective participants turned out to be P3 (8 comments), P5 (8 comments) and P6 (5 comments).

Having considered both single and hybrid reflection types, it transpired that all participants demonstrated frequent engagement in technical reflection (see Figure 1 and Table 1). In other words, they examined their “use of essential skills or generic competencies as often applied in controlled, small scale settings” that are based on some research or theory, “but always interpreted in light of personal worries and previous experience” (Hatton & Smith, 1995, p. 45). However, the participants did not just simply direct their actions toward a straightforward implementation of tasks that are based on some externally imposed criteria. In other words, the participants, both local and foreign educators, did not use some prescriptive way to teach, as might be assumed and expected from technical reflectors (Valli, 1997). Indeed, although the participants followed the course syllabus objectives, their actions and decisions were not rigorously determined by either the syllabus criteria or other educational policies. For instance, P4 asserted that “if I need more time to spend on one aspect of learning the language, I will definitely spend the time to let the student do it regardless of time limits set in the course syllabus or other documents” (personal communication, 2013). Thus, they exercised enough academic freedom to decide how they can help learners develop the outcomes outlined in the syllabi, why they want to teach some particular
skill or piece of knowledge, select appropriate materials and means to achieve the course and their objectives and then, after review and reflection, undertake necessary follow-up actions in terms of their teaching and student learning.

As for dialogic and critical reflections, only some participants demonstrated their use during the interview processes. For example, the most reflective educators in terms of dialogic type of reflection were P2 and P7 (see Figure 1) who often stepped back from their actions, began their discussion with self, explored experiences and events in detail and employed or at least suggested possible solutions to some problematic situations that had either arisen in the classroom or were related to teaching and learning during some particular academic period. Other participants, particularly P4 and P5, occasionally reflected dialogically (see Figure 1 and Table 1). As for the use of critical reflection, only P2 and P7 and sometimes P1, P8 and P9 thought about the effects of their teaching on student learning within broader contexts, e.g., the students’ use of developed academic skills in their current or future cross-disciplinary studies as well as future careers and personal lives in general (see Figure 1 and Table 1).

**Characteristics of highly and less reflective participants**

A few interesting patterns characterizing highly and less reflective participants have emerged during the analysis procedure. One characteristic of the former was that they used more than one reflection type simultaneously in the same context, so these hybrid reflective comments were placed separately from Hatton and Smith’s (1995) four-type reflection classification framework. Indeed, some participants sometimes reflected on some task, both technically and descriptively, descriptively and dialogically, or in some other combination. For example, P8 focused on the analysis of practical skills of teaching and the best possible practice for the learners in light of personal worries and previous experience when reflecting on decision-making, grading and student learning:

> Well, I didn’t make any big resolutions or decisions, the class was succeeding well reinforcing the idea that I like teaching academic speaking and I like teaching academic debate… By the way, this was the final today, but notice that the students were not nervous because we’ve built gradually towards this you know the goal of doing a full debate. And we don’t emphasize the grading, so the motivation becomes more intrinsic and I think that works really well. I’ve been deemphasizing grading and emphasizing process, sort of self-mastery and also intellectual challenge and I think that works better than saying this is 2.7 of your final grade, which doesn’t mean anything. So saying to the student this is a really interesting topic that has been debated by philosophers and psychologists, and now you are part of this debate you know, so sort of appealing to them more intellectually rather than this is a grade that’s worth a fraction of this fraction of that fraction of your time, the total grade point average, which does not appeal to the adult learners (P8, personal communication, April 26, 2013)

P7 demonstrated the use of technical, descriptive and dialogic types of reflections when s/he speculated about alternative ways of presenting a task to the students (seeking the best possible practice) based on discovery learning, which was drawn from previous research and their own teaching experience in the past. This reflection emphasized P7’s realistic teaching goals and
student learning that occurred in the classroom. It also showed reflective considerations on how the practiced task can be done alternatively to achieve even better learning outcomes and immediate reaction to this reflection, which was redesigning the task the same day and saving changes for use in subsequent courses.

Some other highly reflective participants began their reflections with some description and then developed them into dialogic reflections. It turned out that the descriptive part often served to establish the situational context and was the basis for the exploration of further issues, alternative reasons and solutions. For instance, P2 first analyzed the reason for undertaking some specific role in the classroom and then elaborated on alternative reasons for teaching decisions and actions illustrated with an example of how the lecturer had coped with a particular situation. The simultaneous combined use of descriptive and dialogic reflection types was also found in the responses of P9, where the lecturer described and explained an in-class problem and engaged in an internal dialogue regarding what happened in the classroom, the outcomes of that action and further considerations and solutions to the problem.

One similarity found in the reflections of less reflective participants was the presence of undeveloped reflections, which were not included in the results because the lecturers did not elaborate on their observations, intentions and actions. For example, P6 did not explain why and how she tried to make the students understand that they were responsible for their learning and whether there was some specific evidence that this understanding actually took place. In addition to P4’s coded reflections, she also demonstrated potential for other reflections, but did not actually develop them. Once P4 did not elaborate on why she thought that her task was “to make them think and to make them speak”; P4 just stated this and described personal actions and students’ performance in the classroom without trying to explore it from a teacher’s reflective perspective. Similarly, when P1 commented, “Well, I liked this mode [reflecting on her own teaching]. I tend to resent long lectures, which are unavoidable sometimes, but I do enjoy the classes where the students get you know involved,” it was not coded as reflective because there was no full analysis and explanation of why P1 tried to avoid lecturing for a long time and why she likes classes with student involvement (personal communication, July 26, 2012).

Another observation about less reflective participants was that they often referred to their general methodology without linking it to some particular classroom situation and then reflecting upon them. The researcher of this study had to carefully distinguish those excerpts when the participants were talking about their methodology, teaching intentions and general teaching practices from those that had reflective thoughts on some particular situations or had both general principles and their specific applications in action. Learning about the participants’ methodological principles and generalities was interesting because the researcher also shared most of the participants’ teaching views; however, these comments were not examples of reflection. For example, by talking about general teaching goals and methods to meet the students’ needs in the best possible way, P1 provided very interesting, descriptive methodological comments, which did include further specific illustrations and reflections on some specific cases. Similarly, P6 showed much concern about students’ learning and explained how she always enquired about their comprehension of different tasks, but this educator did not link her explanation with a specific example. In general, P6 commented that this enquiry helped to realize what was done and what
should be revised for future lessons. Indeed, those were valuable remarks, but they were not coded as reflective because of their focus on general teaching methods and lack of connection with some particular situation.

**Conclusion and Teaching Implications**

In general, the study did explore and locate some interesting findings in response to its three research questions. First, it shed more light on how English language lecturers working at a Kazakhstani university perceived the concept of “reflection” in teaching: reflection helped the participants of this study to analyze the effects of their teaching on student learning and to explore alternative teaching practices. All participants were aware of the importance of using reflection in their teaching and, in fact, demonstrated personal engagement with reflection during the interviews.

Second, following Hatton and Smith’s (1995) reflection framework, the researcher found that the most frequently used single reflection type was descriptive meaning that the participants often analyzed their performance in the professional role and gave reasons for implemented actions. The technical reflection type was also quite common as the participants were often concerned about their immediate behaviors or skills related to some practical skills of teaching and often referred to their past experience and/or some existing theory in order to make a teaching decision. As for the dialogic and critical reflection types, they were used least frequently and only by a few participants. Moreover, several participants mixed different reflections when talking about the same situation, so such reflective comments were categorized as different hybrid types of reflection, e.g., technical/descriptive, descriptive/dialogic, dialogic/critical or another type. An interesting finding was that although some participants did not engage in some single reflection type, they actually did an even better job when reflecting on the same situation from different reflection perspectives, e.g., exploring its reasons and then considering various alternative ways to solve or improve something in their teaching in order to obtain better learning outcomes. So, this study actually confirms the general statement that thinking is a complex process, it is not linear and cannot be straightforwardly broken into several specific categories.

Third, several patterns were located in the reflections and interviews of highly and less reflective participants. The former used more complex, hybrid reflection types in the same context and often used descriptive reflections as a basis for more challenging problem-solving dialogic reflections. The latter had some undeveloped or potentially-reflective comments meaning that the participants did not analyze some specific part of their teaching in detail, but just mentioned a task and their teaching actions. In addition, less reflective participants referred to and described their general methodology, which is certainly a crucial part of teaching, but they neither linked it to some particular classroom situation, nor reflected on it.

As for the teaching implications, this research has demonstrated that English language university lecturers are aware of the importance of incorporating reflection into their teaching and students’ learning, but they reflect differently in terms of frequency, types and/or levels of reflection. Moreover, since most participants did not mention any specific reflection type, there is some uncertainty as to whether they are aware of them and realize how such awareness and the ability to differentiate personal reflections can help them to explore their teaching from different...
reflective perspectives, even more purposefully and confidently. Based on this, language centers, academic departments and lecturers themselves might consider initiating seminars to explore the concept of reflection in detail including its meaning, manifold types of reflection and their impact on teaching and learning. Such exchanges of understandings and perceptions of various reflection levels will most likely enhance educators’ awareness of the diverse nature of reflections, and their understanding of their own reflections. Furthermore, such seminars could focus educators’ attention towards engaging more in dialogical, critical reflections, and hybrid reflection types for different professional purposes. Hopefully, more educators will be placing reflection at the center of their teaching, reconciling necessary dimensions of their teaching and establishing professional excellence because indeed “the way in which the participants think about and understand their own practice through purposeful reflection…has led to their development of excellence” (Kane et al., 2004, p. 304).

Overall, this pilot study not only answered the research questions in terms of existing knowledge about English lecturers’ reflections in teaching, but added some new findings such as the use of hybrid reflections and its insufficient exploration in current research and several characteristics of highly and less reflective educators. Conducting similar future studies with larger participant groups in Kazakhstan and other Central Asian countries will reveal a more general picture of how other English language lecturers working at local universities engage in reflection after their classes. Furthermore, future research might focus on exploring the use of educators’ hybrid reflections and their effects on their teaching and learning of the English language.

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References


The Significance of Teacher Leadership in TESOL: A Theoretical Perspective

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Abstract
This paper reviews literature on the notion of teacher leadership to ascertain what skills, knowledge and competencies teachers require to assume leadership roles in educational institutions. The historical evolution of teacher leadership through various phases gives useful insights into how this concept has emerged, developed and perceived in different educational contexts and how it appears in today’s institutions around the world. The definitions of teacher leadership delineate various features of teachers’ roles, responsibilities and their expected contribution to organisational effectiveness while operating in a wide range of formal and informal leadership roles. Review of the literature also shows the significance of leadership knowledge and skills for the academic leadership positions that need to be fostered in a school context. Moreover, it highlights factors that might hinder the emergence of teacher leadership in academic institutions. The last section of this paper indicates a void in the literature on the issue of teacher leadership in the field of Teaching of English to the Speakers of Other Languages (TESOL) that also directs researchers’ endeavours towards investigating this concept in the context of English language teaching.

Keywords: Leadership knowledge and skills, teacher leadership roles, teacher leadership in TESOL

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1. Introduction

The 21st century teachers are not merely classroom instructors, but are expected to perform a wide range of leadership roles to cater to the needs of learners, teachers, and teaching profession. These roles include resource providers, instructional specialists, curriculum specialists, classroom supporters, learning facilitators, mentors, school team leaders, and data coaches (Harrison & Killion, 2007). Owing to these different roles, teachers in schools are called teacher leaders and the execution of their leadership roles is perceived as teacher leadership. Although the roles vary in nature and function, the key aims of teacher leadership remain the same that are to model effective practices, exercise influence in formal and informal settings and promote collaborative team structures within their schools. Despite an emphasis on teacher leadership in educational settings, teachers often lack skills and competencies to assume leadership roles and thus require to enhance their repertoire of leadership skills and contribute to organisational effectiveness. Therefore, it is essential to identify potential leaders in schools or seek the support of those who would accept the added responsibility of leadership roles. Such volunteers with urge to perform leadership roles are in a better position to foster collaborative practices and create a learning environment for learners and teachers in their institutions.

Transforming schools into learning organisations is one of the key goals of teacher leadership. As top-down management models have failed to deliver in this respect, teacher leadership through distributed responsibilities and more autonomous practices can meet the demands of the 21st century education. Educators around the world have come to this realisation that teachers can perform beyond their classroom tasks and work as lead teachers in their schools. Nevertheless, teachers would need to acquire cutting-edge knowledge of leadership practices and develop certain leadership skills to play their active role beyond the classroom boundaries and influence their colleagues, team members, principles and other stakeholders in their organisations. This paper reviews the concepts of teacher leadership mainly in the US and UK contexts and highlights its significance in the educational settings around the world. It also indicates a lack of empirical research in the field of TESOL on the topic of teacher leadership.

2. The evolution of teacher leadership

Teacher leadership is not a novel concept and is widely discussed in the literature with a focus on improving educational practices (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). The term ‘teacher leadership’ first appeared in 1916 in John Dewey’s writing, in which he proposed teachers’ active role in school governance. However, in recent times it emanated from the 1980s educational reform movement in the USA (Rackley, 2006). Although teacher leadership cannot be chronologically linked to a strict timeline, it has continued to develop through three evolutionary waves, as discussed by Silva, Gimbert and Nolan (2000). These three waves of teacher leadership (Table 1) provide a valuable insight into how this concept developed in various educational contexts around the world and specifically in the US schools.
Table 1. The historical evolution of teacher leadership

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher leadership evolution</th>
<th>Focus of Wave</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>First wave</strong></td>
<td>Administrative leaders, i.e. head teachers, master teachers, department heads</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Second wave</strong></td>
<td>Instructional leaders, i.e. PD specialists, curriculum experts, mentors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Third wave</strong></td>
<td>Team leaders, change agents, advocates of collaborative and shared leadership practices</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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*Adapted from Silva et al. (2000, p. 1-3)*

The first wave began in the early 1980s when teachers performed managerial and formal roles, such as department chair, master teacher and union representative, with top-down authority. The chief criticism of this wave is that these roles implied power structures that led to separation between teachers and leaders. In addition, strong bureaucratic principles resulted in managerialism and tight supervision of teachers and teacher leaders with a purpose to ‘further the efficiency of school operations’ (York-Barr & Duke, 2004, p. 260). Although teachers gained power and influence as leaders, this system threatened the traditional hierarchy of control as they were removed from their classrooms to fulfill hierarchical roles and replace administrators. On the other hand, teachers perceived them as an extension of the traditional administrators (Evans, 1996), whose aim was “[not] to change practice but to ensure the efficiency and effectiveness of the existing system” (Wasley, 1991, p. 4). Sams (2010) reveals that, in western schools, TESOL professionals during this time suffered from low job status in public education which denied many ESL teachers the opportunity to be in leadership positions.

The second wave of teacher leadership arose in the late 1980s in response to the limitations of the first one. It ‘acknowledged the importance of teachers as instructional leaders’ (Silva et al., 2000, p. 780). The pedagogical knowledge and expertise of teachers allowed them to assume more instructional leadership roles rather than administrative responsibilities. These instructional leadership roles were formal in nature and included positions such as team leaders, curriculum developers, professional development specialists and teacher mentors. According to Silva et al. (2000), these positions indicate the continuation of hierarchical roles. For instance, in the UK context, Frost and Harris (2003) carried out an analysis of the policy, research and theoretical perspectives with regard to the concept of teacher leadership, which established that teacher leadership in the second wave was a direct result of schools’ existing hierarchical culture and leadership (as cited in Sanocki, 2013). In addition, teachers were perceived as middle managers with no objective of transformation or change. Similarly, in the US context, teachers’ pedagogical knowledge and expertise were acknowledged; however, their leadership roles were still apart from and not a part of teachers’ daily work and these individuals were released at least part-time from their classroom teaching (Wigington, 1992).

The third wave emerged in the 1990s and was considered the emerging form of teacher leadership (York-Barr & Duke, 2004). This form of teacher leadership is still evolving in educational organisations around the world. In contrast to the other two waves, this wave focused on teachers’ daily work as part of their leadership role and aimed to improve the teaching
profession and contribute to institutional reforms. According to York-Barr and Duke (2004), these efforts lead to collaborative cultures in schools where instructional improvement and continuous learning take place at the same time. A major criticism of this wave is that it becomes difficult to distinguish between the second and third waves of teacher leadership since teachers are seen as leaders both within and beyond their classrooms (Kelley, 2011), which can at times result in ambiguities.

By the time the third wave emerged, TESOL had established itself as a field and had recognised issues of professionalism. Consequently, ESL instructors had opportunities to participate in collaborative activities (Sams, 2010). However, their identity as teacher leaders was still not developed.

Similar to the historical evolution of teacher leadership described by Silva et al. (2000), Leonard, Petta and Porter (2012) quote Harris (2005) who identified three developmental phases. First, formal positions, in which teachers are promoted from a teaching position to a department head or principal of a school. Secondly, instructional leadership positions, such as that of curriculum developer, are assigned to teachers based on their pedagogical expertise and skills. In the third and most recent phase, teachers are “viewed as central to the process of generating organisational development and change through their collaborative and instructional endeavors and efforts” (Harris, 2005, p. 206). These three developmental stages can be used to conceptualise teacher leadership and its key characteristics in various contexts.

3. Definitions of teacher leadership

Although a plethora of definitions exists, some scholars believe that defining ‘teacher leadership’ is no easy task as its meaning and function vary from context to context. According to Muijs and Harris (2003), this is a complicated process as several definitions abound and the literature divulges overlapping and competing constructs. This wide variation is discussed by Leonard et al. (2012), who believe that most of the evolving definitions of teacher leadership reflect writers’ ideals rather than the reality of contexts around the world. In a seminal work charting the development of teacher leadership as a concept from 1980 to 2000, York-Barr and Duke (2004) reviewed 41 studies that investigated teacher leadership over the past 25 years. They found a lack of consensus on a definition of ‘teacher leadership’ that could serve as a foundation in empirical research. However, disagreement among scholars aside, various interpretations and explanations by notable authors can enhance our understanding of the teacher leadership concept.

In Frost’s (2010) view, teacher leadership refers to “taking the initiative to improve practice, acting strategically with colleagues to embed change, gathering and using evidence in collaborative processes, contributing to the creation and dissemination of professional knowledge” (p.210). In order to improve practice and transform teaching and learning, teacher leaders often need to possess expertise in specific areas, i.e. curriculum, professional development and assessment. Swanson, Elliott and Harmon (2011) argue that teacher leadership is the combination of “knowledge, skills and dispositions demonstrated by teachers” to further the efficacy of school operations (p. 153). In the same way, Bangs and MacBeath (2012) emphasise the core capabilities of teacher leaders and concisely define the concept of teacher leadership:
Most typically it refers to teachers’ individual agency, often with reference to classroom management and pedagogy but in some cases referring to wider collegial influence with colleagues, with curriculum development and policy-making within or across schools. As well as being cast as an individual activity, teacher leadership may also refer to groups or teams of teachers with a leadership remit for aspects of policy and practice. (p. 331)

The definition by Bangs and MacBeath (2012) has the characteristics of transformative leaders who “enable their colleagues to do things that they wouldn’t ordinarily do on their own to improve their professional practice” (Wasley, 1991, p. 4). This resonates with Murphy’s (2005, p. 15) views that teacher leadership has an enabling component that is specifically about the collegial influence from teacher leaders for enhanced professional practices. York-Barr and Duke (2004) further elucidate the concept by considering teacher leadership: “the process by which teachers, individually or collectively, influence their colleagues, principals, and other members of school communities to improve teaching and learning practices with the aim of increased student learning and achievement” (p. 287–288). In a similar way, for Kenreich (2002) a teacher leader is one “…who not only leads colleagues in professional development but also employs advocacy skills outside of the classroom to lobby stakeholders for educational reform initiatives” (p. 383).

Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) refer to the construct of teacher leadership as “a sleeping giant” (p. 2) and believe that teacher leaders’ lead within and beyond the classroom, identify with and contribute to a community of teacher learners and leaders, and influence others towards improved educational practice (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001, p. 17). The idea of contribution to the community of teacher leaders resonates with Lave and Wenger’s (1991) notion of ‘community of practice’ (CoP) that encourages distributed practices benefiting everyone in the group. Lave and Wenger (1991) define CoP as “a system of relationships [among] people, activities, and the world; developing with time and in relation to other tangential and overlapping communities of practice” (p. 98). Wenger (1998) states that schools with a goal to create a learning environment have to value all kinds of collaboration, including teacher leadership. This emphasises the pivotal role of shared, collaborative and participatory practices among teachers and teacher leaders in educational institutions. Moreover, it indicates teacher leaders’ sense of responsibility towards colleagues’ learning and development. With an emphasis on collegiality, Suranna and Moss (1999) state that “a teacher leader is one who can take his or her qualities, and share them with other teachers for the good of the students” (p. 9). Similarly, Danielson (2006) believes that teacher leaders in a collaborative relationship with colleagues inspire others and persuade them to accept professional challenges and address the problems in a cooperative manner. In Bangs and MacBeath’s (2012) opinion teacher leadership refers to “teachers’ individual agency, often with reference to classroom management and pedagogy but in some cases referring to wider collegial influence with colleagues, with curriculum development and policy-making within or across schools. As well as being cast as an individual activity, teacher leadership may also refer to groups or teams of teachers with a leadership remit for aspects of policy and practice” (p. 331).

The definitions of teacher leadership by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) and York-Barr and Duke (2004) fit in the context of the current study. For example, teacher leaders at the ELI lead within and beyond the classroom premises and are not completely detached from classroom
teaching. In addition, their leadership roles are assigned to them in the light of pedagogical and professional expertise which enable them to influence their colleagues, work together towards a common goal and achieve institutional outcomes.

These definitions by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) and York-Barr and Duke (2004) consider the organisational context and its members to be key to the successful implementation of pedagogical and administrative plans. To be more specific, the main concerns of teacher leaders are to ensure enhanced instructional outcomes, create positive relationships with staff and students, and provide enabling conditions for others to learn. However, as Gabriel (2005) points out teacher leaders have to think creatively in order to achieve their stated goals because they often lack power to influence others or implement their own decisions:

Teacher leaders possess a semblance of authority but no formal power—only the illusion of power. For example, a department chair cannot complete teacher evaluations. She cannot place a memo or letter in someone’s personnel file, nor can she dismiss a teacher. As a result, she must find other ways to motivate, mobilize, and lead teachers. She must rely on intrinsic leadership abilities, knowledge of group dynamics, influence, respect, and leadership by example to boost the productivity of her department. (Gabriel, 2005, p. 2)

The above quote indicates a shortcoming of teacher leadership as teacher leaders, despite being in key middle-level leadership positions and equipped with knowledge and expertise, cannot have decision-making powers. In the TESOL field, however, there is lack of research on the issue of teacher leader autonomy and how it impacts teacher leadership roles.

Angelle and Schmid (2007) studied teacher leadership from the perspective of teachers and school leaders, applying identity theory to better comprehend the difference between what university researchers recognized as teacher leadership and what is perceived by the teachers themselves. Angelle and Schmid identified five categories for teacher leadership: a) teacher as decision-maker, educational role-model, positional designee, supra-practitioner, and visionary. Their participants defined teacher leadership mainly in terms of “an educational role model” while not considering it a positional designee (p. 780). For respondents, role-model was an ‘exemplary teacher’ and they define teacher leadership by naming personal characteristics, such as charisma or influence, rather than the process for leadership (p. 784–785). The authors concluded that teacher leadership was perceived in the lived context of the individual school, and for these rural schools in the Southeastern US, teacher leadership was described in terms of a person’ (Angelle & Schmid, 2007, p. 793).

Teacher leadership has often been associated with conceptions of distributed leadership as York-Barr and Duke called ‘teacher leadership situated in other conceptions of leadership’ (2004, p. 261). Lieberman and Miller defined teacher leadership as a ‘cosmopolitan response’ that ‘enable[s] good practice rather than prescribe[s] it’ (2005, p. 153).
4. Teacher leader roles
Most of the literature on teacher leader roles in school settings comes from the US context (e.g., Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001; York-Barr & Duke, 2004). Teachers as leaders can take various roles in different domains which may be categorised into formal or informal roles. In formal roles, teachers undertake managerial and pedagogical responsibilities (Muijs et al., 2013) which are in line with the first and second waves of teacher leadership respectively. Such roles include department chairs, mentors, coaches, curriculum reformers, instructional leaders and subject coordinators who aim to implement decisions taken at a strategic level and find ways of encouraging staff to conform (Margolis & Doring, 2012; Thompson & Wolstencroft, 2015). On the other hand, informal leadership roles, which align well with the third wave of teacher leadership, involve teacher leaders in collegial tasks not only contributing to organisational improvement, but also to the professional learning of their colleagues. These roles include peer coaching, leading a new team, setting up action research groups and assisting in the development of school curricula (Katzenmeyer & Moller, 2001).

York-Barr and Duke (2004) have identified four key roles which can be linked to the first and second waves of teacher leadership: teacher leaders as middle managers, curriculum experts, staff developers, and mentors of new teachers. In these roles, teacher leaders as middle managers often perform operational duties similar to the first wave, such as maintaining records, preparing evaluation reports etc. The other three roles require knowledge and expertise in a particular area, a feature of the second wave.

Watt et al. (2010) admit that ‘it is difficult to define what makes a teacher a teacher leader’ (p. 549), as the roles of teacher leaders are not perceived in a traditional way as most of these roles were previously held by only the principal. On the other hand, teachers’ participation in school-level policy-making activities and decision-making process constitute a partial operational definition of the teacher leader (Darling-Hammond, 1997; Gonzalez & Lambert, 2014). Nonetheless, it is essential for teachers to display proficiency and efficiency in various areas of the organisational functions to operate as effective leaders, such as pedagogical knowledge, collegiality, knowledge of educational contexts, continuous learning etc. (Fullan, 1994).

Since leadership is considered a context-specific phenomenon, teacher leaders’ roles might be perceived and applied differently in different contexts. For instance, the way teachers perform their leadership roles in the UK, may be difficult to imagine in Saudi schools, largely due to cultural dissimilarities. Nevertheless, 10 key factors influence the emergence and maintenance of teacher leadership:

(1) supportive culture, (2) supportive structures, (3) strong leadership …, (4) commitment to action enquiry and data richness, (5) innovative forms of professional development, (6) co-ordinated improvement efforts, (7) high levels of teacher participation and involvement, (8) collective creativity, (9) shared professional practice, [and] (10) recognition and reward. (Muijs & Harris 2006, p. 967).

In the most recent work on teacher leadership in TESOL domain, Baecher (2012) believes that the concept of ‘teacher leadership’ is better understood and valued than ever before. Authors
see school reform as a push towards a paradigm of distributive leadership (Leverett, 2002), in which teachers share leadership responsibilities and participate in decision-making processes. Baecher (2012) summarises these roles in schools:

(1) improves teacher quality, and hence student learning, as accomplished teachers serve as models of practice for colleagues (York-Barr and Duke 2004);
(2) supports reform efforts, by guiding colleagues through implementation of new practices (Childs-Bowen et al. 2000);
(3) encourages the retention and recruitment of teachers through providing avenues for motivation and recognition (Hirsch 2006);
(4) provides opportunities for teacher leaders’ ongoing professional growth (Barth 2002);
(5) creates a more democratic school environment (Harris 2003);
(6) increases the sense of professionalism among teachers (Hinchey 1997);
(7) extends teachers’ influence beyond the school and into the district (Danielson 2007); and
(8) extends principal capacity by reducing principals’ workload (Barth 2001). (p. 317).

Teacher leadership Exploratory Consortium (2010) delineates seven domains that helps in understanding the roles and responsibilities of teacher leaders in a school setting.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain 1</th>
<th>Understanding adults as learners to support professional learning communities</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Facilitates group processes to solve problems, make decisions, promote change</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>• Works to create an inclusive cohort of colleagues who share resources and trust each other</td>
<td></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain 2</th>
<th>Accessing and using research to improve practice and student achievement</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Assists colleagues in accessing research and student learning data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Facilitates analysis of student data and application of findings to revise instructional strategies</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain 3</th>
<th>Promoting professional learning for continuous improvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Provides feedback to colleagues to strengthen teaching practice and improve student learning</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Identifies and promotes a variety of professional learning based on colleagues’ learning needs</td>
<td></td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain 4</th>
<th>Facilitating improvements in instruction and student learning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Supports colleagues’ growth by serving in roles such as mentor, coach, content facilitator or peer evaluator</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Serves as a team leader to harness the skills, expertise, and knowledge of colleagues</td>
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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Domain 5</th>
<th>Using assessments and data for school and district improvement</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>• Facilitates teams of teachers in scoring and interpreting student performance data</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>• Works with colleagues to use assessment and data findings to recommend potential changes in organizational structure or practice</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2. Domains of teacher leadership.
Domain 6
Improving outreach and collaboration with families and communities
- Uses knowledge of different backgrounds, ethnicities, cultures and languages to promote effective interactions with families
- Facilitates colleagues’ self-examination of their own understandings of community culture and diversity

Domain 7
Advocating for student learning and the profession
- Advocates for the rights and needs of students, to secure additional resources for student learning
- Represents the profession in contexts outside of the classroom

Adapted from Teacher Leadership Exploratory Consortium (2010).

5. The significance of leadership knowledge

Literature on educational leadership highlights the significance of leadership knowledge for educational leaders. Robinson, Loyd and Rowe (2008) note that leadership knowledge is essential and educational leaders must be knowledgeable about professional development and adult learning theories to contribute to the development of their institutions. Literature suggests a variety of knowledge that can facilitate teacher leader roles. For example, Levenson (2014) emphasises that “teacher leaders must be knowledgeable about how to mobilize colleagues who may not share their enthusiasm for yet another change initiative” (p. 100). On the significance of leadership knowledge, Backor and Gordon (2015) found that instructional leaders needed to develop knowledge about cultural diversity of the workplace. They also considered knowledge about instructional practices and top-notch technology important for the successful operation of leadership roles in educational institutions. Similarly, Le Fevre and Robinson (2014) believe that leaders with inadequate content knowledge about educational theories and practices will be reluctant to observe teachers and give them feedback. Siegmyer (2012) also considered content and contextual knowledge significant for teacher leadership. On this subject, Knight and Trowler (2001) propose seven different types of leadership and management knowledge, which may support academic leaders in their roles. Inman (2007, p. 60-62) has succinctly summarised them as:

Control knowledge: Gaining control knowledge means knowing about self, which is learnt through reflection or working with others in leadership teams. This process emphasises the role of reflection and community of practice discussed in Section 3.7.1, which offers individuals an opportunity to learn from each other’s experiences and contribute to the community of leaders.

Knowledge of people: To gain knowledge of the people, one needs to possess interpersonal skills that lead to collaboration and collegiality and facilitate consensus over different decisions. This form of knowledge can also be obtained through workshops, mentoring and discussions.

Knowledge of educational practices: This is a key to successful academic leadership which can be acquired through involvement in formal leadership activities. However, relevant courses, reading literature or colleagues’ support and advice can also help to “gain, maintain and use educational knowledge appropriately” (Knight & Trowler, 2001, p. 168). This process involves personal effort on the part of teacher leaders to create opportunities for themselves in their workplace and to pursue their professional development.
Conceptual knowledge refers to knowing about management and leadership concepts and research. Conceptual and process knowledge can be gained through management and leadership courses based on the teacher leaders’ needs (Knight & Trowler, 2001). This requires needs analysis of the leaders and leadership roles, practices and context, which address the compatibility of programmes and courses in educational institutions.

Situational knowledge helps in understanding contingencies that have made the faculty what it is and what it might be in future. It helps individuals with understanding of situations in their schools.

Tacit knowledge integrates these six forms of knowledge in the expert practice of educational leaders.

More on leadership knowledge, Lovett, Dempster and Flückiger (2015) propose a heuristic tool to guide personal leadership learning, which is a device that helps individuals observe, investigate, experiment and discover new leadership knowledge (p.131). They divide this tool into five focal points which are elaborated in Table 3.

Table 3. A heuristic tool to guide personal leadership learning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Focal Point</th>
<th>Knowledge Required</th>
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</table>
| 1: Pedagogy – leaders learning about teaching and learning | Leaders should have a minimum knowledge of:  
  • growth, learning and development across the lifespan, particularly of students and teachers;  
  • effective strategies for teacher professional development;  
  • the rationale for and how to plan, coordinate, implement, monitor and evaluate teaching and learning;  
  • the kind of data to gather and how to conduct evidence-informed professional conversations about teaching and learning. |
| 2: People – learning about those with whom leaders work | Leaders should have knowledge of:  
  • communication, including coaching and mentoring that enhances working relationships;  
  • how to structure schools so that teachers, support personnel and relevant others operate as learning communities;  
  • how and when to distribute tasks to engage others in leadership;  
  • how to identify leadership talent and assist others to develop. |
| 3: Place – leaders learning about the educational context | Leaders should have knowledge of:  
  • international issues and their possible impact on practice;  
  • national reforms, policies and programmes and their effects on schools; |
4: System – leaders learning about the education system

Leaders should have knowledge of:
- the education system’s mandated policy, programme and procedural agenda;
- the specific curriculum and assessment requirements of the system;
- when and where leader discretion can be exercised;
- tactics that aid discretionary decision-making;
- system and peer networks that facilitate learning relationships.

5: Self-learning about ‘me’, the leader

Leaders should have knowledge of:
- one’s own personal professional moral position;
- one’s own professional ethics and related personal values;
- tensions between system compliance and personal preference with respect to leadership decisions;
- personal strengths and weaknesses with regard to educational leadership.

Adapted from Lovett et al. (2015, p. 132-138).

In the direction of self-learning, Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) developed a leadership readiness assessment tool, founded on four key questions: ‘Who am I?’ (Understanding self); ‘Where am I?’ (Understanding school environment); ‘How can I lead?’ (Developing leadership skills); and ‘What do I do?’ (Application of leadership). These four questions may help teachers to reflect on and assess their leadership skills and develop themselves as leaders, as the focus is both on learning how to lead and fostering leadership abilities.

The types of educational leadership knowledge reviewed in this section is summarised in Table 4. Their role in the professional development and leadership effectiveness of academic leaders is undeniable. However, there is dearth of empirical evidence on the practical role of leadership knowledge for teacher leaders in mainstream education and in the field of TESOL. Thus, it is significant to identify what types of leadership knowledge teacher leaders in ESL/EFL context need to possess.

Table 4. Knowledge required for academic leadership roles

| 1. Leadership/management knowledge |
| 2. Knowledge of adult learning theories |
| 3. Knowledge about mobilising colleagues |
| 4. Content knowledge |
| 5. Contextual knowledge |
| 6. Knowledge of culture & workplace |
| 7. Control knowledge |
| 8. Knowledge of people |
6. Skills required for teacher leadership

As teacher leaders can have a wide range of roles, it is important to discern what types of skills they need to possess in order to be effective in leadership positions. First and foremost, pedagogical excellence of teachers is considered a key to effective teacher leadership as “one cannot be an effective teacher leader if one is not first an accomplished teacher” (Odell, 1997, p. 122). Lack of knowledge about classroom practices or lack of credibility as a teacher might negatively influence teacher leader roles. According to Snell and Swanson (2000) and York-Barr and Duke (2004), expertise as a classroom teacher is a critical aspect of teacher leadership, which gives a teacher credibility among peers and colleagues. Hence, teacher leadership is a means by which credible teachers exercise influence over supervisors, colleagues and members of the school community through shared or collaborative relationships that advance pedagogical practices (Poekert, 2012). The review of literature by York-Barr and Duke up to 2004 indicates that “teachers who lead are respected as teachers by their colleagues and administrators. They assume a learning orientation in their work and demonstrate or are viewed as having the potential to develop leadership knowledge, skills, and dispositions” (p.289).

Besides pedagogical expertise, Tomal et al. (2014) point out that teacher leaders should be skilled in areas, such as “mentoring and coaching teachers, leading and motivating staff, improving curriculum instructions, managing resources, building collaboration, managing school change, communicating to staff, conducting teacher evaluation, and building community relations” (p.26).

Literature gives a useful insight into various other skills that can facilitate teacher leadership roles. For instance, interpersonal and intrapersonal skills are important for teacher leaders in school contexts (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007). For ELT professionals in leadership roles, key skills are; time and self-management, ability to collaborate, cooperate and delegate (Murphy & Brogan, 2008), ability to encourage and motivate others (Bailey, 2008; Quirke & Allison, 2008), strategic planning skills (Christison & Murray, 2008), and technical and IT skills (Siskin & Reynolds, 2008). Similarly, Stephenson, Dada and Harold (2012) found effective communication and ability to build relationships as important skills for teacher leaders. For ELT leaders in particular, Coombe, England and Schmidt (2008) recommended public speaking and presentation skills to be effective in their roles. However, for the utilisation of these skills academic leaders should have cultural consciousness skills (Al-Swailem & Elliott, 2013) that inform their actions in line with cultural norms of the organisation. Table 5 summarises the key leadership skills reviewed in this section.

| 9. Knowledge of educational practices |
| 10. Conceptual knowledge |
| 11. Situational knowledge |
| 12. Tacit knowledge |
| 13. Knowledge of the system |
| 14. Knowledge of self-learning |
Table 5. *Skills required for teacher leadership*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teacher Leader Abilities</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Interpersonal &amp; interpersonal skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to encourage &amp; motivate others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>IT &amp; Technical skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Time &amp; self-management skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strategic planning skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>Pedagogical skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>Cultural consciousness skills</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to delegate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public speaking &amp; presentation skills</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scholars also associate personality traits with effective teacher leadership practices in educational contexts. For example, teacher leaders have “creativity, efficacy, flexibility, life-long learning, humor, willingness to take responsibility and risks” (Angelle & Beaumont, 2007, p. 775). They are open-minded and respectful to others showing optimism and enthusiasm, confidence, and decisiveness (Danielson, 2007, p. 16). Moreover, teacher leaders are honest, competent, forward-looking, and inspiring individuals who derive strength from character and competence; rather than from their middle-level leadership positions (Chapman, 2008). In the TESOL domain, literature has no reference to empirical studies on personality attributes of teacher leaders. Collinson (2012) explains the ethic of care which involves numerous values and attitudes (e.g. honesty, humility, hope) that promote compassionate and respectful relationships with peers or colleagues and foster growth in others.

In the light of the above review, it can be inferred that leadership knowledge and skills are interdependent concepts that complement each other to facilitate teacher leaders in educational leadership roles. Knowledge may only provide an understanding of a leadership role or a task; however, to practically perform it one needs to have leadership skills.

7. **Hierarchical structure as a barrier to teacher leadership**

The definitions by Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) and York-Barr and Duke (2004) illustrate that teacher leadership promotes a culture of collegiality in which teacher leaders collaboratively work to achieve organisational objectives and develop their professional expertise. However, promoting and developing teacher leadership might not be an easy task as educational contexts vary in terms of demands and challenges. Authors have found organisational and professional barriers that can impact teacher leadership and the development of teacher leaders in a school context. For example, Murphy (2007) states that highly bureaucratic and hierarchical school cultures of authority create an environment that hinders collaboration, learning and development. Sanocki (2013) and Katzenmeyer and Moller (2001) also consider *organisational structures* one of the key barriers to teacher leadership as they believe that top-down leadership models still dominate in many schools (p. 79). Similarly, Silva et al. (2000) note that “organisational characteristics and structural components can adversely impact the work of teacher leaders” (p. 790).
Control and accountability are often the key features of hierarchical structures that make it difficult to reach a common goal and optimise the balance of formalisation, centralisation and standardisation in an educational institution (Tschannen-Moran, 2009). Tschannen-Moran (2009) warns that rigid bureaucratic structures would compromise efforts to create a collaborative professional work environment.

Bureaucratic structures—such as hierarchy of authority, division of labor with specialization, and written rules and policies—assist schools to deal with the magnitude and complexity of their resources and tasks. However, overreliance on these structures by leaders will interfere with organizational dexterity and be counterproductive to the goals that schools strive to achieve. As such, professional structures—such as opportunities for collective inquiry, scrutiny, reflection, and decision-making—will need to be more fully integrated into school bureaucracies to promote teacher professionalism and school success. (p. 218)

Harris and Muijs (2004) identified “professional barriers” that are commonly found in technocratic set-ups in the form of administrative workload, lack of professional support and added responsibilities, which often lead to the teacher leaders’ stress and burnout, and consequently hinder teacher leadership. Moreover, Harris and Muijs’s (2003) meta-analysis indicates that teacher leaders often feel isolated from their colleagues and less connected to their peers when engaging in teacher leadership activities. This isolation is mainly the result of teachers’ resentment and their lack of trust in teacher leadership roles as teacher leaders are perceived as an extension of top management.

As administrators are expected to deliver in bureaucratic structures and ensure improvement, they face higher accountability and responsibility of students’ achievement (Crowther, Kaagan, Ferguson, & Hann, 2002). This realisation that hierarchical leadership structures in schools hinder progress, has led to the emergence of new leadership models such as, shared leadership, distributed leadership and participative leadership, which aim to serve the institute, the members of staff and the students by sharing common goals.

8. Teacher Leadership TESOL
A plethora of literature on teacher leadership comes from the US and UK contexts that is mainly in mainstream education showing a dearth of empirical research in TESOL field. As a large majority of teachers opt for English as a foreign language (EFL)/ English as a second language (ESL) teaching and language teaching industry is growing day by day, managing institutions and language programmes becomes a daunting task for TESOL professionals around the world. More importantly, language teachers do not often join schools with leadership experience and qualifications, making it extremely important for schools to create leadership learning opportunities for EFL/ESL teachers to develop their leadership capacities and ensure their contribution to the effectiveness of schools, teachers and English language learners. Moreover, school administrations would also require delegating authorities and fostering teacher leadership opportunities to meet the language learning needs of their students and professional learning needs of EFL/ESL teachers. Future research in TESOL should focus on exploring, suggesting and developing strategies for language programmes that encourage and motivate language teachers to
take on more leadership roles and become effective TESOL professionals. Teacher leadership is a sleeping giant and we need to consider it an essential component of English Language Teaching (ELT) programmes in language institutes in order to meet the global challenges in education. It is also worth mentioning that teacher leadership is synonymous to distributed or participatory leadership that demands a more flexible and democratic organisational structures to be fostered in. Thus, EFL/ESL schools should also adopt less hierarchical leadership practices so teachers could effectively perform their leadership responsibilities.

Conclusion
This theoretical paper has reviewed literature on the concept of teacher leadership in various educational contexts. It has listed and analysed different skills, knowledge and competencies teachers may require for leadership roles in educational institutions. The first section of the paper has considered the historical evolution of teacher leadership through various phases that gives useful insights into how this notion has emerged, evolved and perceived by researchers and practitioners in the field, and how it appears in today’s institutions around the world. A wide range of definitions of the term ‘teacher leadership’ has delineated various features of teachers’ roles, responsibilities and their expected contribution to organisational effectiveness while operating in formal and informal leadership roles. The concise review of the literature has also highlighted the significance of leadership knowledge and skills for the academic leadership positions that need to be fostered in a school context; however, a lack of empirical evidence has been noted in the field of TESOL to recognise the types of leadership knowledge and skills required for teacher leadership. Moreover, it has identified factors, such as hierarchical leadership structures that might hinder the emergence of teacher leadership in academic institutions. As the paper signifies the role of teacher leadership in the US and the UK contexts, it indicates a void in the literature on this issue in the field of TESOL that also directs researchers’ endeavours towards investigating this concept in the context of English language teaching.

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The Significance of Teacher Leadership in TESOL


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The Significance of Teacher Leadership in TESOL


Perceiving Native English Speaking Teachers: EFL University Students’ Perspectives

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Abstract
To allude to the ‘native speaker’ concept and investigate the native speaker effects, this research looks into the perceptions of 25 Thai EFL university students towards native English speaking teachers. How native English speaking teachers influence the participants’ learning behaviours and motivation to learn English are also perceptually reported. Two research instruments, the survey questionnaire and the semi-structured interview, are employed for this study. The findings indicate overall positive perceptions towards native English speaking teachers, pointing that their classes are mostly fun, interactive and motivating. The flexible and interactive teaching methods and styles used by native English speaking teachers are found to be most favoured, followed by their approachable personality traits and the students’ vast opportunity to practice oral and written English. Most participants, if given an option to choose a teacher, have a salient preference to study with native English speaking teachers in which case neither teachers’ age nor gender matters. There seems to be a strong relationship between studying with native English speaking teachers and the participants’ learning behaviours and motivation to learn English.

Keywords: Perceptions, EFL, University Students, Native English Speaking Teachers, Learning Behaviours

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Introduction
This study examines the perceptions of Thai university students towards native English speaking teachers’ EFL classes. Also, an effort is made to find out whether these perceptions have any consequence on the student’s learning behaviours to learn English. It also aims to find out the desirable characteristics of native English speaking teachers in English classrooms.

Research shows that students’ perceptions towards learning a foreign language are linked to students’ behaviors and motivation to learn to speak a second language. According to Brown (2006), a thorough understanding of students’ perceptions plays an equal role in improving teaching, students learning and student achievement. Additionally, several scholars in the field of second language acquisition (e.g., Abraham & Vann, 1987; Horwitz, 1999) hold a similar view that learners’ perceptions toward language learning as well as teachers can, to a greater or lesser extent, affect their learning approaches. All these views provide a solid and valid ground for exploring learners’ perceptions.

English teachers teaching at university level in Thailand represent both native and non-native English speaking teachers from various nationalities. Nevertheless, native English speaking teachers are the main focus in this study context as they interestingly by and large represent ‘norms’ of nativeness in English language teaching especially in EFL contexts.

Two main research questions in the study are:
1. What are the perceptions of Thai EFL university students towards native English speaking teachers?
2. To what extent do these perceptions reshape the students’ learning behaviours and motivation in learning English?

Literature Review
Though perceptions are perceived as personally fabricated, mostly based on individual’s previous experiences (Lefton, 1997), social and collaborative phenomena embedded in social activities in which people engage in various everyday situations and settings play an important role in helping to shape individual’s views. Covey (1989) notes that the social paradigms and social experiences have an influence on individuals’ perceptions when they interact with their family, school, teachers, religious affiliations, and even friends. However, according to Breen (2001), in most cases, the focus of social learning is placed on those who have mastered knowledge and capability and those who are seeking such knowledge or developing such capabilities. This can be applied to the language teaching and learning situation. The well-informed participant is the teacher who is the skilled second language practitioner, and the ones seeking and developing knowledge are the learners who aim to become skilled second language users. On account of this, it is very likely that perceptions are to be formed and reshaped as a result of social experiences and influences. Thus, as this current study revolves around perceptions of students in a particular context, its overall learning context is bound to be different from another context.

Learners’ perceptions towards second language acquisition
Perceptions play a critical role in second language learning in that they determine second language learners’ learning behavior and motivation (Cotteral, 1995). Learners will be more likely to make
contact with the speakers of the language if they have positive views towards those speakers (Lightbown and Spada, 1999). Stern (1983) reasons that if learners highly value the target language, they are likely to assimilate themselves into that language and learn it well. On the contrary, they will tend to reject learning that language if they take a negative view of it. Ellis (1996) reported that perceptions that each learner holds toward learning English can influence his/her success in English language learning and, accordingly, his/her English language proficiency. Building from these views, it is possible to make a general conclusion that learners’ perceptions toward what they learn, among other factors, play a vital role in their learning success.

This present study directs its specific focus to one of the most significant factors that could predispose EFL learners’ perceptions towards English learning: native English speaking teachers. In order to better understand the roles of native English speaking teachers in EFL learning, the next section will examine the native speaker construct and how learners’ perceptions towards native English speaking teachers can affect their English learning.

**Native speaker construct**

According to Davies (1991), the construct ‘native speaker’ has at least three different meanings in theoretical discussion with regards to knowledge and capacity. Firstly, it is used to refer to a speaker of one’s own idiolect. Secondly, it refers to a speaker of an uncodified dialect, and thirdly, the construct represents part of a group adhering to a codified norm in a standard language. He further points out that it is possible to be a native speaker of more than one language, even though it is not common.

The characteristics of a native speaker have also been identified by Davies (2003) along with Crystal (1985), and Richards et al. (1985), all of whom suggest the following major points found in the qualities of the native speaker:

- the NS acquires the first language (L1) of which he or she is a native speaker in childhood;
- the NS has intuitions in terms of acceptability and productiveness about his or her own language competence;
- the NS has intuitions about those features which are mutually intelligible by others whom they share the same language with;
- the NS has a specific capacity to produce proficient spontaneous discourse, exhibiting a wide range of communicative competence;
- the NS has a specific capacity to write creatively at all levels of written discourse; and
- the NS has a specific capacity to interpret and translate into the L1 of which s/he is a native speaker.
- the NS shows identification with a language community (This is an additional point mentioned by Johnson and Johnson, 1998)

Apparently, it is debatable that in reality some native speakers are far from fluent in speech. Native speakers are not necessarily aware of their knowledge in a formal sense or only a small percentage of native speakers are characterised with creativity, such as poets or rapsingers. Therefore, these characteristics of a native speaker are variable and not a necessary part of the definition of “native
speaker” since the lack of any one of them would not disqualify a person from being a native speaker (Cook, 1999). A rather different, challenging viewpoint about a native speaker is proposed by Kramsch (1995). While acknowledging that one has to be recognised as a native speaker by the relevant speech community, it is remarked that being a native speaker is the result of particular education. This idea is confirmed by Widdowson (1994), explaining that a native speaker is someone who speaks the right variety of the native language. In fact, Widdowson affirms that a majority of those who are born to the language speak a non-standard native language and have themselves to be instructed in the standard at school. In this way, native speakers only refer to those who identify themselves with a codified norm in a standard language.

Rather than being objective and affirmative about it, Davies (2003) sees the term “native speaker” as an ideal associated with the myth, while acknowledging that the term serves as a model associated with reality, which deserves consideration. Critically speaking, native speakers differ from one another with regards to accent and syntax as neither do all native speakers have the same accent, nor are they all equally competent in the native language.

Past research on perceptions of students related to native English speaking teachers
There is evidence of research studies on students’ perceptions related to native English speaking teachers undertaken in diverse settings. Shimizu (1995) carried out a research survey of learners’ attitudes towards native English speaking teachers in Japan where 1,088 Japanese students from eight colleges participated. In the findings, over half the students felt that English classes instructed by native English speaking teachers were stimulating, entertaining. In sum, the results of the survey strongly suggest that native English speaking teachers are valued for personal characteristics such as friendliness.

Moreover, Snodin and Young (2015) conducted a study on native speaker varieties of English: Thai perceptions and attitudes. For this questionnaire-based study, research questions investigated which varieties 251 Thai learners of English thought they were actually using; which they saw as their target model; and also explored their attitudes towards different ‘native-speaker’ varieties. It was found that such varieties still predominated over alternatives such as ‘English as a Lingua Franca’, suggesting that most of the participants perceived English used by native English speakers as an exemplary model of standard English.

Methodology
The present study uses a case study approach. The use of the case study as a methodology fits the needs to explore the phenomenon under study where data are drawn from people’s experiences and practices and so are seen to be strong in reality. Moreover, not only can case studies provide a data source from which further analysis can be made, but they also can pave the way for further research work. They can be associated with action and their insights contribute to changing practice (Cohen and Manion, 1995).

Sampling
The sample, purposively selected, consisted of 25 Thai university students who majored in Business English with mixed English ability. They studied in the international program where
English was used as a medium of instruction across all courses offered. 20 of them were female while the 5 others were male. Broadly, the selection of participants was based on a number of credits earned. A minimum of 90 credits earned by the participants out of 142 credits required for graduation was a requisite to ensure that the participants experienced learning with native English speaking teachers and could justly reflect on their perceptions towards this group of teachers.

Data collection
In order to gain rich and comprehensive data, two data collection methods were employed: survey questionnaires and semi-structured interviews.

The main source of data in this study is derived from the use of survey questionnaires. Cohen and Manion (1995) mention one of the great advantages of the survey questionnaire—that is, numerous questions can be asked about a subject, giving extensive flexibility in data analysis and a broad range of data can be collected.

Interviews were also used as a supplementary source to the questionnaires to collect additional data, for they provide in-depth qualitative data which can then be analysed using interpretive techniques. A semi-structured interview technique was used. This would allow the respondents to express their feelings and thoughts and be guided and focused at the same time (Mills, 2001).

Data analysis
Because only qualitative data were collected, they were analysed using an interpretive approach. The interpretive analysis methods of ‘topic ordering’ and ‘constructing categories’ suggested by Radnor (2002) were used.

With regard to the analysis of the semi-structured interviews, the 12 interviews were fully transcribed. The interview data were intended to supplement the students’ attitudes expressed in the questionnaire.

Findings and Discussion
To answer the first research question, four major categories were developed. These include who native English speaking teachers are; native English speaking teachers’ teaching methods and styles, native English speaking teachers’ personality and classroom discipline, and native English speaking teachers’ overall perceptions.

It was revealed that most of the participants perceived, as Crystal (1997) purports, native English speaking teachers to be from inner-circle countries (i.e. America, England, Australia, New Zealand, and Canada), in which English is used as a native language.

In terms of teaching methods and styles of native English speaking teachers, more than half of the participants (n=19) pointed out that native English speaking teachers related their methods and styles of teaching more heavily to practice, classroom discussion and activities using
real-life examples, focusing less on grammar and formal writing while promoting English speaking and conversation intuitively.

In addition, 20 respondents reported that in general native English speaking teachers were lenient and understanding and at times encouraging when it came to classroom discipline and personality. Three participants additionally commented that culture had a great effect on the personalities, classroom behaviour and discipline of native English speaking teachers.

Also, the participants were asked about their overall perceptions towards native English speaking teachers. The findings indicated that all participants would enjoy studying with native English speaking teachers, reasoning that studying with native English speaking teachers helped them to better improve their overall English proficiency with a tendency of developing English pronunciation in particular.

The findings in this study seem to be in line with what Palfreyman (1993) suggested in that native English speaking teachers are rather flexible with language forms and meanings. In terms of teaching approaches, native English speaking teachers would emphasise intelligibility, development of ideas, and lively discussion mostly through activities. Thomas (1995) also noted this tendency in his study on native English speaking teachers’ traits. For classroom behaviour and discipline, Thomas’s study and the present study found similar results: native English speaking teachers are perceived as relaxing and behaving informally in class, and it is quite obvious that this is regarded as a positive quality.

For the second research question, it can be answered as follows: Students’ perceptions of native English speaking teachers towards their learning behaviours It was revealed that a large number of participants (n=22) perceived that studying with native English speaking teachers influenced their behaviour in class. Many indicated being more comfortable in native English speaking teachers’ classrooms, whereas others perceived themselves to be more eager and focused, mainly owing to communication difficulties that existed between them and native English speaking teachers. However, despite the presence of a language barrier, the vast majority of participants held positive impressions of classes taught by native English speaking teachers given their own learning behaviours.

There appeared to be a positive relationship between the students’ perceptions towards native English speaking teachers and their learning behaviour in terms of classroom engagement. Most of the students perceived that native English speaking teachers encouraged them to share ideas in class, making them enthusiastic to occupy themselves in both class and group discussion. Kato (1998) found the same result, as native English speaking teachers in her study were seen to inspire students to contribute to the class efficiently. Salahshoura and Hajizadeh (2013) emphasise the importance of teachers in involving and stimulating students to participate in discussion, and see this as one of the desirable attributes of a competent EFL teacher.
Students’ perceptions of native English speaking teachers towards their motivation to learn English

In general, most students in the study indicated a positive drive to study English with native English speaking teachers. As the result revealed, their motivation to learn English was to a great extent associated with the value placed on English listening and speaking improvement. It might be the case that listening and speaking would be considered more practical and desirable than reading and writing for the students in this study. Pegrum (2000) suggests that outside the English classroom, listening and speaking are used twice as much as reading and writing. Also, inside the classroom, speaking and listening are the most often employed skills.

Implications for teachers

The findings of this study point out that Thai EFL university students in this study reported holding positive attitudes towards native English speaking teachers. Also, there appeared to be an association between these attitudes towards native English speaking teachers and the students’ learning behaviours and motivation in learning English.

Classroom participation

The first implication concerns EFL teacher training in terms of encouraging students to share ideas and giving them opportunities to be involved in classroom discussion. Research studies show that students appear to have fondness for teachers who are good at telling stories, especially those who share real-life anecdotes that are appealing to them (Hadley and Hadley, 1996). Thus, through choosing proper lesson activities and using suitable non-verbal communication to help convey meaningful expressions, EFL teachers are likely to generate more classroom dynamics.

Teaching culture

Many participants indicated that their perceptions towards teachers and their classroom behaviours are predisposed by their own culture. This cultural influence appears to be implicit within the learning context. Thus, the next implication takes into account the explicit teaching of culture. EFL teachers and even learners should be made aware that language and culture are unavoidably linked and as such cannot be detached (Byram and Fleming, 1998; Baker, 2003). Thus, the teaching of culture should be integrated into normal English lessons. Learners need to be encouraged to use English in various contexts rather than with reference to only English speech communities or even their own native culture.

Conclusion

This study explored the perceptions of university students towards native English speaking teachers in the Thai university context. Moreover, an attempt was made to examine how the perceptions held towards native English speaking teachers determined their learning behaviours and motivation to learn English. The findings suggested that the students reported holding positive attitudes towards native English speaking teachers in several aspects. Also, there appeared to be a connection between these perceptions the students had and their learning behaviours and motivation in learning English. It was also found that if the students were able to choose a English teacher to learn English with, most indicated learning with native English speaking teachers, reasoning that studying with these teachers helped to better improve their language proficiency especially pronunciation.
Further research into perceptions of students regarding native and even non-native English speaking teachers in different contexts from a critical perspective can be worthwhile to yield more useful results in this domain of study.

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An Analysis of Algerian Manufacturing and Engineering Master’s Students’ Needs

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Abstract
Needs analysis is considered as an effective tool to design a course of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) that best fits the students’ needs. Thus, the present paper responds to a main research question focuses on what the Algerian Manufacturing and Engineering Master’s students need English for. It aims at investigating the students’ language needs and identifying the stakeholders’ perceptions of the ESP course. For this purpose, this research is based on a case study design through which a target situation, a present situation, a learner factor and teaching content analyses were undertaken. In fact, this is done in order to help teachers and education leaders in Algeria to draw a clear policy to ensure successful implementation of ESP courses. Two questionnaires and two semi-structured interviews were addressed to Algerian Engineering Master’s students, English language teachers, subject-specialists and administrators. The results revealed that Engineering students were highly motivated to learn English. They also indicated that there is an absence of an adequate proficiency level of English from the part of the students as they are unable to practice effectively the four skills namely listening, speaking, and communication. This is why they need to learn English in order to write exam answer, read textbooks, course handouts, follow lectures, and listen to instructions and explanations. Finally, designing a more focused English language course, training teachers, and providing financial support are highly recommended.

Key words: English for Specific Purposes (ESP), Manufacturing and Engineering students, needs analysis, present situation, target situation

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Introduction

In today’s world, the globalization process has reinforced the status of English as a global language through which world trade, business, international law, education and new telecommunication technologies are conducted. To be fully integrated in such highly impressive world, Algeria, like many other nations, has integrated English teaching in national instruction including ESP with its sub branches including English for Science and Technology (EST), English for Business and Economics (EBE), …etc in higher education.

The department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University, like all the departments in Algerian Universities, devotes sessions of English teaching within its curriculum to prepare students to act as global citizens and train them to join the workforce. However, this English course is not based on a carefully undertaken needs analysis. Teachers use a traditional way of teaching based on providing the students with some grammar blocs, and building lexical items and vocabulary luggage through translating texts, thus excluding the communicative function of English in these courses. Moreover, ESP teachers in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences use self-designed materials or select some lectures adapted from commercial books for teaching English for Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences. However these materials do not seem to answer the students’ needs as teachers complain about facing significant problems of low proficiency level, communication problems, lack of motivation, and absence of opportunities to use the language in daily life.

Accordingly, the present study aims at analyzing the ESP teaching and learning situations in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University, Algeria, in addition to investigating the students’ language needs and identifying the stakeholders’ perceptions of the ESP course. This is done in order to help teachers to design an appropriate ESP/ EST course and education leaders in Algeria to draw a clear policy to ensure successful implementation of ESP/ EST courses.

1. Literature Review

1.1. English for Specific Purposes

The reason that led to the emergence of English for Specific Purposes (ESP) in the late 1960’s was the development in language theory which put so much focus on individual learners’ specific needs (Hutchinson & Waters, 1987, p. 8). Furthermore, the status of English as a global language also helped the materialization of ESP as explained by Bottery (2000) “the development of globalization has been associated with the dominance of the English language. The power and influence of English have been widely recognized nowadays in the context of globalization” (p.6).

English for Specific Purposes (ESP) refers to “the area of inquiry and practice in the development of language programs for people who need a language to meet a predictable range of communicative needs” (Swales, 1992, p. 300). This means that ESP teaching is a needs-based approach that associates the teaching and learning of English to what learners need from the English course so that they reach a certain degree of proficiency in communication in any academic or vocational prescribed task (Sabet & Daneshvar, 2010, p. 2). In other words, a set of skills that is required by ESP learners in their studies or in their professional careers (Alharby, 2005, p. 10) is emphasized in the ESP teaching operation.
As far as Manufacturing and Engineering studies are concerned, the content and procedures of the ESP course, or more precisely the EST course, are associated to the students’ reasons to learn. In fact, EST courses focus on scientific English and selection of communicative situations which are appropriate for scientific and technological fields (Dorrity, 1983). Particularly, students should be able to recognize, exploit and evaluate the materials related to science and technology.

1.2. Needs Identification and Analysis in ESP

In the field of education in general and ESP teaching in particular, more importance is given to investigations in learners needs as “a prerequisite for effective course design” (Long, 2005, p. 1). These needs are identified through the process of “needs analysis” (NA) or “needs assessment” which is defined differently by several scholars. Brown (1995) posits that NA refers to “the activities involved in gathering information that will serve as the basis for developing a curriculum that will meet the learning needs of a particular group of learners” (p. 35). For this reason, the process of needs analysis plays an important role in the ESP teaching operation. It is considered as the starting point in the process of designing and carrying out any ESP course. Indeed, Hutchinson and Waters (1987) insist on the fact that any language course design should be based on needs analysis through which the teacher will gather and collate relevant data about his students’ reasons for learning English. This latter will be interpreted to define the objectives and the principles for more focused course design and teaching materials.

To conduct a Needs Analysis, different approaches must be taken into account. As a first step, Present Situation Analysis (PST) is undertaken to “establish what the students are like at the beginning of their language course, investigating their strengths and weakness” (Robinson, 1991, p. 9), to determine the students’ previous learning experiences, and to identify their proficiency level to perform related activities and tasks in relation to the target situation. This is what Hutchinson & Waters (1987) refer to as ‘lacks’. Target Situation Analysis (TSA) is suggested as the next stage. According to Dudley-Evans & St. John (1998, p. 124), TSA refers to “tasks and activities learners are/will be using English for target situation”. This means that TSA aims to identify “the necessities” and/or measure to what extent an adequate proficiency level for a profession or a study situation is reached. Over time, the scope of NA widens its scope to include the assessment of the learners’ expectations, reasons for attending the course, attitudes towards English, preferred ways of learning, styles and strategies, and their perceptions of needs and / or “wants” in relation to the ESP course. This, therefore, pinpoints the stage of Learning Situation Analysis (LSA). Thus, in order to bridge the gap between the starting point, i.e. PSA to destination or TSA, learning needs as being a neglected terrain in ESP must be taken into account to determine the course content in response to psychological and cognitive needs, i.e. motivational, recreational and emotional needs, sociological needs which include the teacher’s role, subject valence, social responses…etc, and methodological needs, that is, classroom teaching, techniques, skills and strategies. This stage known as Teaching Situation Analysis makes ESP a learner-centered approach, i.e., concerned not with knowing or doing, but with learning. In fact, the rationale for needs analysis process can be summarized in the following figure:
As far as the present research work is concerned, the researchers opt for Basturkmen’s (2013) integrated approach to needs analysis which combines Target Situation Analysis to identify what students should realistically be able to do after attending the English course, Present Situation Analysis to portray the students’ immediate and current needs, Learner Factor Analysis to investigate the students’ motivation, learning styles and strategies, and the reason for learning English, and Teaching Content Analysis to investigate the content that should be included and offered in the English course.

2. Methodology
2.1. Participants
To obtain valuable information about the ESP situation and the students’ needs in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University, the researcher collected data from multiple sources: Manufacturing and Engineering Master’s students, English language teachers, subject specialists and administrators.

2.2. Method
In this study the researcher opted for a case study research which “focuses on understanding the dynamics present in a management situation” (Eisenhardt 1989, p. 34) and through which detailed data was gathered to describe and analyze the ESP situation in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University, students’ needs and stakeholders’ attitudes towards the ESP/EST course.
2.3. Instrumentation

The students’ questionnaire was designed to investigate the English language needs of Manufacturing and Engineering Master’s Students at Tlemcen University, and to identify their attitudes towards the English course. It was submitted during the second term of the academic year 2015-2016 to two hundred (200) students, but only one hundred twenty (120) students returned it. The questionnaire was translated into Arabic in order to avoid any kind of misunderstanding of the questions and to allow the respondents to answer as clearly as possible.

Another questionnaire was submitted to eight English Language Teachers. It was carried out to have an overview of the teaching of the English language at the Department of Engineering and Manufacturing Sciences at Tlemcen University and to identify the language teachers’ attitudes towards the English course.

Moreover, the investigator used two semi-structured interviews. They were conducted with three administrators and ten subject-specialists in French and lasted for about forty-five minutes. While the first one intended to check the subject-specialists’ views and attitudes towards English language instruction in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences, the second one shed light on the objectives of this course in the same Department.

3. Results

3.1. Master Students’ Questionnaire

Though the questionnaire was submitted to two hundred (200) students, only one hundred twenty (120) of them answered and gave it back. It revealed very important data that allowed the researcher to identify and analyze the students’ needs and draw clear conclusions about the target situation.

➢ Target Situation Analysis

1. Importance of learning English

While 99.17% confirmed the importance of the English language as being the language of development and technology, only two students denied its utility in their studies.

2. Reasons for learning English

Regarding the reasons for learning English, the majority of informants showed a great awareness about the status of English as a global language. Indeed, they agreed on the fact that the latter is the language of science, technology, international communication, economy and policy. The students also confirmed that they learned English in order to read books and articles in their specialty since the majority of documents in their field of study are published in English. They also used it to communicate on the web and interact with native speakers. Other reasons are to conduct scientific research and mainly find a job in international companies or abroad as having a certain proficiency level in English is considered as one of the most important requirements to be recruited. They strongly agreed on the fact that they learned English to pass international tests such as Test of English for International Communication (TOEIC).

➢ Present Situation Analysis

3. Students’ level in different English skills
The highest proportion of students considered their proficiency level as average in speaking (54.16%), grammar (41.66%) and pronunciation (39.16%), good in vocabulary (77.5%), and very good in reading (45.83%). They considered their achievement to be weak in writing (35.83%) and very weak in listening and communication with 35% and 37.5% respectively. This is confirmed in the figure below:

Figure 2: Students’ level in different English skills

4. Importance of English sub-skills
Concerning the reading sub-skills, the results revealed that the most important ones are reading study notes and reading technical manuals (83.33%).

As for the writing skills, writing lab reports is perceived as very important (85%), writing assignments as important (35.83%).

Regarding the listening and speaking sub-skills, listening to spoken presentations (58.33%) and giving spoken presentations (68.33%) are recognized as very important, listening to instructions for assignments (45.83%) and participation in discussions (55%).

5. Students’ proficiency level in English
As it is presented in the figure below, almost all students, 83.4 % confirmed that they are beginners as they stopped learning English at university for one year. 12.45% students argue that they have an intermediate level and only 4.15% students consider themselves as advanced.
6. **Students’ need for training**

The informants confirmed that they need to be trained in how to communicate effectively in real situations, i.e. they want to improve their speaking and listening skills rather than reading and writing which they consider as not important. They asserted that they need to improve their ability to speak about Engineering and Manufacturing related topics in English. 97.5% of them want to write about Engineering and Manufacturing related topics in English and pass English examination, followed by 91.6% who need to Read Engineering and Manufacturing related books and articles.

7. **Classroom Teaching Practices**

Concerning the aspects of English that need more teaching, the majority of the informants gave priority to technical vocabulary at the expense of grammar and speaking skills respectively. They asserted that they prefer that the English course comprises both English for academic purpose (research and studies) and English for occupational purposes (work).

3.2. **English Language Teachers Questionnaire**

The English language teachers’ questionnaire revealed very important data that will help the investigator in designing the course.

- **Teaching Situation Analysis**
  1. **English language Instruction**

The majority of the informants posited that they did not follow a precise method in teaching English. They confirmed that they combined the Grammar Translation Method, Communicative
Language Teaching and the Audio-lingual method depending on the type of the task. They argued that they were given a syllabus designed by the teacher in charge of the English course at the department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences, but no one of them used it because of its grammatical nature. They also confirmed that the English language course took the form of ‘Cours /TD’, i.e. a lesson followed by different activities such as grammar exercises, reading a text aloud, etc. The English language teachers asserted that most of the time they relied on self-designed materials and / or the use of textbooks related to both science and General English.

2. Course Content

The informants insisted that they taught more often General English and English for Manufacturing and Engineering. They revealed that they concentrated on both general grammatical notions and lexical items related to science in their teaching without denying the importance of including Lexical items related to GE and Grammatical structure related to science in the English course.

Concerning the importance of the language skills, all the teachers believed that the four language skills were important. In fact, they ranked Writing and Reading at the top followed by Speaking then Listening.

The great majority of the teachers agreed on the use of translation of lexical items in the English course mainly from English into Arabic or vice versa and sometimes from English to French though they showed a high degree of awareness about the idea that translation cannot be useful to create a target situation.

➢ Learning Situation Analysis

3. Students’ Motivation

The teachers stated that at the beginning of their university studies, the students were moderately motivated because they emphasized more on their field of study. This was proved by the significant rate of absences noticed by the teachers from the part of the learners though attendance in the English language course is compulsory. But after graduation their motivation increased because they faced real situations where English becomes a necessity mainly when writing reports and conducting scientific research.

4. Instructional recommendations

All the teachers acknowledged the efforts made by the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences either by recruiting qualified teachers, or providing the most suitable materials to create a supportive environment for teaching and learning English. They strongly agreed on the fact that more time should be allotted to English instruction as three hours per week are insufficient, and disagreed on the idea that teaching should focus on General English. They also emphasized the importance of collaboration between language teachers and subject-specialists because only few of them meet with teachers of Manufacturing and Engineering to discuss and comment their course content according to the whole program of specialty.

3.3 Subject-specialists Interview

The subject-specialists’ interview revealed important data about teaching and learning English in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences.
Target Situation Analysis

1. Importance of English

All the informants were aware of the status of English as being the global language of world economy, technology and science. They confirmed that a great number of documents in their area of specialism and conferences are published and conducted in English.

2. Situations where English is needed

The subject-specialists stated that they faced many situations in which English is used such as reading texts and manuals, writing articles, using the Internet. They added that they needed English also to undertake research and attend international conferences.

3. Language Problems encountered by students

The teachers asserted that the students encountered many problems mainly in writing about topics, reading books and articles, and translating materials related to Engineering and Manufacturing Sciences.

They also confirmed that lack of English competence constituted a handicap in their professional career. They stated that they faced several difficulties to speak with and understand foreign colleagues speaking about Manufacturing and Engineering sciences, do research, publish scientific articles and attend international conferences.

4. Importance of English in workplace

Regarding the importance of English in workplace, the teachers argued that knowledge of English is considered as a favorable factor in the labour market. They confirmed that one of the requirements to have a job is to be communicatively skillful apart from knowledge and expertise in their field of specialism.

5. Students’ readiness for professional life

The informants posited that the students were not well prepared to use English to meet their work requirements because they don’t have enough knowledge about English for Occupational Purposes. They added that what they received at university is just initials about the language.

6. Subject-specialists’ suggestions

The subject-specialists are well-aware of the vital role that the English language is playing nowadays. They suggested that the English course should be varied in order to meet both the students’ current needs and the requirements of the target situation.

3.4 Administrators Interview

The administrators’ interview exposed valuable data about English language instruction in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University.

Target Situation Analysis

1. Work conducted in English

All the informants posited that a great amount of work in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University is conducted in English as there is collaboration...
between the aforementioned department and the Department of Management Engineering at Missouri Rolla University (USA) since 2003.

2. Objectives of teaching English

The administrators pointed out that the main objective of teaching English in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University is to keep pace with nowadays world changes which require a high command of English. When learning English at university, students are expected to be fluent communicant who have a set of skills covered in English either in speech or technical writing in order to succeed as engineering professionals.

3. Language Problems encountered

All the informants agreed that students in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences encountered many problems when learning English because of lack of practice. They outlined that the learners found themselves dealing with grammar blocs rather than communication activities.

4. Evaluation criteria

The administrators confirmed that there are no clear criteria which allow them to evaluate the success of the English course. However, they asserted that it is noticeable from the students’ grades and their achievement in real situations where English is required that there is a gap between the objectives drawn for this course and what is taught in reality.

5. Administrators’ suggestions

The administrators suggested that a specialised training should be provided for ESP teachers. They called for an official programme provided by the government in order to rule the teaching and learning of English in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University.

4. Discussion

The collected data revealed very important information which allowed the researcher to draw a clear picture about English language teaching and learning situation in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University. They also enabled her to analyze the students’ needs and identify not only their needs but also their attitudes towards the English course delivered in their department.

Regarding the present situation analysis, the findings showed that the students possessed a beginner level of English language proficiency as they stopped learning English for one year, and this affects their learning continuum. Students and teachers asserted that a great number of books and articles in the field of manufacturing and engineering sciences were in English. So it is important to have a certain command of this language for better understanding and easy use of the related documents written in English. The findings also revealed that the students could not understand native speakers of English. They were also unable to recognize the technical vocabulary used in Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences, and produce correct discourse. For these reasons, students need to develop the four language skills with more focus on speaking and
listening in order to speak, write and read Manufacturing and Engineering related topics, books and articles.

As far as the target situation analysis is concerned, the subject-specialists and administrators raised the necessity to be proficient in English because the nature of Manufacturing and Engineering profession requires high knowledge in this language. In fact, it serves to develop a career and international relations, writing business documentations and reports, decoding devices’ rules and regulations which are written in English, and using English communication skills effectively to negotiate with other professionals in the world in terms of technological advances. They stated that nowadays English speaking professionals were more demanded in the work market because companies ask for some mastery of English an essential requirement to be recruited. In fact, English learning is no longer a luxury, but a necessity.

Concerning the teaching and learning analysis, the results obtained from language teachers’ and students’ questionnaires revealed that the English language course in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University took the form of “Cours / TD”. Though it is compulsory a great number of absences is noticed. The time allotted to the course is three successive hours per week starting from the second year and this was assumed to be insufficient to cover many aspects related to the English language. The language teachers relied on self-designed materials and textbooks related to science in the light of the absence of an official programme delivered by the department.

As far as the learning factor analysis is concerned, the data gathered showed that the students at the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences at Tlemcen University are motivated to learn English though their attitudes towards this course is described as unfavorable at the beginning. Among the reasons that the students mention for learning English is that they need it both in their studies and target career. Another important reason is to pass international tests such as TOEIC which becomes a trend nowadays to gain a job and urges the students to be fluent communicants in English.

**Conclusion**

The current study aimed at portraying the present situation of ESP teaching in the Department of Manufacturing and Engineering Sciences, at Tlemcen University. Moreover, the purpose of this research work was to analyze the students’ needs in the English language throughout the use of a triangulation of research instruments including questionnaires submitted to ESP students and English language teachers, and semi-structured interview conducted with subject-specialists and administrators. In fact, interesting results were achieved. The stakeholders agreed on the importance of English in the field of manufacturing and engineering. They also confirmed that there was an urgent need for a more focused ESP courses related to the target discipline. As far as the students’ needs are concerned, different expectations were noticed to use English either for academic or professional purposes. This includes reading books, writing articles and reports, giving presentations, and undertaking exams such as the TOEIC. In fact, students were highly motivated to learn English as this language plays an important role in their vocational career and were namely in need of reading and writing scientific articles.
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References
Mind Mapping and Students' Writing Performance

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Abstract  
This study examines the potential effect of mind mapping strategy on developing Jordanian students' writing performance. The researchers claim that mind mapping strategy has the potential to improve Jordanian students' writing performance. The study follows a quasi-experimental design in which an experimental group and a control group were purposefully chosen from eleventh grade students at Al Hashymiah School for Boys, Zarqa in Jordan during the second semester of the academic year 2016/2017. In the experimental group, 20 students were taught by mind mapping strategy and 20 students of control group were taught by the conventional teaching method as outlined in the Teacher’s Book. To collect the data, a pre-test and a post-test was utilized. ANCOVA was used to measure statistical differences in the mean scores of the participants of the study. The findings reveal statistically significant differences (at $\alpha \leq 0.05$) between the two mean scores of experimental and control groups in the post-test in favor of experimental group. The study recommends an integration of the mind mapping strategy into the English as a foreign Language (EFL) curriculum in Jordan as it facilitates developing students' writing skill. The study also recommends to examine the effect of using mind mapping strategy on EFL students' achievements in other language skills and sub skills. Teachers are also advised to use the mind mapping strategy to increase students’ interest and motivation to write more often.

Keywords: EFL students, Jordan, mind mapping, writing performance

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Introduction

Generally, the role of writing skill is crucial for international communication with others in English along with succeeding in academic cores of study. Of particular interest, mastering writing skill enables EFL learners to acquire English words and sentences effectively (Bello, 1997). Further, writing helps learners to keep track the learning process details (Ahangari & Behzady, 2011). Nevertheless, it is reported as the most difficult skill to be acquired as it involves a number of skills and conventions (Nik, Hamzah & Rafidee, 2010; Yunus, Nordin, Embi & Salehi, 2013).

It’s true that writing is an essential skill in learning English as a foreign language. In this regard, White (1987) states that writing is used to examine a student’s performance in English. Rao (2007) also believes that writing helps to motivate students' thinking, organize ideas, and develop their ability to summarize, analyze and criticize as well as strengthening students' learning, thinking and reflecting on the English language.

It is claimed that writing is the use of symbols to form words and sentences according certain conventions (Byrne, 1997). Such use of symbols can be developed to a skill of creating piece of written work, such as stories, essays, or articles (Cambridge Advance Learners’ Dictionary, 2008). Here, students produce a sequence of sentences arranged in a particular order and linked together in certain ways.

How to write properly? Richard (1990) reports that writing is considered as a complex skill, and students should write a composition as a communicative activity. Wall (1981) assures that good writing needs realizing the target subject, controlling of grammar and being awareness of stylistic conventions in writing.

Mind mapping was derived from Ausubel’s meaningful learning (Ausebel, Noval & Hanesian, 1978). The most important idea in Ausubel’s cognitive psychology is that learning takes places when the learners have the assimilation of new concepts into existing concept and propositional frameworks. Woolfolk (1987) explains that the most important element effecting learning is what the learner already knows; according to Ausubel. Weinstein and Mayer (1986) argue that the cognitive approach to learning seeks to understand how the incoming information is processed and structured into memory.

Additionally, mind mapping is described as an instructional strategy where the student "places supra-ordinate concepts on paper and subsequently links sub-ordinate concepts as appropriate" (Buzan, 1993; p. 59). Further, Buzan (2000) and Howitt (2009) define mind mapping as a visual tool that learners can use this strategy to generate ideas, take notes, organize thinking, and develop concepts.

Now, mind mapping has been used as a strategy for learning and teaching different language skills. Kyoko and Hiroko (2011) state that mind mapping was first proposed by Buzan in the late 1960s. Ahangari and Behzady (2011) mention that Joseph Novak and his research team at Cornell University developed mind mapping in the early 1970s.
Many researchers (e.g., Derbentseva, Safayeni & Canas, 2007; McGriff, 2007; Novak & Canas, 2006; Scarcella & Oxford, 1992) have expressed their own views about the effectiveness of mind mapping writing strategy. This strategy is considered helpful for students as it proved to activate students’ writing performance. This strategy is claimed to make the writing process as meaningful as possible where students can express their thoughts appropriately. Here, mind mapping strategy is related to enabling students to think while using pictures and images demonstrated to them. Of particular interest, mind mapping can develop students learning English in general and the writing skills in particular in different setting worldwide (Ahangari & Behzady, 2011, Lee & Cho, 2010).

Some of the empirical evidence about mind mapping strategy contributes to the improvement of students' writing performance. Saed and Al-Omari (2014) investigate the effectiveness of a proposed program based on a mind mapping strategy in developing the writing skills of eleventh grade EFL students in Jordan, which involves 91 female students during the first semester of the 2013/2014 academic year at Sands National Academy, Amman. The study shows that students who use a mind mapping strategy to organize and summarize information in their drafts, produce more transformations of ideas in their summaries than the students who do not use this strategy. The researcher concludes that mind mapping gives students the opportunity to solidify their ideas before the writing where students are enabled to transfer meaning or to write summaries effectively. That is, students are able to write more complete and well-organized summaries. There also is no significant interaction between the method of instruction and students’ general level of English.

Budiono, Degeng, Ardhana and Suyitno (2016) explore the effect of mind mapping strategy on writing short story learning skills. The participants of this study are 64 Indonesian students at private junior high school of nine grade in Mojoker. Findings of the study demonstrate that mind mapping strategy is beneficial in improving Indonesian students' writing of short story.

Ristwanto (2016) examines improving the students' ability in writing report genre through the mind mapping strategy. The participants are nine grade 43 students at Junior high schools in south Sumatra, Indonesia. The researcher uses observation, questionnaire and test to collect data. The results show that there is a good impact to the students' ability in writing report through mind mapping strategy.

Rahmah (2017) reports the effectiveness of using mind mapping strategy on students writing skill in descriptive text. The participants are 52 at the eighth grade of Negeri 1 Kota Tangerang Selatan. The instrument of this study is a written test, to score the students’ descriptive text on pretest and posttest. The writer uses a rubric of an analytical scoring. The result shows that there is a positive effect of students’ descriptive text after using the mind mapping strategy.

Thus, the study investigates the potential effect of mind mapping strategy on the Jordanian eleventh grade students' writing performance.
Statement of the Problem
Teaching writing can be a problematic skill for EFL teachers. Specifically, the researchers notice that eleventh grade students face difficulties in writing the required paragraphs and essays in their textbook. This problem may be due to the absence of the right teaching strategy.

In this concern, Al Khasawneh and Maher (2010) indicate that the lack of successful English writing is due primarily to weaknesses in the teaching method. In the same vein, other non-Jordanian researchers such as: AlHazmi (2006), Al-Samdani (2010) and Grami (2010) assert that the problem of poor writing may be attributed to the inadequate delivery of all language skills, in general, and to the lack of the delivery of the teaching skills, in particular. Therefore, mind mapping strategy may have potential positive effect on students' writing performance.

The Purpose and Question of the Study
This study aims to investigate the effects of mind mapping strategy on eleventh grade students' writing performance. In order to achieve the purpose of the current study, it attempts answering the following question:

1.- Are there any statistically significant differences (α≤ 0.05) in students' writing performance that are attributed to the mind mapping strategy use?

Significance of the Study
In their review of the related literature, the researchers could find only one study which investigate the use of mind mapping strategy to improve writing performance in the Jordanian EFL writing classroom. Hopefully, the results of the study may give teachers insights for bringing the real world into the classroom; thus they could make learning more meaningful and more exciting. Therefore, this study acknowledges the use of mind mapping strategy in the teaching writing skill research. As this strategy proves to be useful, then it goes without saying that it should be adopted by teachers to attain better writing performance by their students. Of course, better writing performance secures the academic future of the students and facilitates their educational progress.

Subjects, Instrumentation and Data Collection and Analysis
Forty eleventh grade male students’ who were purposefully chosen from Al Hashymia School for Boys in Zarqa during the second academic year 2016-2017. An experimental group (n= 20), taught by mind mapping strategy and a control group (n= 20) students and taught by the conventional method as described by teacher’s book. The researcher designed different writing activities based on the mind mapping strategy in order to achieve the objective of the Program.

This study adopts the quasi-experimental design to investigate the effect of mind mapping strategy on improving Jordanian eleventh grade students' writing performance due to the relevance and the nature of this study. A quantitative data is collected by using pre- and posttest.

Validity and Reliability of the Instruments
To achieve the purpose of the study, the researchers designed an instructional program based on mind mapping strategy which was taught to the experimental group, to improve the students’
writing performance. After deciding the writing performance, the researchers designed different writing activities in order to achieve the objectives of the program.

Moreover, mind mapping strategy has a number of activities, for example, it is involved writing down a central idea and thinking up new and related ideas which radiate out from the center. When students focus on key ideas, they write down in their own words and then they look for branches out and establish connections between ideas.

In experimental group, the students under study practiced the application of mind mapping strategy prior to writing paragraphs and essays at the planning stage. The students were taught to place the main idea as a nucleus around which their ideas extend in different directions. The students practiced writing paragraphs and essays using a concept mind mapping strategy in their brainstorming and planning processes at the pre-writing stage. The topics for the paragraphs and essays were introduced to the students as sequenced in the textbook. Similarly, the strategies for the paragraphs and essays were sequenced similar to their presentation order in the textbook such as comparison and contrast first, cause and effect second, generalization and qualification third, interpretation of data fourth, argument and conclusion last. Nevertheless, the control group wrote paragraphs and essays on the same topics in the light of the procedures suggested in Teacher's Book.

To ensure the content validity of the instrument program, it was given eight juries of EFL professors, EFL supervisors and teachers where all their comments were taken into consideration and reflected in the final version of the test.

To achieve the reliability of the pre-posttest, it was administered to an outside sample of 30 eleventh-grade students. Two weeks later, the same test was administered to the same sample. The reliability coefficient was found to be 0.95, which is appropriate for the purposes of this research.

Data Collection
The data were collected from one school (viz. Al Hashymia School for Boys) in Zarqa. The experiment lasted for three months in the second semester of the academic year in 2016/2017 for twelve class sessions. At the end of the experiment, the test was re-administered.

Data Analysis
The data was analyzed quantitatively to determine the potential effects of mind mapping strategy on Jordanian eleventh grade students' writing performance. The researcher used the following analyses to achieve the purpose of the study:

1- Descriptive statistics to compare means and standard deviations of the experimental and control groups.
2- ANCOVA was used to control the differences between the groups before the treatment and to find if there were any significant differences (at α≤0.05 ) between the experimental and control groups due to the treatment.
3- Person correlation formula in order to gain test-retest reliability for the test.
Results of the Study
To review, the question was: Are there any statistically significant differences ($\alpha \leq 0.05$) in students’ writing performance that are attributed to the mind mapping strategy use?
To answer this question, a timed pre-test and post-test of writing was administrated. The mean scores and standard deviations of the students’ scores on the pre-test and the post-test were calculated, along with estimates mean scores and standard errors of the post-test scores based on the differences between the two levels of instructional delivery, mind mapping strategy, and conventional method as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Means and Standard Deviation of Students' Writing Performance on the Pre-test and the Post-test per Mind Mapping

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Strategy</th>
<th>Pretest</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Post test</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>Mind Mapping</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13.70</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19.45</td>
<td>3.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>Control</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.35</td>
<td>3.12</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>14.69</td>
<td>2.52</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The test was out of 24
Table 1 shows the mean scores, standard deviation and the estimate means of the writing performance of mind mapping group A and the control group B on the pre-test and the post-test. Moreover, the Table shows difference in the estimate mean scores of mind mapping group and control group. Obviously, the Table demonstrates that students at group A outperformed their counterparts in group B; as the mean score for the post-test was 19.29 which indicates an improvement if compared to 13.66 for group B (the control). To ascertain this result further, an ANCOVA test was used in order to analyze the students' scores, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. ANCOVA of the Students' Writing Performance on the Post-test per Mind Mapping

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
<th>Partial Eta Squared</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pretest</td>
<td>26.722</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>26.722</td>
<td>3.566</td>
<td>0.067</td>
<td>0.088</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Group</td>
<td>304.481</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>304.481</td>
<td>40.637</td>
<td>0.000</td>
<td>0.523</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>277.228</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>7.493</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Corrected Total</td>
<td>657.975</td>
<td>39</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

n=40 *Significant ($\alpha \leq 0.05$)
Table 2 shows a statistically significant difference in students' writing performance on the post-test ($F=40.637$, df=39, $P=0.000$). Provided by these scores, this study reports that mind mapping strategy has significant difference on Jordanian eleventh grade students' writing performance (at $\alpha \leq 0.05$).
Discussion of the Results
The question of the study is relevant to the potential effects of mind mapping strategy on the eleventh grade students' writing performance. The results of this question showed that there were statistical significant differences (at $\alpha \leq 0.05$) in favour of the experimental group A in students' writing performance on pre-post test scores.

One possible contribution to the superiority of mind mapping group (viz. A) was the sequence of mind mapping which was provided and closely implemented to facilitate learning. In this regard, Buzan (2007) and Edward (2011) state that mind mapping strategy could balance the brain by helping learners to organize thoughts or to improve the creativity performance or even to speed of their learning and memory.

Another possible explanation of the performance of the mind mapping group is relevant to the process of training per se. More specifically, the participating students were asked to write down a central idea first; then they were asked to think up new and related ideas which radiate out from the center of the main idea. Here, when students focused on key of ideas, they were able to write down in their own words where they can look for branches out in order to establish connections between ideas. During the training classes, students were invited to use picture and cards that help them in organizing information on the topic in focus as they matched cards with proper topics. Another explanation of students' enhanced performance is related to the fact that students are used to write rather than discussing ideas or organizing them in bottle forms or any other visual forms.

The results of this study are in line with the general conclusions drawn from other studies in this regard which claimed that mind mapping strategy can enhance learners' writing performance. For example, Al-Jarf (2009) finds that the mind mapping strategy of prewriting helps students to produce better expository texts. Naqbi (2011) also states that using mind mapping improves the written product of students. Further, Darayesh (2003) proves that the mind mapping strategy can develop the scientific secondary students' English writing ability. Recently, Saed and Al-Omari (2014) report how mind mapping strategy improves the writing performance of eleventh grade EFL students in Jordan.

In the current study, the mind mapping strategy was demonstrated as an excellent and innovative strategy as it enabled the participants students to generate new ideas for essays and assignments writing. More specifically, the prewriting component of mind mapping helped the students in experimental group A to write a better quality essays for the prewriting strategy helped students to understand the assigned topic for the assigned essays. In this way, students had the chance to focus on ideas written down in their own words along with observing connections between ideas.

Interestingly, Freeman (2004) explains that mind mapping strategy enables students to construct new conceptualizations and to create abstract thoughts. In this concern, mind mapping used in the experimental group A reduced students' miscommunication and lack of clarity in written texts as it involved pictures and colours which, in turn, motivated students and inspired them to write essays. Most students actually enjoyed creating mind mapping as reported by Jones,
Ruff, Snyder, Petrich and Koonce (2012) who find that mind mapping is an entertaining and interesting strategy that enhances students’ essays. Here, Sturm, Rankin and Erickson (2002) state that mind mapping assists students to write confidently. As such, this strategy made students proficient and confident enough to write essays in different topics. During the training, students had a chance to refer to the maps drawn at the planning stage and make the writing process work efficiently. To conclude, mind mapping strategy enables students to construct and organize their ideas in the pre-writing phase. This is in congruence with Sturm and Rankin and Erickson (2002) who report that mind mapping helps students enhance their writing skills.

The advantages of using mind mapping strategy to develop students’ writing in the experimental group A were as follows. Firstly, most students enjoyed it as it contributed to develop their writing ability as reflected in the post test scores while being interested way. Secondly, the researchers noticed mind mapping strategy enhanced students’ ability did not only help students to organize their ideas in a hierarchical structure, but also helped them to produce linked and better connected essays. Thirdly, students’ understanding topics is superior as they were able to relate ideas effectively. Similarly, Bharambe (2012) claims that students become skillful in organizing their thoughts and ideas and thus become able to present information clearly and attractively by mind mapping. Although not measured, using mind mapping strategy in this study promoted students’ creativity in writing. In this regard, Keles (2012) supports that mind mapping is an effective strategy in learning and promoting students’ creative and critical thinking and in providing permanent learning. More specially, students at the experimental group A were able to understand the relationship between ideas they wrote and the writing topic. This is in alignment with Saed and AL-Omari (2014) who assure that mind mapping gives students the opportunity to solidify their ideas with adequate procedures before writing.

All through the training, students at the experimental group A applied mind mapping strategy in the pre-writing stage in order to explore ideas and generate thoughts on each writing topic under study. The researchers observed how mind mapping strategy allowed students to gather ideas relevant to the main themes in each essay. Such ideas gathered by this strategy were coherent without any linear or flexible structure of outlines. More specifically, mind mapping strategies involved using information with images, symbols, key words, codes and colour to the level each student wishes to use in the target essay. In Gardner’s (1985, 1999) terms, such type of organization of ideas is capable of capturing the spatial and bodily-kinesthetic of students.

During the treatment, the researcher trained students to use color codes, pictures, key words, clues, in a proper hierarchical paragraphing structure. That is, their essays were organized in light of the entire main and sub ideas along with relevant supporting details on the topic. This application of the mind mapping proved successful when the results were evaluated. When the students in the experimental group A attempted the post-test after the treatment, a significant difference was found after the results of the pre-test and post-test were compared. It became evident through the improvement in the results of the students that the application of the mind mapping strategy enhanced the students’ writing performance. Moreover, students were seen as motivated to write. Provided that, students started from anywhere as they were not afraid of making mistakes; they rather jotted down anything that came up in their mind. Due to the fact that they
were invited to get ideas together, students drew associative lines for required in forms essays by selecting relevant notes then sketching the figure of such essays.

Findings of the present study demonstrate the positive effect of the mind mapping strategy on eleventh grade students' writing performance. The reasons behind the results are due to the fact that using the mind mapping strategy provides opportunities for students to come up with original and useful ideas. These results are similar to some other studies (Budiono, Degeng, Ardhana & Suyitno, 2016; Ristwanto, 2016; Saed & Al-Omari, 2014) because the strategy provide students with strategies to organize their thoughts and develop their writing performance.

Conclusion
This study confirms that the mind mapping strategy improved students' writing performance in test scores. This result is similar to some other studies (e.g., Darayesh, 2003; Saed & Al-Omari, 2014 & Saqqa, 2006) because they provide students with strategies to organize their thoughts and develop their writing sub-skills. This strategy under study demonstrates students' engagement in thinking of the writing topics along with prior knowledge activation which, in turn, enables them to generate ideas through group work and oral discussion in an interesting way.

Recommendations
Based on the results of the study, the following recommendations are put forth:
1- Teachers are encouraged to use mind mapping strategy at their pre-writing phase which helps to organize their thoughts and broaden their writing skills. This, of course, motivates students and activates their prior knowledge; which is useful for generating ideas.
2- The Ministry of Education is invited to train teachers on mind mapping strategy. Of possible interest, improving students' writing reinforce their knowledge of grammar and vocabulary, and also develop other writing skills; as language, skills are integrative.
3- Curriculum developers and textbook writers may incorporate teaching strategies can help students write essays using the mind mapping strategy to help them develop in writing performance and motivate them. Four researchers are invited to conduct other studies to investigate the effect of mind mapping strategy on developing other language skills and a similar study should be conducted to investigate the effect of mind mapping strategy on writing skill of other classes in other parts of Jordan.

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References


Using Portfolio as an Alternative Assessment Tool to Enhance Thai EFL Students’ Writing skill

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Abstract
This present study investigates the effects of portfolios on the development of English as a foreign language (EFL) learners’ writing skills. For the purpose of this study 56 senior Thai undergraduate students majoring in Business English at an International University in Thailand were selected and divided into experimental and control groups. Each group, consists of 26 students, both of them were given pretest to ensure the same proficiency level. Throughout the eight weeks in which the experiment was carried, the experimental group was taught through portfolio assessment technique and the control group was taught using the conventional method. Besides, an independent sample t-test was carried out to see the significant differences between the two groups. In order to see the differences within each group, a paired sample t-test was applied. The statistical results showed that there was a significant difference between the experimental and control groups which signifies that those receiving the treatment, in this case, the portfolio based assessment, outperformed their control group counterpart in the area of writing skill.

keyword: EFL writing, portfolio assessment, portfolios

Introduction

Improving second language learners’ writing skills is one of the most problematic areas in language learning field. With the shift of paradigm from traditional method to assess writing in a more modern or alternative ways, portfolio assessment has been appealing to many classroom practitioners and researchers alike. The ability to use portfolio in a classroom is demanding job in an exam oriented culture like Thailand (Norris, Brown, Hudson, and Yoshika, 1998). When implementing portfolio in English language classroom, Tierney, Carter, and Desai (1991) mention that there is no particular way to do so (p.7). According to Barret (2002), a portfolio is a collection of students’ tasks which contains their progress, achievement and efforts in one particular area or more (cited in Wang & Liao, 2008). By Hamp-Lyons & Condon (2000)’s definition, a portfolio must carry nine characteristics including: collection of more than one performance, consists of a wide range of performance, rich in context, delayed evaluation time in order to provide more revision time, selection of writer’s work, students centered, self-reflection and self-assessment, measuring a learner’s development over a period of time. Burner (2014) sums up these nine characteristics into three main categories that constitute collection, selection, and reflection.

Many scholars have conducted various studies on portfolio in terms of authentic assessment tools and demonstrated that portfolio assessment had a positive reinforcement on student’s language skills in general (Yurdabakan & Erdogan, 2009; Fahed Al-Serhani, 2007; Burner, 2014; Nicolaidou, 2012). However, its impact on sub skills of purpose, content, organization, sentence structure and mechanics were limited. Besides, very few research focused on students’ attitudes towards portfolio assessment, in particular in ESP classes (Hamp-Lam 2013 cited in Burner, 2014). Nevertheless, according to Sandford & Hsu (2013), portfolio can contextualize learning and facilitate students’ involvement in the learning process. According to Hart (1992), portfolio give students chance to showcase what they can do rather than focusing on their negative aspect which according to him would be useful when teaching students with limited English proficiency or with non-native learners. Furthermore, this view is also shared by Hamp-Lyons and Condon (2000) who report that portfolio is particularly useful for nonnative English learners because it provide a broader picture of the students’ ability and skills. Therefore, this study focuses on the effect of portfolio on students’ writing method in order to find an alternative way to improve EFL students’ writing.

Literature Review

The starting point of using portfolio was adopted from the field of fine arts where its purpose was to showcase the depth and breadth of the work of an artist’s abilities (Jongsma, 1989). Many educators perceive the standardized tests serve a purpose in education, however, they are neither infallible nor sufficient. Hence, a single measure of students’ ability is incapable of estimating their diverse skills (Flood & Lapp, 1989). Researchers and classroom practitioners alike often use a combination of formal and informal assessment techniques for monitoring students’ development. Of which in this case is their language development. Portfolio assessment conveniently responds to this need.

Many studies exploiting the impact of portfolio assessment on EFL writing found a positive effect on students’ writing (Fahed-Al-Serhani, 2007; Elahinia, 2004; Ghoorchaei, Tavakoli & Ansari, 2010; Spencer, 1999; Lam, 2013; Valencia & Place, 1994; Yurdabakan & Erdogan, 2009),
Fahed Al-Serhani (2007)’s study shows that the group that uses portfolio assessment significantly surpasses their counterpart in terms of four writing processes of planning, drafting, revising, and editing. In Yurdabhakan and Erdogan (2009)’s experiment with the Turkish students on reading, listening, and writing skills, they found significant improvement only on writing skills but not on reading and listening skills. The findings of Ghoorchaei, Tavakoli and Ansari (2010)’s investigation of the effect of portfolio assessment on Iranian EFL students showed that portfolio assessment empowers students’ learning more than the group without the use of portfolio. On the contrary, there exist some studies where statistical significance between experimental groups and control groups were not found (Chu, 2002; Subrick, 2003). It is also advised by Hashemian & Fadaei (2013) that portfolio can considerably improve autonomy of learners and inspire them to become active and engage in language learning.

As portfolio assessment has achieve importance in language learning, more and more attention on method of assessment in terms of writing skills and researchers have started to contemplate on the effectiveness of this method of writing assessment in the last few decades. Especially in EFL context, many studies have conducted research to investigate the effectiveness of portfolio. For example, the study of Aly (2002) conducted in Cairo context using pretest and posttest design revealed that a group with portfolio technique had higher writing performance compared to their peer counterpart. Yet in another research conducted by Apple and Shimo (2004) on Japanese learners investigated through the use of self-reported questionnaire found out that not only portfolio had the positive effect on their writing but also was highly preferred among the Japanese learners.

In the context of Thai EFL students, Abhakorn (2014) conducted a study to explore how high school students view the usefulness and practicality in using portfolios in EFL teaching and learning, and to what extend student portfolios could assess and develop students’ metacognition in language learning. In her study, 53 Thai secondary students from the of English were divided into a control and experimental group. The students’ attitudes were assessed through pre- and post-intervention questionnaires and the experimental group were asked to keep reflective portfolios in addition to their homework while the control group had to complete only their homework. Semi-structured interviews were also conducted with some students.

The study showed that the portfolios proved to be a good mediated tool in uncovering the students’ metacognitive knowledge and their current level of metacognitive strategies. However, findings revealed that students cannot differentiate how to describe planning and process of learning hence, the students need supportive training on learning skills and metacognitive. In addition, it was found that the mean scores of the attitudes toward teacher roles from the control group did not change but from the experimental group, students’ attitudes changed to the need to depend more on teacher’s feedback.

According to Freeman and Freeman’s (1998) portfolio project with teachers in one of a bilingual school in California revealed that teachers were able to monitor the language growth.

Teachers involved in the portfolio project found that they had more complete information on their students than they had in the past, using report cards and standardized test scores.
They felt confident about making recommendations and were amazed at how much they had learned about their own teaching (1998, p.260).

Before creating portfolio, there are a number of factors that the researchers needed to take into consideration. Tangdhanakanonda & Wongwanichb (2015) state that there are five common steps in creating a good portfolio, i.e., planning for portfolio assessment, collecting created products, selecting products, and reflecting on selected products, revising and evaluating products, as well as utilizing results from portfolio assessment.

Moreover, in terms of students’ perception, a number of studies have been conducted. Yang (2003) surveyed students’ perception with a class of 42 students using open ended Likert type scale and the findings revealed that majority of the students found portfolio assessment as a useful instrument.

According to Fentsen & Fentsen (2005) students and teachers’ communication could be established in a healthy way through the use of portfolio. However, it is also believed by many researchers that portfolio assessment may be subjective and may have less reliability when compared to traditional assessment (Tigelaar et al., 2005). In Baume & Yorke (2002)’s study came up with seven criteria for different evaluator in order to achieve a better reliability. Besides, Pitts et al. (2001) studied that inter-rater reliability of this alternative way of assessment is rather weak. Hence, its result should only be used as formative rather than summative. Nevertheless, rubrics can be used in order to increase the reliability of portfolio assessment as explained by Moskal (2003). He prepared a set of rubrics which clearly state the expected aims and clear definition of aims which could be clearly observed by different evaluators. As preparing portfolio based classroom teaching and learning takes large amount of time Sulzen & Young (2007) state that the most challenging phrase is the evaluating process.

Meanwhile, to ensure that appropriate level of inter-rater reliability was achieved, the Pearson correlation coefficient was put in use. The results indicated a correlation coefficient of 0.89. According to Pershkin (1998), “subjectivity is inevitable and that researchers need to seek out their own subjectivity (p.17). To increase the dependability of scoring, the pretest writing test tasks were scored again by each rater and analyzed for intra-rater reliability using the Pearson correlation coefficient. The obtained results suggested a 0.86 intra-rater correlation for each rater. For further analysis, each participant’s score was considered to be the mean of those scores given by two raters based on the mentioned scale.

**Research Question**

1. Are there significant differences in the effect of portfolio on overall writing skills of EFL students?

**Methodology**

The experiment was carried out for eight weeks (three hours per week). Prior to giving treatment, pretest was administered to both groups by the researchers. Participants of this study were 56 Thai undergraduate students in their senior year of an International University in Thailand. The design of this study was quasi-experimental consisting of a control and an experimental group.
Each group was given a pretest and posttest but the participants were not randomly selected nor were they randomly assigned to the groups due to practical constraints (Mackey & Gass, 2005). The independent variable was the implementation of portfolio assessment while the dependent variables were the writing ability and its subskills that were measured using Wang and Liao (2008)’s scoring rubric (see appendix).

According to Gottlieb (2000) the selection and implementation of portfolios carry a lot of freedom. For instance, a portfolio may be influenced by the variety of educational context, diversity of population, and variety in teaching approaches. In this study, the model utilized was based on classroom portfolio model whereby the purpose was for learning rather than for assessment.

Before starting experimental the course at the beginning of the experiment, the experimental group was provided with explanation about the portfolio. The students in both groups were asked to write different genres essay including classification, cause-effect, compare-contrast, and argumentative essays. While the control group received traditional assessment. The teacher taught the structure of the essay and they were not given opportunity to revise their writing.

Data Analysis

| Table 1. Independent sample t-test for pre test |
|---|---|---|---|
| | N | SD | T | p |
| Experimental group | 26 | 8.76 | .111 | .89 |
| Control group | 26 | 10.53 | | |

Figure 1. Procedure in using the Portfolio
It can be concluded from table 1 that participants in both groups were equal before applying the treatment with regards to their writing performance (p = .89).

Table 2. *Independent sample t-test for post test*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td>-3.723</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14.16</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be seen that there is a statistically significant difference between the post-test scores of control group and experiment group (p=.000). Thus, it can be concluded that those receiving treatment through portfolio outperformed their counterpart.

Table 3. *Paired sample T-test control group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>10.53</td>
<td></td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>14.16</td>
<td>.117</td>
<td>.73</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Compared the mean scores of pretest and post test of the control group. It can be seen that (p=.73) there were no significant improvement on the overall writing skills of the students in this group.

Table 4. *Paired sample T-test experimental group*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>T</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pre test</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>8.76</td>
<td>-4.78</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Post test</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>7.87</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4. compared the mean score of pre test and post test of the experimental group. It can be seen that (p=.000) there is a significant improvement on the overall writing skills of the students receiving treatment.

**Discussion**

This present study was conducted to investigate the differences between the experimental group taught through the use of portfolio technique and the control group which were taught in the traditional way. This study was aimed at comparing the effect of the portfolio vs. traditional writing assessment on undergraduate Thai EFL students majoring in Business English. The analysis of the data of portfolio assessment on the overall writing skills revealed that the portfolio approach in the present study had a significant impact on improving the EFL leaners’ abilities in term of writing skills. The findings is in line with Kathpalia and Heah, (2008), who have found that portfolios are effective for writing courses in improving the students’ writing ability. This also
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echoes the earlier findings of Butler and Lee (2010), where the students in the experimental group increased their writing accuracy as compared with those taught in the conventional method. Furthermore, in line with Murphy (2006), learning processes can be improved if formative assessments, in this case is the use of portfolio, are applied in EFL classroom appropriately. However, this issue needs further investigation in a more wider context before making generalization.

As Harmer (2007) states that portfolio requires more time on the part of the teacher as compared to traditional assessment method. Besides, the drawback of using portfolio as Mokhataria (2015) asserts, parents or community may disapprove unfamiliar system. Therefore, having a good explanation and comprehension on how portfolio may be beneficial is a crucial matter. Despite having many benefits, there also exist challenges in implementing portfolio in teaching and learning particularly with the issue of practicality. Researchers and practitioners have to take into account the time, cost, effort and administration. It is often reported by many researchers that implementation of portfolio is time-consuming. As Lo (2010) points out in her action research:

The reading and grading load was enormous, as was that of answering students’ questions. For questions I could not answer, I had to spend time locating answers as well. Despite the greatly reduced number of questions, the reading and grading load was still very heavy. To meet the administration’s deadline for submitting final grades, I was forced to write short comments and had no time to correct grammatical errors. The six entries I had insisted on to establish the habit of reading newspapers had become a massive burden for me. (p. 87)

Moreover, the students’ belief about the use of portfolio should also be surveyed. The first and foremost limitation of using portfolio assessment is time-consuming. Weigle (2002) asserts that within the global community, as writing continues to become a significant skill, so does the need for effective instruction in teaching writing in both second- and foreign language contexts, which, in turn, calls for, —valid and reliable ways to test writing ability, both for classroom use and as a predictor of future professional or academic success‖ (p. 1). Thus, to reap maximum benefits of the portfolio, the dynamic and interactive use of the portfolio can better help students. Using the portfolio to conference with the students at least once during the session can help students see the whole picture of their progress. This can also help build students’ motivation and confidence, factors significant for success in language learning. Aside from the controversies surrounding these negative viewpoints of using portfolio as an alternative assessment tool, the main issue, pragmatically, lies in the interpretations. To clarify, what really matters is the final product or the end goal. As Brown and Hudson (1998, p. 672) testified, “Tests are neither good nor evil in and of themselves. They are simple tools”. This view is corroborated by Fox who claimed that it is (2008, p. 99), “how portfolios are used that determines whether they are truly alternative assessment tools.

Conclusion
All in all, the research obviously reveals a great impact of the portfolio assessment on undergraduate Thai EFL students, particularly in terms of their writing skill. The research results
which showed the comparison between the mean scores of the pretest and posttest of the experimental group clearly indicated that there was a significant improvement on the overall writing skills of the students after applying portfolio assessment. It can be concluded that the portfolio assessment is deemed an appropriate and effective tool for English teachers in improving EFL students’ writing skill.

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Appendix

The writing Score Rubric Adapted from Wang and Liao (2008)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scoring rubric description</th>
<th>Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Supporting detail</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using few or no details to support the topic</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using insufficient details to support the topic</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using some details to support the topic or illustrate the idea</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using appropriate detail to support the topic or illustrate idea</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Using adequate supporting detail or illustrate ideas</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Logical flow of organization</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical flow is not clear</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical flow is less clear or connected</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most of the logical flow is clear</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical flow is generally clear and connected</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Logical flow is specifically clear and connected throughout the writing</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Spelling and Grammar</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Poor spelling and grammar with frequent errors</th>
<th>1</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inappropriate grammar with obvious errors</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fair usage of language with some minor errors</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language is almost accurate with few errors</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Language usage is near perfect or are perfect with no errors</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Relationship between Iraqi EFL Learners’ Vocabulary Learning Strategies Use and Their Receptive Vocabulary Size

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Abstract:
This study investigated the relationship between Iraqi English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners’ vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) and vocabulary size (VS). Participants included 118 EFL learners at Sulaymaniyah University in Iraq, all of whom were studying in the School of Basic-Education English Department. Two instruments were employed to collect data: a VLS questionnaire designed by Schmitt (1997) was administered in order to determine the range and frequency of VLS use, and a four-level (2000, 3000, 5000 and academic word list) vocabulary learning test (VLT) designed by Schmitt, et al. (2001) was used to measure learners’ receptive vocabulary size. The aim of this study was to determine the kinds of strategies learners utilized as well as their relationship to students’ VS. The results demonstrated that students utilized consolidation more frequently than discovery strategies. Moreover, the most frequently utilized VLS was studying the sounds of new words, while the least frequent one was working in groups to discover the meanings of new words. In terms of total VLS, the students can be considered as moderate VLS users (M= 3.003). The results of correlation analysis revealed that there exist positive, negative and sometimes no relationships between learners’ VLS and VS. Finally, the findings of multiple regression analysis concluded the $R^2$ value to be (0.284), which means that the predicted variables could account for 28.4% of the participants’ levels of receptive VS. This study concluded that systematic and appropriate strategies support learners to increase their VS.

Keywords: Iraqi English as a Foreign Language learners, vocabulary learning strategies, vocabulary level test, receptive vocabulary knowledge

Introduction

Schmitt (1997) defines vocabulary learning strategies (VLS) as the processes by which vocabulary knowledge and information are obtained, stored, retrieved and used. In addition, VLS supports learners to take control of their learning processes while developing their VS. Anderson and Freebody (1981) define VS as the number of words known by a learner, meaning that they are familiar with some important aspects of the word meaning. They confirm that learners possessing high vocabulary knowledge can better utilize the language, while learners with relatively low vocabulary knowledge are likely to experience difficulties in communication. Vocabulary knowledge is essential to language acquisition, which involves the manipulation of writing, speaking, listening, and reading—all of which direct learners to have sufficient interaction (McCarthy, 1988). However, Hedge (2000) states that “in the literature of English language teaching and learning an occurring theme has been the neglect of vocabulary” (p.110). She also adds that this negligence diminishes for learners the important role of vocabulary. Moreover, the negligence of learning and teaching vocabulary causes a lack of comprehensible communication. Therefore, VLS can be regarded as the main tool for enhancing and improving learners’ VS (Nation, 2001).

Catalan (2003) explains that teachers’ effort and learners’ desire impact the processes of vocabulary learning and teaching. In addition, vocabulary learning and teaching in many classrooms is incidental. Among Asian university students, an ad hoc strategy of vocabulary learning likely leads to insufficient vocabulary knowledge on behalf of students. It has also been observed that educators at the University of Sulaymaniya in Iraq often employ traditional methods of teaching vocabulary such as giving students list of words separately rather than utilizing authentic materials. The students always claim that they have limited vocabulary knowledge, which causes some obstacles in their acquisition of English. In addition, they are not familiar with appropriate ways to gain vocabulary knowledge. Fan (2003) also notes that inadequacy in vocabulary knowledge causes learners to receive unsatisfactory results on their exams. This inadequacy may also hamper students’ proficiency in the English language and on public exams. Therefore, teachers should focus on a wide range of VLS in order to enhance the vocabulary knowledge of their students. One of the problems observed at the University of Sulaymaniya is that teachers either do not measure learners’ vocabulary knowledge or consider students’ knowledge levels while choosing vocabulary materials.

As the concept of language-teaching shifted from a predominately teacher-oriented focus to a learner-oriented one, great emphasis has been placed on learners’ responsibilities for achieving their language-learning needs and becoming independent learners (O’Malley &Chamot, 1990; Oxford, 1990). Today, the communicative approach to foreign language learning plays a great role in ESL and EFL education, and this approach prioritizes vocabulary learning as a crucial component to language acquisition. Nowadays, most hiring organizations in Iraq prefer those who possess excellent communication skills in English. As a result, university syllabi in Iraqi universities focus on familiarizing students with English, motivating them to acquire it, and incorporating it at each education level. Nevertheless, despite these efforts, Iraqi EFL students remain unaware of adequate language-learning strategies (LLS), and they lack opportunities to practice their English outside of a university setting.
This study aims primarily to identify the frequency of VLS utilized by Iraqi EFL students as well as their VS in terms of receptive word knowledge. It also attempts to examine the relationship between VLS and VS in terms of receptive word knowledge. Therefore, the following research questions guide this study:

1. What are the most and least frequently used vocabulary learning strategies by Iraqi EFL learners?
2. To what extent do Iraqi EFL learners use vocabulary learning strategies: high, moderate, or low?
3. What is the vocabulary level of Iraqi EFL learners in terms of receptive word knowledge?
4. Is there a relationship between the use of vocabulary learning strategies and Iraqi EFL learners’ receptive vocabulary size?
5. To what extent do vocabulary learning strategies contribute to the vocabulary size of Iraqi EFL learners?

**Empirical Research on Vocabulary Learning Strategies**

Schmitt (2014) has claimed that the study of VLS is in an embryonic state because there is no survey which includes the entire aspects of VLS. Therefore, some researchers focus on categorizing VLS and the usefulness of these strategies for increasing learners’ proficiency. Some researchers also deal with specific kinds of VLS and whether they affect learners’ vocabulary learning. In this regard, the following studies have been fruitful.

Ahmad (1989) administered a VLS survey to 300 Sudanese EFL learners to distinguish between “good” and “poor” students’ approaches to lexical learning. This survey involved “good” learners and “low-achievers” based on their school records and subject assessments. The results of the survey indicated that good learners used more strategies; were more conscientious regarding what they could learn about new words; and paid more attention to collocations, spelling, and dictionary use. They were also more aware of contextual learning. In contrast, low-achievers utilized less VLS and tended to avoid active vocabulary practice. In addition, individual differences are identified among both good and poor learners. This study is significant because it helps teachers how to promote their poor-learners vocabulary proficiency.

Another study in the field of VLS by Gu and Johnson (1996) involved 850 Chinese EFL learners. A questionnaire was administered to understand better these learners’ beliefs about vocabulary learning, their vocabulary levels, and their VLS. The results proved that the learners mostly preferred studying vocabulary in real contexts. Additionally, they believed that vocabulary should be carefully studied and used rather than simply memorized. This study is also important to support teachers what kind of activities learners prefer and enjoy while they are learning vocabulary.

Another significant VLS study which was conducted on a large scale is that of Schmitt (1997). His research involved 600 Japanese EFL learners who were divided into four groups (junior high school students, high school students, university students and adult learners). Schmitt administered a questionnaire including discovery and consolidation strategies to identify the types of VLS used by learners. The results indicated that Japanese EFL learners are more attracted to using a descending-order bilingual dictionary and guessing from lexical context, but they were less
prone to checking first language cognates. Pertaining to the consolidation category, the students mostly preferred verbal and written repetition, studying spelling, taking notes, and studying the sounds of words. The least frequent strategy was asking teachers for flash card accuracy. This study gives vital clues to teachers to get benefit from those kinds of strategies which have a better result to learners.

**Size and Depth of Vocabulary Knowledge**

Vocabulary knowledge (size and depth) plays an important role in communication. The amount of vocabulary knowledge required by learners for using the target language for communication and comprehension is not fixed. According to Schmitt (2014), the measurement of VS is straightforward in that it denotes the amount of lexical items a learner possesses knowledge of. This conceptualization of VS is based on size rather than depth. The conceptualization of depth is related both to the knowledge of lexical aspects (e.g. knowledge of multiple polysemous meanings of words) as well as more holistic mastery (e.g. having a rich associative network formed around the word). Some scholars argue that there is little difference between vocabulary size and depth, but Qian (1999) asserts that depth typically adds unique explanatory power compared to size. This study mainly focuses on receptive vocabulary size of Iraqi EFL learners as they required understanding the meaning of the words while they read.

**Receptive and Productive Word Knowledge**

Meara (1997) claims that lexical organization is at the root of receptive and productive mastery. Similarly, Nation (2001) concludes that there are two types of word knowledge related to the mental processes involved in vocabulary learning. He describes these types of knowledge in the following way:

> Essentially, receptive vocabulary use involves perceiving the form of a word while listening and reading and retrieving its meaning. Productive vocabulary use involves wanting to express a meaning through speaking and writing and retrieving and producing the appropriate spoken and written word form. (P.24-25)

Many researchers have compared the ratios of receptive and productive word knowledge, but few have investigated the types and amounts of lexical items necessary for enabling learners to become productive. According to Schmitt (2014), in terms of receptive knowledge, it is sufficient to know the form-meaning of the word, utilize these form-meanings in speaking and writing, and then recall the meaning to help learners to produce communication. On the other hand, productive word knowledge includes parts of speech, derivation forms, and collocations, which are already provided by context to express word knowledge aspects. From this perspective, productive mastery is more difficult and advanced because 1) more word knowledge components are required and 2) many of these components are contextual in nature, thus taking a long time to be developed.

**Vocabulary Frequency Levels**

The number of unknown words in spoken and written discourse can affect learners’ reading and listening skills. Regarding this case, researchers have examined learners’ vocabulary size at various levels. Schmitt, et al. (2001) declares that vocabulary knowledge of 2,000-word families is sufficient for oral communication and that 5,000-word families are necessary for reading
authentic texts. Similarly, Laufer (1992) insists that a vocabulary size of around 5,000-word families permits learners to comprehend 95 percent of the running words in a text as well as enables students to read authentic texts independently.

Word frequency would be useful for both English language teachers and learners in determining the frequency of words used by native English speakers. With this purpose, Nation (1990) and West (1953) compiles a list of high-frequency words at the 2,000-word level, which supports learners in realizing lexical knowledge and improving their everyday communication. Moreover, Singleton (1999) defines content words as “those which are considered to have substantial meaning even out of context” and function words as “those considered to have little or no independent meaning and to have largely grammatical role” (p. 11). Nation (1997) classifies vocabulary frequency into four categories: high-frequency words, academic words, technical words, and low-frequency words. According to him, high-frequency words are 2,000-word families, while low-frequency words extend beyond 8,000-9,000-word families. He also advises that 2,000 high-frequency word families be studied in the beginning stage of language learning. Finally, Nation differentiates between academic words, which are useful for learners who wish to study English in general, and technical words, which are beneficial for learners who want to study in a specific domain and purpose.

Vocabulary Learning and Teaching

Nation (2001) distinguishes between methods of vocabulary learning in terms of direct and indirect vocabulary learning. He explains this distinction in the following way:

In direct vocabulary learning, the learners do exercises and activities that focus their attention on vocabulary. Such exercises include word-building exercises, guessing word form in context, when this is done in class exercise, learning words in lists and vocabulary games. In indirect vocabulary learning, the learners’ attention focus on some other features usually the message convey by the speaker or the writer. If the amount of unknown vocabulary is low in such messages, considerable vocabulary learning can occur even though the learner’s attention is not directed toward vocabulary learning. (p. 2)

Teachers and tutors are responsible for providing systematic ways of teaching the target language and for supporting learners in achieving an independent language-learning approach. Nation (1990) proposes that a strong reason for teaching vocabulary in a systematic way is that research on vocabulary teaching has provided ample information regarding how teachers can teach VLS as well as what sorts of vocabulary they should focus on. Another reason is that research on VLS has shown that a diversity of strategies improve students’ vocabulary acquisition; thus, it is not necessary for teachers to favor particular strategies over others. Thirdly, teachers and learners should consider the unique role of vocabulary in language learning as a whole, and finally, learners with a lack of vocabulary knowledge experience additional difficulties in target-language communication.

VLS can be regarded as the main tool for enhancing learners’ VS (Nation, 2001). Moreover, several researchers have investigated methods of developing VS within different L2 levels (Nation, 1990; Nation & Beglar, 2007). Their studies also have examined what, exactly,
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constitutes a VS that is adequate for smooth reading and listening. In summary, in order to benefit the processes of second-language teaching and learning as well as to determine how learners’ VLS use affects their VS, researchers have probed the relationship between VLS, VS and language proficiency. Nevertheless, Iraqi EFL researchers have neglected to study the relationship between learners’ VLS use and VS. The current study is the first of its kind in Iraq, and it examines the relationship between Iraqi EFL learners’ VLS use and their receptive word knowledge.

Methods

A quantitative paradigm was utilized in this study in order to analyze the data collected through VLS and VLT. Larsen-Freeman and Long (1991) stated that researchers prefer to conduct quantitative studies because they can best typify the test hypotheses through object tools and the data is analyzed by appropriate statistical analysis programs. In addition to this quantitative study, a descriptive research design was also employed in the current study. Descriptive study is a research paradigm that refers to investigating and utilizing already-existing data or non-experimental research as well as a preconceived hypothesis and research questions (Selinger & Shohamy, 1989). The research method of the present study utilized data collection instruments associated with descriptive research design (questionnaire and test). Descriptive statistics were applied in order to discover the range and frequency of VLS used by Iraqi EFL learners and to analyze the results of the vocabulary learning test (VLT). Moreover, inferential statistics were utilized to reveal which VLS of Iraqi EFL learners correlated with their receptive vocabulary size. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient was applied to examine the correlation between VLS used by Iraqi EFL learners and their VLT’s. Standard multiple regression analysis was also employed in this study to determine the influence of each item of VLS which participants used for their VLT’s.

Sampling

The population of the current study was comprised of EFL students at a university in northern Iraq. They were juniors attending the School of Basic-Education English Department who were training to become teachers. There were 118 participants, including 63 female and 55 male students. They were chosen from the population by using a convenience sampling method. All participants began learning English during primary school, and their ages ranged from 21 to 35 years.

Data Collection Instruments

The data collection tools consist (1) Vocabulary Learning Strategies Questionnaire (VLSQ), which was composed by Schmitt (1997) and (2) Vocabulary Level Test (VLT) which was produced by Schmitt et al. (2001).

This VLSQ was conducted to discover the VLS used by Iraqi EFL learners. The items of VLSQ seek information within six categories of VLS: determination, social-discovery, and social-consolidation, memory, cognitive and metacognitive. The VLSQ was formulated as a Likert-scale. The format of this questionnaire is based on Schmitt’s (1997) taxonomy of VLS, which was designed to elicit students’ beliefs about vocabulary learning and their self-reported preferences of vocabulary learning strategies. The items of VLSQ was adapted by Aljdee (2007), he applied this questionnaire to identify the VLS use by Algerians’ students.
The VLT was produced by Schmitt et al. (2001). It was considered as a tool for measuring participants’ receptive VS. They proved that there is a positive correlation between the ability to use English in a variety of ways and learners’ VS. The VLT of Schmitt et al. (2001) includes 60 words and 30 definitions. They are categorized into five groups and four respectively at each frequency level of 2000, 3000, 5000 and Academic Word List. However, this research excludes the 10,000-frequency word level which is not suitable for the participants’ proficiency levels.

**Process**

The pilot study was administrated before conducting the main research to discover the reliability of the VLSQ and VLT. The participants chosen for the pilot study were students within the School of Basic Education English Department at the University of Salahadin in Erbil city. There were 55 participants, including 23 males and 32 females. The pilot study demonstrated that students can answer both the VLSQ and the VLT in a proper time without facing any difficulties. The reliability analysis of VLSQ was 0.85 and VLT was 0.92. Later, the students from the University of Sulaymaniyah School of Basic-Education participated in the data collection of the main study. Firstly, a VLSQ was administered, followed by a VLT on the next day.

**Data Analysis**

Descriptive analysis was used to determine the most and the least frequently utilized VLS. It was also applied to find out whether Iraqi EFL learners are high, moderate, or low VLS users. Moreover, descriptive statistics were also conducted to determine the learners’ vocabulary levels. Pearson’s Correlation was performed to investigate the relationship between participants’ receptive VS and VLS. Finally, multiple regression analysis was applied to determine the contribution and influence of VLS on the VS of participants.

**Findings**

The first research question aimed to identify the most and the least frequently used VLS among Iraqi EFL learners. The mean and standard deviation of each individual strategy were considered and the results are presented in Table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strategy category</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying the sound of the new word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trying to develop my vocabulary knowledge by watching English TV channels.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Repeating the new word over and over.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Studying the spelling of the new word.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Identifying the part of speech of the new word (verb, noun, adjective) to help me know Its meaning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Saying the new word aloud when studying.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As seen in Table 1, memory strategies such as studying the sound of the new words constituted the most frequently used VLS by Iraqi EFL learners compared with the other strategies (M=3.79), followed by metacognitive strategy such as trying to develop vocabulary knowledge by watching English TV channels (M=3.68) and cognitive strategy such as repeating the new word over and over (M=3.66). Besides, the results of the least frequently used VLS by Iraqi EFL learners indicated that all social strategies from the consolidation category were the least frequently utilized strategies. Social-discovery strategy such as working in a group to discover the meaning of a new word (M=2.21), memory strategy such as using the Keyword Method (M=2.39) and the social strategies belonging to the consolidation category such as asking teachers to check word list accuracy (M=2.44) were among the least frequently used strategies by Iraqi EFL learners.

The second research question aimed to identify to what extent Iraqi EFL learners’ use VLS in terms of high, moderate and low frequencies. The mean and standard deviation of six sub-categories of VLS and all VLS were calculated to determine the total VLS use of participants. According to the scoring system constructed by Oxford (1990) and applied by Schmitt (1997, 2000), a mean score below 2.5 indicates low strategy use, a mean score between 2.5 and 3.5 indicates moderate strategy use, and a mean score above 3.5 indicates high strategy use. Table 2 shows the descriptive statistics used to determine whether Iraqi EFL learners were high, moderate or low VLS users.

Table 2
Descriptive Statistics to Analyze VLS Categories Use

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VLS-categories</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>M</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>VLS use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Determination</td>
<td>1.57</td>
<td>5.56</td>
<td>3.14</td>
<td>0.51</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social-discovery</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>3.83</td>
<td>2.55</td>
<td>0.57</td>
<td>Low</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social-consolidation</td>
<td>1.00</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>2.88</td>
<td>0.92</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>1.53</td>
<td>2.33</td>
<td>3.13</td>
<td>0.48</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Relationship between Iraqi English Learners’ Verbal Learning Strategies and Their Vocabulary Size

Table 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Strategies</th>
<th>Cognitive</th>
<th>Metacognitive</th>
<th>Total VLS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>1.67</td>
<td>1.89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minimum</td>
<td>5.00</td>
<td>4.33</td>
<td>4.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maximum</td>
<td>3.25</td>
<td>3.05</td>
<td>3.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>0.63</td>
<td>0.53</td>
<td>0.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Standard deviation</td>
<td>Moderat</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
<td>Moderate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As depicted in Table 2, the findings revealed that Iraqi EFL learners generally use VLS at a moderate level, except social-discovery strategies. However, the results showed that Iraqi EFL learners at Sulaymaniyah University employed the determination and memory categories at the same level. Additionally, the mean of total VLS use was (0.003); this indicated that Iraqi EFL learners were moderate strategy users during the process of language acquisition.

The third research question regarded the level of Iraqi EFL learners’ VS in terms of receptive word knowledge. VS consists of four frequencies of VLT; the 2000-L, 3000-L, 5000-L, and Academic Level. The scores of VLT are out of 30 at each level and the overall score is out of 120. Table 3 represents descriptive statistics for VLT scores.

Table 3

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VLT</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Level 2000</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>19.92</td>
<td>5.992</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3000</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>13.52</td>
<td>6.678</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 5000</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>7.41</td>
<td>5.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Level</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>13.25</td>
<td>6.676</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total levels</td>
<td>3.75</td>
<td>29.75</td>
<td>13.52</td>
<td>5.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 3, the result showed that the learners knew a sufficient number of vocabulary terms at the 2000-level (M=19.92), and the score of the 3000-level was (M=13.52). However, they did not know a large number of vocabulary terms at the 5000-level (M=7.41); moreover, the academic level was close to the range of the 3000-level (M=13.25). The overall mean score of VLT was 13.52, and the standard deviation is 5.54.

Schmitt et al. (2001) described a criterion mastery level of receptive vocabulary knowledge of 87% for each frequency of VLT. The mean percentage of vocabulary knowledge in the current study for each frequency level includes the following: 2000L= 66%, 3000L= 45%, 5000L= 24% and academic level= 44%. The percentage of vocabulary knowledge of Iraqi EFL learners was, to a great extent, below the criterion mastery level.

The research question four aims to find the relationship between VLS and the levels of VLT with the total VLT score. Table 4 presents the relationship between VLS and receptive vocabulary size.
Table 4

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>VLS categories</th>
<th>2000L</th>
<th>3000L</th>
<th>5000L</th>
<th>Academic Level</th>
<th>Total Levels</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Determination</td>
<td>.02</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>-.01</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.04</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social-discovery</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>.10</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social-consolidation</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Memory</td>
<td>.00</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>.06</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cognitive</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.06</td>
<td>-.05</td>
<td>-.05</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Metacognitive</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>-.17</td>
<td>-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total VLS</td>
<td>-.03</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>.01</td>
<td>-.07</td>
<td>-.02</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As seen in Table 4, the determination category had negative relationships with the levels of receptive word knowledge except for 2000-L, it had no relationship with 2000-L (r= -.02, -.02, -.01 respectively) opposite to social-discovery category which had a negative relationship with 2000-L and showed no relationships with the remaining levels (r= -.03, .10, .08 respectively). Besides, the social-consolidation category showed no relationships with all levels of VLT and the total levels (r= .00, .01, .05 respectively). However, memory strategies had no relationships with all levels of VLT except academic level which was a negative relationship (r= .00, .07, .06 respectively). Cognitive and metacognitive category showed negative relationships with all levels of receptive word knowledge and total VLT scores (r= -.06, -.07, -.09 respectively). Finally, the total VLS had negative relationships with all levels except 5000-L, which showed no correlation (r= -.03, -.02, .01 respectively).

The fifth research question regarded to what extent VLS contributes to the VS of Iraqi EFL learners. Multiple regression analysis was utilized to demonstrate whether there was a contribution between the independent variable (VLS) and dependent variable (total VLT scores). Table 17 represents the results of the multiple regression analysis of VLS which contributed to the receptive VS of Iraqi EFL learners.

Table 5

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Model</th>
<th>R</th>
<th>R Square</th>
<th>Adjusted R Square</th>
<th>Std. Error of Estimate</th>
<th>Durbin Watson</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>44 items of vocabulary learning strategies</td>
<td>0.533a</td>
<td>0.28 4</td>
<td>-0.154</td>
<td>5.98</td>
<td>2.100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

a. Predictors: (Constant)
b. Dependent Variable: VS
As seen in Table 5, the value of R Square is (0.284); which signifies the obtained model explained 28.4% of the variance in Iraqi EFL learners’ levels of receptive vocabulary size. In other words, it means the predictor variables were able to account for 28.4% of the variance of VLT scores. The findings of multiple regression showed that VLS was predicted a moderate extent to increase and contribute Iraqi EFL learners’ receptive vocabulary size.

Discussion
The findings of research question one showed that memory strategies were employed most frequently by participants compared to other strategies. Schmitt (2000) claimed that learners with lower proficiency levels prefer to use memory strategies because memorization techniques will have better results for them. This indicates that the students continue to utilize rote memorization during the English language-learning process. The result is in alignment with those of Gu and Johnson (1996) as well as Schmitt (1997), who assert that repetition strategies are among the most frequently used strategies.

The findings, which showed that all social strategies were least used by Iraqi EFL learners, are in line with those of Zarafshan (2002) and Sarani and Kafipour (2008). Zarafshan (2002) investigated why Iranian EFL learners did not prefer to use social strategies. Zarafshan stated that curriculum design did not promote collaborative and social learning. One reason behind this could be the fact that their teachers adhered to traditional, teacher-centered methods rather than collaborating or group learning. Moreover, the number of students (40 or more) in one class could be a reason for the infrequent use of social strategies such as working in a group to discover the meaning of new words. Schmitt (1997) emphasized that social strategies often are not employed in an EFL environment in which communicative social situations do not occur. In sum, Iraqi EFL learners mostly prefer to use consolidation strategies rather than discovery strategies.

The findings of research question two revealed that the total level of students’ VLS use in this study was moderate in all VLS categories, except in the social-discovery category. The cognitive category had a higher mean score when compared to the use of other VLS categories. These findings are inconsistent with the results of Zarafshan (2002), Kafipour (2010) and Kafipour et al. (2011), who investigated the use of VLS among Iranian undergraduates and Sahbazian (2004) who investigated VLS use among Turkish learners. They discovered that determination and memory strategies were most frequently used by their participants. Gu and Johnson (1996) mentioned that the learners whom prefer to use cognitive strategies have insufficient general language proficiency, which might affect the participants of the current study, as well. Cognitive strategies are similar to memory strategies, but they require less mental processes to memorize words, this might be a reason why students utilized this category, as teachers already provided the words and their meanings. The moderate usage level of Iraqi EFL learners concerning VLS does not exceed 3.0, and it is close to the low level. The finding of total VLS use is consistent with the findings of Zarafshan (2002), Kafipour (2010), who found that Iranian EFL learners moderately use VLS in the process of vocabulary learning.

The findings of research question three demonstrated that the learners’ levels of VLT scores in this study declined across the frequency levels from highest to the lowest, as they were used to encountering more high-frequency words at the 2000 level and low-frequency words at
the 5000 level. This finding is consistent with those of Nation (1990) and Schmitt et al., (2001). According to Nation (1990), students who have sufficient knowledge of 2000-level and 3000-level word families are able to understand authentic material. They can also easily guess the meaning of unknown words from context. This might be a reason why Iraqi EFL learners did not prefer to use this strategy. The students in the present study had the least vocabulary knowledge at the 5000 level; besides, the students’ academic level in the present study is below 50%, which means that the students could not understand half of the texts that were given to them by their university.

The findings of research question four showed that the memory strategy is mnemonic, as they aid students in learning the words and remembering them for later use in communication (Schmitt, 1997). This might be attributed to the fact that learners gain benefit from these strategies, such as passing their quizzes and exams. The findings of memory strategies are in line with those of Gu and Johnson (1996) who found that mnemonic devices were correlated with the VS of Chinese EFL learners.

Cognitive and metacognitive categories demonstrated negative relationships with the levels of VLT and total VLT. This might be due to the fact that participants are still dependent learners and they must be taught how to best develop their methods for learning vocabulary terms. While cognitive strategies were used more frequently by participants, this might be due to their using these strategies insufficiently and in unsystematic ways (O’Malley and Chamot, 1990).

The findings of research question five revealed that to what extent Iraqi EFL learners’ VLS use predict and contribute learners’ receptive vocabulary size. The findings indicate that VLS contribute an average extent to Iraqi EFL learners’ receptive word knowledge. Fan (2015) found that VLS used by Chinese EFL learners predict lower extent toward VS which is inconsistent with the finding of this study. Vocabulary knowledge of students can be increased quickly by correct and extensive use of VLS (Schmitt, 1997). Cognitive, memory and determination strategies were the most frequently employed strategies of participants in the current study, and they were moderate VLS users. However, this might not cause learners’ VLS to have a positive relationship or contribute to learners’ total VS. Such findings are one of the reasons why Oxford (2001) claimed that the frequency use of strategy and its contribution and percentage should be determined at the beginning of the course to enable teachers to gain the best outcomes of their instruction. She also emphasized making students aware of the strategy use as well as to use those strategies effectively help them to manage their strategy use and improve their learning process.

**Conclusion**

The findings of this study demonstrated that the most frequently used strategies were consolidation strategies and the least frequently employed strategies were social discovery and social consolidation strategies. The findings showed that Iraqi EFL learners at the University of Sulaymaniyyah are moderate VLS users. This indicates that they require more training on VLS, especially in terms of discovery strategies since an active learner is someone who prefers all strategies during his or her learning process to a high degree (Oxford, 2001). The findings indicated that Iraqi EFL learners had sufficient vocabulary knowledge at the 2000 levels, 3000 levels, and academic levels, but they had insufficient vocabulary knowledge of 5000-level word families.
The findings demonstrated that Iraqi EFL learners’ VLS were negatively, moderately and positively in correlation with their VLT. However, there is not a strong positive correlation between Iraqi EFL learners’ VLS use and their VLT. Besides, memory and social-discovery category indicated that there are better correlations with VS when compared to other strategies. The findings also indicated that to what extent VLS predict and contribute Iraqi EFL learners VS. It showed that the VLS predict an average extent to learners’ receptive word knowledge. As a result, learners can utilize to diversity of VLS to have better extent for increasing their VS

**Implications of This Study**
The results of this study showed that Iraqi EFL learners use VLS moderately. A valuable recommendation for these learners is to be aware of the advantages of using different kinds of VLS. Moreover, Iraqi EFL learners can attempt to use various VLS in order to enrich their vocabulary knowledge. This study also has pedagogical implications related to Iraqi EFL learners’ vocabulary knowledge. According to the findings of this study, the participants’ vocabulary knowledge is low; therefore, a recommendation for Iraqi EFL learners is to concentrate on learning high-frequency words. These words can be included in their curriculum through daily texts and discourse in order to develop their receptive vocabulary knowledge. Another possible recommendation for the learners whom have low levels of vocabulary knowledge is that they should try to maximize their VS through using direct VLS such as word lists of frequency words.

The results also demonstrated that the learners’ VLS use was not sufficiently correlated with their vocabulary knowledge. As a result, this study suggests that more strategic training should be included in curriculum and learners should be taught VLS in a systematic way. Nation (1990) suggested a strong reason for teaching vocabulary in a systematic and principle way. The findings also showed that social strategies and memory strategies had a better relationship with VS compared to other strategies. In addition, the total VLS showed a moderate contribution to VS. These strategies are considered as good and appropriate strategies for learners to increase their vocabulary knowledge.

**Note:** This article is extracted from a MA thesis written by the first and supervised by the second author.

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Neutralizing the Uncanny through Culturally Relevant Teaching
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Abstract
At the height of the Roman Empire’s power, Marcus Aurelius, emperor and stoic philosopher, identified his positionality as neither Athenian nor Roman but rather as “a citizen of the universe.” For a man of his time, power and privilege to have been able to think beyond himself, in terms of the global rather than the local, suggests that he had benefited immensely from the guidance and wisdom of teachers, who through culturally relevant instruction imparted an awareness and holistic appreciation of the value of all of humankind. As one observes the multitude of current global conflicts, one questions why humanity has not been able to move beyond petty grievances to achieve the equitable global harmony and citizenship that Aurelius aspired to so long ago. Motivated by the purpose of improving academic, economic, and social equity, this exploratory essay examines historic and current North American pedagogical theories of culturally responsive teaching practices with the juxtapositional purpose of examining and evaluating the best method for minimizing Drs. Ernst Jentsch and Sigmund Freud’s theories on the uncanny and the uncanny valley-effect phenomena—the objective being the discovery of improved teaching praxis to minimize educational and social cognitive dissonance in refugee, immigrant, minority, and socioeconomically subordinate students both domestically and internationally.

Keywords: cultural competency, international education, teacher training, uncanny

“As seen from the outside, the massive upheaval in Western society is approaching the limit beyond which it will become ‘meta-stable’ and must collapse.”
-Solzhenitsyn, The Camp of the Saints, 1973

Introduction
The days of individual nation states choosing to exist in self-sufficient, privileged isolation are long since past. Over the past 24 months, the world has observed with respective mouths agape the mass migrations of desperate populations of peoples from Syria, Iraq, as well as North and Sub-Saharan Africa in numbers never before seen. Not since the end of World War II circa 1945, have populations of such diverse cultural, religious, linguistic and ethnic origins been displaced in such numbers. As a direct result, modern technological societies are now tasked with trying to assimilate massive numbers of culturally, religiously, socio-linguistically, and economically diverse populations into their own highly entrenched hierarchical sociocultural and arguably hegemonic systems.

To make matters more complicated, the ready availability of mass transportation and advanced technology facilitates these waves of migration and possibly even fosters and fuels the fires of continued diaspora of other Third World peoples, resulting in a steady flood of refugees and immigrants placing an unsustainable onus of receivership and good stewardship upon those countries and peoples whose borders are now being breached by the “tired, poor and huddled masses that are yearning to breathe free” (Lazarus, 1883).

If the everyday feeding, clothing, sheltering, and providing of basic medical care to these new arrivals were not taxing enough, these countries of receivership are now also tasked with identifying and remediating the future needs of their new countrymen. To meet these needs, these countries must now create new systems or revise traditionally engrained societal mechanisms to provide the tools (read: education) that these new arrivals require to access the language, culture, and skills necessary for successful incorporation into a first world way of life.

Assuming the best efforts of all parties involved are put forth, there will inevitably exist intangible phenomena that will retard the successful acclimation and assimilation of these groups and their progeny into the societal mainstream of each particular first world nation state. Of these phenomena, those that should be of particular heightened interest to pedagogues and that ought to be considered most necessary for immediate resolution or addressment are the requirements necessary for improving pedagogical praxis to better address these receiver nations’ new national demographics. Through improved pedagogical praxis i.e., culturally relevant teaching, the presence of the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect of these newly arrived peoples can be addressed, minimized, or mitigated, thereby offering the best and most equitable access to future opportunities, a belief supported by multiple studies that demonstrate that when teachers recognize the differences in students’ linguistic, cultural, and experiential backgrounds as instructional resources and incorporate them into their pedagogy and curriculum, students experience greater learning growth (González, Moll, & Amanti, 2005; Ladson-Billings, 1995; O. Lee, 2002; Lucas, Henze, & Donato, 1990; Nieto, 2002).
Incumbent in this process is also the requirement that the chronological age of these refugees, immigrants, or newly arrived minority or subordinate group peoples be considered. The age of many of these new arrivals will obviously preclude them from attending primary schools where their initial uncanniness and the subsequent uncanny valley effect phenomena could be addressed or minimized over a more natural or extended period of time. For these newly arrived adults, who like their children are now facing the uncanniness of attempting to assimilate into a new culture, new language, and new systems, the education they are most likely to receive will occur or be presented to them via secondary or tertiary school faculty and curricula. Because of this, one imagines that additional inherent difficulties will exist in rectifying or remediating the already established or entrenched cultural biases or perspectives that might, if not superscribed, limit future opportunities at success.

Of course, it is not merely the refugee, immigrant, minority, or socioeconomically subordinated other that will benefit from improved teacher cultural competency. Uncanniness and the uncanny valley effect phenomena will also have to be addressed to overcome the engrained perspectives of native-born traditionalist or nationalists who imagine and profess that new arrivals, minorities, and others must renounce their belief systems to fit the contemporary culture of education (Pewewardy, 1993, p. 455) if they have any true desire to assimilate into the dominant cultural paradigm. Of course, suggested or demanded abdication of historic cultural values is unimaginable, and untenable, and the objective should instead be a pedagogically guided professional-educational attempt at a successful amalgamation of cultures. The question then becomes how modern societies can best and most successfully deliver this new culturally appropriate curricula to students, regardless of age, who are experiencing this uncanniness, while simultaneously training, empowering, or creating culturally competent or “canny” instructors who will work to minimize or mitigate the gaps between these new arrivals who possess their own intrinsic cultural values and systems and those nativist value systems of the home country.

To achieve this objective, this exploratory essay will examine established North American culturally competent teaching practices, focusing on the United States, because it has traditionally possessed a larger, more diverse demographic composition than its traditionally insular European counterparts. By examining and borrowing from historic practices, one hopes that a novel means for minimizing the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect phenomena in educational practice, as identified by Ollivier (2017), and can be identified and addressed. One also imagines that through combined efforts, newly arrived refugees, immigrants, minorities, and socioeconomically subordinate others and their new host nations can develop mutually accepted awareness of these phenomena and collaboratively develop new culturally competent practices that will ensure that all parties are working with parallel objectives of success in mind.

These objectives should be the establishment of a culturally competent and successful educational amalgamation that will prove most beneficial by addressing the greatest good of the many peoples that it hopes to serve, while simultaneously avoiding the pitfalls of antiquated prejudices of the past. To ensure this success, government policymakers and educators must work collaboratively to understand what is truly necessary for these changes to occur. Only by engaging appropriately trained academics in the policymaking process can governments avoid the negative consequences of selecting inappropriate pedagogical patterns or techniques that have failed
previously-and instead focus and pursue those objectives that are the most likely to generate success.

To realize this success, it is prudent to locate, cultivate, and produce educators who are qualified and willing to work toward securing these objectives. To do so, the Academy should consider drawing experience and expertise from within those demographically diverse groups considered uncanny or “other” that are currently struggling to successfully integrate into modern, westernized societies (Ollivier, 2017). Logic suggests that the most qualified candidates to lead a pedagogical culturally relevant renaissance are those same people who have experienced, been subjected to, and successfully transcended the uncanny experience and “othering” meted out by dominant hegemonic systems. Because these people have already demonstrated an ability to successfully navigate their way through these restrictive educational systems, they are potentially best suited to lead this new global pedagogical reformation.

The sort of people who should be considered part of the vanguard of this pedagogical reformation movement are those members of recent generations of the uncanny globalized other of which the author is definitely a part. For purposes of explanation, this belief is supported by those experiences acquired as the adopted Hispanic son of Anglo parents, raised and educated internationally in Mozambique, Saudi Arabia, Republic of Congo, and Spain. These multilingual and multicultural experiences demanded that the author learn to navigate and master the channels of the uncanny, the uncanny valley effect, and skirt North American teacher cultural incompetency while successfully advancing through the minefield of the Anglocentric-American educational system.

Notwithstanding all statistical probability to the contrary, as supported by the 2013 data report by the National Center for Education Statistics (NCES), which identifies Hispanic educators and professors as comprising only 4% of the national average, the author earned academic credentials in International Studies, Secondary Education, Spanish, and English, which allowed him to secure international secondary school employment and subsequent cultural experiences in Korea, Japan, Bolivia, India, and mainland China. Although these successes may make him an outlier domestically, because of globalization, a multitude of uncanny, educated, multilingual professionals currently exist whose academic backgrounds and abilities to surmount systemic barriers mirror his own. These uncanny others are precisely who should be incorporated into the ranks of the teaching profession because they possess the requisite backgrounds and positionalities to redress the topics and policies necessary for improving teacher cultural competency. Instead, they continue to face stubborn resistance from inveterate pedagogues and policymakers who fail to recognize that these young, highly educated, multilingual, global professionals are the key to bridging the gaps between traditional hegemonic pedagogical paradigms and newly imagined, albeit uncanny, globally directed culturally competent teaching. Until these uncanny pedagogical gaps are recognized, explored, and paired with improved culturally competent teaching practices, it is likely that the uncanny valley effect and its accompanying cognitive dissonance will remain a hurdle, limiting or preventing educational and professional equity, domestically and internationally.
Discussion

Based on the introductory, albeit theoretical information provided above, and for purposes of clarity in this exploratory essay, it is first necessary to identify and define “cultural competency” before attempting to address and subsequently minimize the presence of the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect that exist in and plague multiple academic settings. For the purposes of this essay, cultural competency will be defined as the “combination of skills, abilities, and knowledge needed to perform a specific task” (Houston, 1974, p. 32). Teacher cultural competency-based initiatives then are or will be those actions or practices implemented by primary and secondary schools and their respective faculty, directed at defining, assessing, and refining cultural competencies across their respective school systems in a way that will allow faculty and students the best chance of generating safe spaces where this amalgamation of cultural competencies and curricula can be explored, decided upon, and put into effect. Good practice suggests that this plan to apply improved teacher cultural competency to offset the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect be initially implemented as a pilot project but also recognizes that it could set the stage as a template for other programs to mimic or follow.

Because of the breadth and scope of the material relating to the topic of teacher cultural competency, it seems best to select and briefly discuss a few seminal texts and incorporate passages from other articles and journals to substantiate the generally recognized themes considered pertinent and applicable to these coupled topics. Foremost, in this exploration, is the recognition of W. Robert Houston’s text Exploring Competency Based Education (1974). This highly influential text stated: “The movement toward cultural competency based and/or performance based education now permeates every aspect of American education.” (p. 36) By the fall of 1972, Houston identified that 17 U.S. states had devised teacher certification procedures based on the CBE/PBE concept (Competency Based/Performance Based), which addressed the need for teacher education programs to develop an awareness of “cultural competence” that would provide teachers with the tools necessary to interact effectively with students of different cultural, ethnic, or socioeconomic backgrounds. In his text, Houston (1974) shares his belief that improved teacher cultural competency was the bridge between traditional measures of student achievement and a future learning revolution. Current global conditions prove that Houston could not have been more correct in his assessment, and when his idea is juxtaposed with the modern problems of how to best improve globalized education, his statement that “A person can no more perform what he doesn’t know than he can come back from where he hasn’t been” (p. 38) resonates all the more significantly.

Houston argues that to be successful in diverse classrooms, educators must first understand why it is vital to evaluate and implement cultural competency-based initiatives in their respective primary and secondary schools, particularly if they ever hoped to determine or achieve culturally competent teaching success. The primary reason posited at the time, which in hindsight highlights the crux of our current problem, was that dominant or hegemonic culture faculty-driven identifications, articulations, and expectations of suitable cultural competency levels informed and guided the basis of subsequent assessments at the course, program, and institutional levels. Houston also posited that these dominant culture-specific competencies, determined by dominant culture faculty and other stakeholders, such as future employers and government policymakers, drove the development and implementation of a monocultural specific understanding about the
specific skills and knowledges that primary school and secondary school students should master during and as a result of their learning experiences.

Assuming that primary school and secondary school faculty used a formalized process to collect feedback about what the student competencies should be, then the culture-specific future stakeholders would be more likely to accept and value them. Houston also hypothesized that specific dominant-culture competencies provided direction for faculty members in the designing of learning experiences and assignments that were believed to help students gain practice via the using, applying, and replicating of these unidirectional competencies through a variety of academic, social, and professional contexts.

Using Houston’s report’s findings as a leaping-off point, this exploratory essay means to help drive or guide the production of a contemporary plan that can and will serve as a hands-on resource for internationally and globally aware primary and secondary school practitioners who seek to develop, implement, or refine their own respective teacher-cultural competency-based initiatives that minimize the presence of the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect’s cognitive dissonance to improve refugee, immigrant, minority and subordinate other’s academic success rates. To achieve this end, a variety of multiple case studies and respective academic articles were reviewed, condensed, and synthesized with the hope of identifying practices that could help minimize the uncanny and its subsequent educational effect disparities.

By identifying and incorporating the possible presence of the uncanny and uncanny valley effect phenomena into this conversation, a novel perspective and examination of earlier practices is now possible and should help generate new potential pathways toward improving pedagogical cultural competency praxis with the purpose of minimizing the uncanny valley effect that plagues primary and secondary educational institutions throughout the United States and their equivalent international institutions. Although this exploratory essay may yield only a few new insights, one should be assured by the knowledge that a review of current or common practices from a new perspective or through this new, uncanny lens will be beneficial to those educational professionals who remain dedicated to improving teacher cultural competency-based initiatives.

Of foremost importance in the pursuit of this improved teacher cultural competency is that educational professionals possess a desire and willingness to understand and implement new cultural competency-based initiatives. If this is to be the objective, then as previous literatures suggest, educator preparedness programs must recognize the crushing imperative to prepare all teachers, regardless of race, socioeconomic or cultural background, to teach in what we can anticipate being increasingly culturally diverse classrooms. The structure of these teacher-preparedness program revisions must be “holistic, integrated and comprehensive” (Winfield, 1985, p. 52) and must consider the diversity, composition, and future changes in the demographic composition of primary and secondary student populations. To achieve this end, it would be wise for university-based teacher preparedness programs to work in conjunction or collaboration with existing, well-established international schools, thereby better preparing future teachers to work domestically and internationally. Additionally, to effect the sort of changes that this topic addresses, teacher education programs should also consider implementing the following fundamental recommendations (produced over the previous 30 years), for revising the curriculum
and structure of teacher education programs so that new teachers will be better qualified to instruct any and all students under any given circumstance or situation (Manning, 1985, p. 34). Therefore, if policymakers and pedagogical professionals believe that the aforementioned argument and data are sound, then the following recommendations should be evaluated and considered to determine if they possess the merit necessary for pedagogical and culturally competent reformation.

To achieve the identified objectives, the following items are suggested:

- Senior administrators must be recognized as public advocates, leaders, and facilitators for creating institutional cultures that are open to change, willing to take risks, and foster innovations by providing real incentives for participants.
- Global business stakeholders must fully participate and advocate for the need to better identify and define a consensus about the need for cultural competency.
- Cultural competencies must be clearly defined, understood, and accepted by relevant global stakeholders.
- Cultural competencies must be defined at a sufficient level of specificity that can be assessed and recognized by international educational institutions.
- Multiple assessments of cultural competency will be crafted and will provide useful and meaningful information relevant to decision-making or policy-development contexts.
- Internationally comprised faculty and staff must fully participate in making decisions about those assessment instruments used to measure desired specific cultural competencies.
- The precision, reliability, validity, credibility, and costs will be considered and examined in making selections about the best commercially developed assessments and/or locally developed approaches.
- Culturally competent-based educational initiatives will be embedded within larger internationally and institutional-based planning processes.
- Assessments of cultural competencies are and will be directly linked with the goals and ambitions of internationally based learning experiences.
- Assessment results will be used to make critical decisions about strategies necessary to improving international and culturally based student learning practices.
- Assessment results will be clear and reported in meaningful ways so that all relevant global stakeholders fully understand the findings.
- Institutions will experiment with new ways to document students’ mastery of cultural competencies that supplement traditional academic transcripts.

These recommendations were generated, compiled, and revised from multiple texts written by a spate of academics over the past 30 years. Of course, some texts that predate that time period, but for the purpose of addressing these relatively current research and development options, as well as for the purpose of efficacy, articles had to be selectively limited.

One of the articles deemed pertinent and selected for review is *Preparing Teachers for Culturally Diverse Classrooms*, by Garibaldi (1992), which said that it is critical that teachers be exposed to a wide variety of liberal arts and science courses during their undergraduate training because “The latter core requirements are essential for every pre-service teacher since it is that substantive knowledge that must be conveyed to elementary and secondary students.” Once
prospective teachers have mastered these areas or “cores” of content knowledge, they are considered “ready” to learn and to apply the general and specific foundations and behavioral aspects of teaching. However, as they acquire this professional knowledge and become familiar with a variety of methodological and pedagogical techniques, they must also be instructed to recognize that the practice of teaching is influenced by many “contextual factors.” These factors include, but are not limited to, racial, cultural, and linguistic background differences, ability, and motivational levels of the students, the geographic or sociocultural setting of the school (rural, urban, or suburban), and the adequacy or amount of available instructional resources (textbooks, equipment, laboratories, class size, etc.)

For these reasons, Garibaldi and his contemporaries have argued that the professional preparation of teachers must include additional academic knowledge related to diversity and multicultural contexts that can be incorporated into their professional educational curricula as well as into their clinical teaching experiences. The question then becomes what does this additional academic knowledge or course work look like when located within the parameters of increasingly diverse globalized and uncanny academic settings? Perhaps teacher preparedness programs should require additional classroom training to include international studies, foreign languages, and global histories to better provide new teachers with the supplemental knowledge they require to work with, and teach (read: acculturate) children and adults who increasingly come from culturally, racially, and socioeconomically diverse, or otherwise uncanny backgrounds.

Paralleling the Garibaldi’s argument is Donna Gollnick’s *Understanding the Dynamics of Race, Class, and Gender* (1998), which shares her theories, based primarily on (Banks, 1988), that the ethnic, linguistic, and class differences of students must be valued as teachers try to provide the best education for all students. Gollnick (1998) emphasizes that intrinsic to education is the idea that multicultural and cultural competency are significant for all students, yet simultaneously she argues that perhaps more importantly is teacher awareness and classroom recognition that cultural competency and diversity awareness are “critical in culturally diverse communities” and that those students who come from or are newly arrived from communities with broad cultural diversity must learn or be taught to incorporate the larger aspects of the host nation’s history and experiences into their own cultural awareness. Although Gollnick does not identify the uncanny or the uncanny valley effect phenomena by name, her warning that teachers must be wary of categorizing students, and of dismissing individual cultural identities by enforcing a belief in a “single micro-cultural membership” and her emphasis that teachers must maintain a hyper vigilant state while remaining leery of the belief in, or expectation of, certain behaviors that might be considered “inappropriate or incorrect” suggests an awareness of themes that indirectly relate to them.

Gollnick (1998) and her contemporaries warn that teachers must remember that cultural competency demands an awareness that interactions are complex and dynamic and they cite McCarthy and Apple (1988), who clarified that “the operation of race, class and gender relations at the level of daily practices in schools, work places, etc., is systematically contradictory or nonsynchronous.” More precisely, “individuals (or groups) do not share similar consciousness or similar needs at the same point in time,” (p. 23), and as a result the core component to implementing multicultural education and curricula successfully is through integrating race,
ethnicity, and class and gender issues throughout the curricula as well as throughout the customary activities of the institution.

Supporting Vollnick’s theories, Allington (2002) clarified that revisions of teacher training, curricula, and textbooks are essential if the multiple voices, and the educational, psychosocial, and uncanny needs of a culturally diverse community are to be recognized and addressed. In short, arguing that the school setting itself should become the model for human rights, and if policy becomes the norm, “In time, education itself would become a transformative force in the community” (Sleeter & Grant, 1988, p. 55). To achieve this understandable and desired outcome, the argument de rigueur holds that the preparation of teacher candidates must be reconceptualized and that the Academy and its faculty must engage in offering courses that simultaneously provide broad knowledge-based understanding of how to incorporate cultural differences, influences, voices, and perspectives as well as provide the training necessary for minimizing the “impact of racism, sexism, and classism on schooling and society” (Catterall, 1988, p. 12) if there is to be any hope of developing canny, fledgling teacher candidates.

Through redesigned and successful cultural competency training, teacher candidates will learn how to overcome their own as well as others’ discriminatory pedagogical practices, while also acquiring a global awareness via “multiple opportunities to observe and practice nonracist, nonsexist and non-classist teaching” (Calfee, 1998, p. 36), designed by more-seasoned professional educators.

To achieve these objectives, the Academy must determine what constitutes good cultural competence praxis in existing teachers and subsequently identify how teacher education programs can assist new teachers in developing or improving their own cultural competency levels. Siegel (2000) argued that cultural competency reflects preservice teachers’ own abilities and socioeconomic and educational backgrounds. He argued that for fledgling teachers to be successful, they first must be trained to first assess their own cultures and value systems before being taught to recognize and respond to cultural differences in ways that appropriately celebrate the cultural, sociolinguistic, and economic differences of others. Siegel also posited that teacher cultural competency directly relates to preservice teacher’s perceptions, attitudes and dispositions, prior experiences, and the quality of their field placements (Braskamp, 1984, p. 65) all of which are directly applicable to the minimization and eventual mitigation of the uncanny and its subsequent uncanny valley effect.

Although teacher education programs have little control over the experiences causing bias that preservice teachers carry into their course work and field experiences, these course work and field placements do in fact pose a large influence in the shaping of teacher attitudes and dispositions about student cultural diversity. Barnes (2006) found that preservice teachers who volunteer or who actively take part in courses and field experiences that emphasized culturally responsive teaching preferred to focus on course content and pedagogy as opposed to examining their own more intimate and personal dispositions. Although that finding seems on its face to be discouraging, the study inherently and simultaneously suggests that preservice teachers were independently capable of reflecting upon their own perceptions and beliefs about diversity. This led to a greater understanding of the views of others, and especially allowed for the development
of personal openness, self-awareness, and a growing commitment to social justice--despite personal experiential factors, including prior experiences with different cultures and with placement or field experience.

Making the transition from improving teacher cultural competency to improving practices in the classroom, thereby minimizing the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect is the next required step in considering how to best improve overall cultural competency-based development and success benefitting both teachers and students. In the “Curricula for Cultural Literacy,” text Garcia (2005) argues that there is no “one best curriculum for developing literacy or for reflecting diversity” and that instead of a change in pedagogical canon, what is required is a change in attitude, formed by progressive perspectives and grounded in methodologies and 21st century pedagogical thinking. He posited that institutions situated in “White” suburbia encounter difficulties providing diverse field experiences for preservice teachers. As a result, he stressed the importance of diverse placements, arguing that educational institutions must strive to find diverse placements for preservice teachers if they hope to train the next generation of educators to deal effectively with the anticipated forthcoming demographic shift in mainstream American culture. Although some educational institutional programs view these diverse placements as highly desirable, many institutions instead choose to rely on university classroom courses that focus on multiculturalism as stand-ins for real-world experiences otherwise acquired in diverse settings. Simultaneously, many preservice teachers who were interviewed believed that the required courses in multicultural education did not provide them with the practical skills they required to work with students from diverse backgrounds, while at the same time these required courses affirmed their continued belief in the importance of working with diverse populations in their respective fields.

In a similar study designed to explore culturally based biases held by preservice teachers, Moore (2004) found that preservice teachers recognized that their respective biases came from possessing limited cultural experiences and that an increased awareness of their own limited thinking allowed them to find new ways to practice teaching in culturally diverse classrooms and that early acquired experiences in culturally diverse settings or classrooms provided the foundation upon which they built their future course of study.

Tragically, too many teachers are “culturally illiterate and blind,” Austin argued in her (1976) text, and this ignorance leads many teachers to experience “fear, confusion, anger and despair,” feelings eerily comparable to markers identified by Jentsch and Freud in their respective definitions of the uncanny, which if unaddressed, clearly negatively impact the culturally undifferentiated classroom. This lack of culturally competent teaching, the resulting educational psychosocial conflict, and its impact on students, teachers, and institutions alike is well-described and documented in the Irvine (1992) which shares anecdotally how:

A black girl, unlike the white girl, did not share with the teacher an implicit understanding of cultural nuances, gestures and timing, which resulted in frustration and missed opportunities for both parties. In contrast, the white girl’s shared cultural and racial identity with the teacher produced many instances of shared expressed affection and created learning opportunities (p. 15).
The passage above clearly supports the theory that the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect phenomena negatively impact North American learning environments and must be addressed and mitigated by improving culturally competent teaching. The minimization or mitigation of these phenomena requires or demands that faculty and students begin recognizing the presence of these phenomena and adjust their instruction and curricula to accommodate the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect if they hope to correct the resulting cognitive dissonance that presents in multiple academic environments. To be fair, refugees, immigrants, minorities, and socioeconomically subordinate students must also be educated about the presence of these phenomena if there is to be any hope of overcoming them. Simultaneously, academic environments, institutions, and their representative dominant culture faculty must also be restructured or better educated so that their own culturally competent awareness is improved, thereby accommodating these uncanny students, improving academic success rates, and increasing the number of uncanny minority faculty populations.

For this transformation to occur, Mills and Buckley (2014) argue that changes need to be affected at the institutional level, beginning with the adjustment of institutions’ missions and goals to reflect their commitment to a culturally pluralistic campus climate including but not limited to “campus wide academic support systems to promote sensitivity to the special needs of minority students, and internal monitoring and evaluation systems of all such restructuring efforts and outcomes” (p. 20). According to Mills, there are five techniques for accommodating cultural differences during instruction that are recommended practices for teachers who intend to improve their classroom cultural competency. These are:

- Initiate each new classroom situation by negotiating with students a subculture of learning to fit the needs of that particular group. Be sure that expectations are made public. The negotiating process should include these elements of a culture: value system, worldview, social organization, academic technology, form of governance, language, and key components of the educational process for the new subculture.

- Implement a system of checks and balances by frequently conducting, with the assistance of students, short-term action research on perceptions of verbal and nonverbal putdowns, sarcasm, and inappropriate use of humor. Students may tally or list instances of each behavior that occur during instructor-student interactions over a specified period of time. A reporting system that allows discussion and clarification of misperceptions should be made available to students.

- Distinguish publicly personal opinions from facts and give students the option to agree or disagree. Teachers’ and students' opinions are closely tied to their cultural backgrounds and life ways. To deny students options is to force them to assume another's culture without having an experiential point of reference.

- Strive to see oneself as actually seen by students, not as one desires to be seen. Attempt to determine the reasons for students' perceptions by asking them. Educators must also be ready to hear students' responses and help them to clarify abstract words and broad generalizations. Students should always be required to speak with a high degree of specificity, giving times and places and using specific verbs and adjectives.

- For personal evaluation only, faculty should periodically audiotape their lectures, conversations, and conferences.
Conclusion

According to the literature and research examined, once the identified teacher cultural competency practices were put into effect, there should have been obvious and immediate changes in the academic and social performances of institutions and those students that attended them should have been apparent. However, this did not prove to be the case, and unfortunately, more than 30 years after the publication of Exploring Competency Based Education, the data compiled and distilled seems to suggest that all mitigating factors can be condensed into one common theme, the role and impact of the teacher in the process. The data suggests that a top-down dominant culture directed educational reform movement thus far has not been effective. Therefore, the solution must lie in a bottom-up revolution of sorts, one that is teacher enforced and designed to affect change one classroom or crop of students at a time.

According to Shyman and Hargreaves (2013), the teacher is the ultimate key to educational change and school improvement. Teachers do not merely deliver the curriculum they develop, define, and interpret it too. It is what teachers think, what they believe, and what they do at the level of the classroom that ultimately shapes the kind of learning that students receive (p. 43). Therefore, the research suggests that teacher cultural competency must be the focus area and that this cultural competency training or improvement must be a mandatory and more intensively encouraged priority of teacher educational training, particularly if it is the teachers themselves who are expected to play an active and significant role in affecting the changes in the society that pedagogical reformers and global corporate stakeholders expect to see. According to existing literature, if society imagines an inclusive school or classroom to be the place where all students can make evaluation-based progress while simultaneously receiving appropriate support from culturally competent teachers and staff, then new canny culturally competent curricular benchmarks need to be developed, and it is these new, improved benchmarks that educational institutions and pedagogues need to refine and develop if they hope to begin working toward and overhauling a clearly antiquated conceptual, procedural, curricular, and educational system that thus far has failed to be effective.

These previously noted and recognized techniques for improving teacher cultural competency appear to identify the most current pedagogical praxis reform suggestions available, while simultaneously, albeit unknowingly, identifying how best to minimize or mitigate the uncanny and uncanny valley effect. Based upon the past three decades of material read, reviewed, and analyzed, this author believes that he has successfully identified the paramount academic suggestions and posits that those made by Mills and identified above are the most comprehensive and solid methodological and pedagogical theories of the day.

These suggestions appear to condense the findings of the previous three decades of epistemological thought and practice, and it is these suggestions that the author believes offer the best hope of minimizing or neutralizing the presence of the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect in dominant culture-designed and driven educational institutions.

Therefore, by identifying the uncanny and the uncanny valley effect phenomena that exist within and currently plague our educational institutions, and by addressing and attempting to modify teacher cultural competency, it is the author’s hope that new or improved pedagogical
practices or praxes can be effected and that maybe teachers can begin to “be the change [they] hope to see in the world” (Gandhi, 1938). Of course, one recognizes that there is still a very long way to go to achieve an enlightened understanding of what the best cultural competency practices look and sound like. Arguably, there may never be a solution that works comprehensively with all students all of the time, but because teaching is a “practice,” one that improves with consistency, frequency, patience, and time, we can remain eternally encouraged by the promise of an exciting and more globally humanistic future, one in which we can all play a substantial and active role.

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Neutralizing the Uncanny through Culturally Relevant Teaching

Ollivier-Garza


approaches to race, class, and gender. Columbus, OH: Merrill.
Negotiation and Impoliteness Strategies in Saudi and Australian Postgraduate Students’ Emails

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Abstract
Although negotiation via email takes place every day between students and their supervisors/lecturers, the processes underlying these negotiations have been largely neglected in research to date. Further, there is a need to investigate the linguistic email communication problems that Saudis encounter when they study abroad. This study aims to identify the dominant features of email communication of twenty Saudi and Australian post-graduate students with their lecturers. The research sought to understand the following: to what extent negotiation moves differ from one group to another; if there is a significant difference between the two raters when rating native speakers (NS) versus non-native speakers (NNS); whether there is a significant relationship between students’ scores and total number of words used in negotiation moves; the most important moves that might have affected the raters’ decisions when giving the highest scores versus the lowest scores; and whether there is difference between total scores of NS and NNS. Whereas the qualitative analysis employed (im)politeness as the theoretical framework, the quantitative analysis focused on the moves used by students in terms of context, proposal, justification, options, and requests. It was found that NS and NNS had similar likelihoods of gaining higher grades when using more details. When both NS and NNS failed to employ a focus-on-context move, they were likely to fail in their negotiations. International students need to be encouraged to give more detailed explanations to improve their negotiation techniques. Pedagogical implications include greater insights into the appropriate use of email negotiation strategies between students and their lecturers.

Keywords: academic negotiation, gender differences, (im)politeness in email communication, (im)politeness strategies, negotiation moves

1. Introduction

It is increasingly being realized that academic background knowledge is reflected through the various social practices in academic communities (Hyland, 2008). When post-graduate students communicate with their lecturers, they not only exchange information, but also project an image of themselves (Sproull, Kiesler, & Kiesler, 1992). With the explosive growth of the Saudi King Abdullah Scholarship program which each year sends thousands of Saudi students overseas, there is a need to investigate the linguistic email communication problems that Saudis encounter when they study abroad. The ultimate goal of the scholarship is not limited to broadening students’ horizons but also to prepare them for a globalized and multicultural world.

According to the Saudi Arabian Cultural Mission in Australia, there are about 12,000 Saudi students studying in Australia. This study aims to investigate how Saudi and Australian students use appropriate language of negotiation by identifying their negotiation moves and (im)politeness strategies. It offers a new insight in terms of examining how these students with their different Saudi and Australian perspectives negotiate academic requests via email at a multicultural Australian university. Any miscommunication caused in their interactions may have negative consequences for one or both parties. Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011) argues that communication failure in emails between students and their lecturers could have a negative impact on students’ academic progress. Furthermore, in some extreme cases students could be led to either change universities or withdraw from their studies. Deviation from the norms of email communication in academia can also lead to the dismissal of an academic, as happened recently at The University of Auckland (Haugh, 2010): an academic, whose email interactions with a student were made public was dismissed due to an impolite email sent while a student was negotiating an extension for submitting an assignment. This incident has evoked an online debate and raised awareness of appropriateness regarding emails in academia (Haugh, 2010). Turban, King, Lee, and Viehland (2006) also argue that the question of how to conduct negotiation via email is of great theoretical and practical importance. It is important to note that email interactions have rarely been investigated from a negotiation or persuasion perspective especially in academia where language use and e-communication strategies play a major role in educational settings (Waldvogel, 2007).

This paper identifies the dominant features of twenty Australian native speakers’ (NS) and Saudi Arabian non-native speakers’ (NNS) negotiation strategic moves in email correspondence with their tutor over the topic of a mark-improvement-request, a stimulus situation. As in the existing literature, all of the correspondents are postgraduates who are expected to have mastered academic negotiations. The major strategic moves investigated were 1) Proposal, 2) Focus on Context (developed by the researchers of the present study), 3) Justification, and 4) Options and Requests (Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2002). The study reported here provides insight into the appropriate use of negotiation strategies between students and their lecturers, whether NS or NNS students, when they are negotiating academic issues of concern to them.

2. Literature review

Negotiation, regardless of its focus, is an essential part of everyday life. The exchanges in negotiation typically include action exchanges and knowledge exchanges. Whereas the speakers in action exchanges request the provision of goods or services, in knowledge exchanges they request some information, such as approval of an academic request (González & DeJarnette,
2015). It is acknowledged, however, that cross-cultural negotiation is confusing and hard to achieve, as it implies a full understanding of how other cultures function differently from our own (Cohen, 2001; Zheng, 2015). Since negotiation by itself is a stressful task, the pressure of the task increases when one has to negotiate in a different language (Trosborg, 1989). This is especially true of international NNS studying in an English-speaking country. Learning the strategies adopted successfully by NS might compensate for NNS’ lack of communicative competence in their use of English. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) point out that NNS are more likely to become successful negotiators when they adopt NS’ norms in negotiation strategies and are likely to have fewer rejections.

Since negotiation can only be successful if it entails the use of persuasion to influence the beliefs or the actions of others (Boden, 1995; Young, 1991), NNS are obliged to learn persuasive writing. Hinds (1987) observes that there are cross-cultural differences in the rhetorical structure in the use of persuasive texts. Among the reasons why NNS often lack competitive ability in persuasive writing might be a lack of exposure to the culture of the target language or the absence of instruction in strategic persuasive writing (White, 1989). Moreover Biesenbach-Lucas (2000) states that some international students are unfamiliar with sociolinguistic conventions of e-mail use in an academic setting. Crowhurst’s (1991) study reports empirical research showing that students who receive instruction through a contrastive model of persuasive writing show improvement in their performance. Hence, there is not only a need to investigate students’ writing focusing on persuasion (Ferris, 1994), but also a need to teach them how to master it in times of negotiation.

When analyzing NS and NNS’ persuasive strategies in writing, researchers have found that there is a significant relationship between persuasion and the number of words used in a message. To have persuasive negotiation strategies in an email, a student needs to address all anticipated counterarguments through collapsing all the negotiation moves into one initial message, which might cause the email to be protracted. NNS tend to produce shorter emails (Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2002). A similar finding was reported by Sims and Guice (1992), who examined NS and NNS’ business letters and found that the latter group deviated significantly from the NS group in writing shorter letters. It is not surprising that NNS write subparts of a message; this can be attributed to their own linguistic deficiencies, the different rhetorical structure of their first language (Ostler, 1987), or perhaps time constraints when writing (Ferris, 1994). In addition, Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2002) argue that although NNSs differ from NSs in several ways in their use of negotiation strategies, they are similar in some negotiation moves, such as “context”, but differ significantly in their use of “options.” These investigators concluded that “options” are one of the most efficient moves in online negotiation. Korobkin (2002) believes the differences in findings across many studies could be explained by the fact that negotiation dynamics varied considerably across “contexts”; therefore it is hard to provide a single “script” to instruct negotiators on how to navigate through negotiation. Bloch (2002) investigated international students’ e-mail interactions with faculty, and identified four types: asking for help, making excuses, making requests, and phatic communication. The latter type aims to maintain relationships, rather than to carry real information. A similar category, relationship, is distinguished by Martin, Myers, and Mottet (1999), but is not identified in any of the other studies.
2.1 Email (im)politeness and negotiation discourse

Although email writing is a common practice among academic staff at different levels, surprisingly few research papers addressed the issue of persuasive writing negotiations between academics. However, the use of (im)politeness strategies via email is increasingly receiving scholarly attention. Brown and Levinson (1978) model of politeness has frequently been described as one of the most influential politeness frameworks to emerge from the perspective of linguistic pragmatics and sociolinguistics (Eelen, 2014). Their model is derived from Goffman’s (1955) notion of “face” and ‘conversational logic’ proposed by Grice (as cited in Brown & Levinson, 1978). Since the term politeness by itself might suggest a positive side of the interaction, impoliteness in this project is adopted to reflect the complexity of the interplay between what is deemed polite or impolite, specifically between people from different cultural backgrounds.

While the concept of persuasion/negotiation need be investigated in addition to politeness, other scholars seem to focus merely on politeness. It seems that for linguists, the notion of politeness is the core theoretical framework that is capable of interpreting communicative behavior in computer-mediated communication. Most studies focus in particular on some of the terms and expressions used by international students in their emails, compare them to those used by English speakers, and examine how they pragmatically fail to convey their messages (e.g. Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011). These studies do not focus on the deeper meaning of emails in their holistic and synthetic form. Investigating emails from both linguistic and structural (micro and macro) levels can reveal some essential strategies that international students may lack in sounding convincing. Focusing on both levels results in more profound research outcomes that are useful for international students.

It has been pointed out that any norms for interaction merge with the norms of politeness (Danielewicz-Betz, 2013), which may give scholars enough justification for relying heavily on politeness in investigating different linguistic behavior in students’ emails. There is a possibility that even the most polite email can receive a simple ‘no’ reply if it does not use persuasion. Hence, it is important to focus more on strategic rhetorical behaviour rather than to limit the focus to linguistic choices (Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2002; Bloch, 2002). Studies that analyzed students’ emails from different dimensions, such as focusing on the relationship between their linguistic features and the identity or the cultural determinants of the students have shown interesting results. For example, Luke and Gordon (2012) examined professional identity development via email between supervisors and supervisees in academia and found that the use of certain discourse markers such as “that being said” created solidarity and displayed supervisee competence. They also suggest that inclusive pronouns such as “we” and “our” create a shared alignment of professional needs. When examining student-faculty communication by email, Danielewicz-Betz (2013) took into account various pragmatic markers and cultural determinants of the students’ email communication styles. Among the findings relevant to the present study is that Saudi students use different persuasive tactics to achieve what they want, even if they involve imposition or face-threatening acts, especially when it comes to negotiating grades.

When analyzing electronic discourse communication, a number of scholars have found several significant differences between electronic and face-to-face negotiation (Benbunan-Fich & Hiltz, 1999; Ocker & Yaverbaum, 1999). Kettinger and Grover (1997) state that face-to-face
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Communication is preferable in times of negotiation, while electronic media is better for resolving disagreements. Nonetheless, these studies focus more on non-linguistic aspects of the communication such as the use of power or authority in certain body language behaviour. Generally, there are some suggestions in the existing literature that face-to-face linguistic strategies differ from those that are used online. Language has been ignored in the bulk of current research; in some cases, it “has been relegated to the status of a manipulable independent variable” (Firth, 1995, p. 8). Therefore, the interactional nature of the linguistic aspects of negotiation strategies needs to be addressed in its own right, specifically in relation to NSs and NNSs’ online negotiations.

The main purpose of this paper is to fill the gap in the literature with more insights about the appropriate use of negotiation as well as politeness strategies between students and their tutors, whether NS or NNS, in times of using email correspondence to negotiate academic issues of concern to the students. The findings of the literature review will be compared with those in the present study to confirm similarities or detect inconsistencies. This involves “an analysis of computer-mediated negotiation from a linguistic perspective” following Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth’s (2000, p. 2) category with the minor addition of a focus-on-context move. The backgrounds of the participants in the present study, namely postgraduate students from Saudi Arabia and Australian NS of English, differ from those of the participants in the previously mentioned studies.

3. Methodology
This section presents the methodology of the research study, which includes participants, materials, research questions, and analysis tools.

3.1 Participants
Twenty participants took part in this study: ten native Saudi Arabian postgraduate students and ten Australian postgraduate students. In order to avoid a gender effect, in each group, half of the study participants were males and the other half were females. In order to judge the effectiveness of each group’s negotiation strategies, two English-speaking teachers (one male and the other female), both of whom have at least 8-10 years of experience, participated in this study to evaluate the students’ emails in terms of the persuasiveness of their emails in the negotiations that were raised in them. The rating was from zero to 10/10.

3.2 Materials
Both groups were provided with a stimulus situation, where they were asked to imagine they had received a low grade on an important assignment on which they had worked very hard to gain the best grade possible. The students then wrote an imaginary email to their tutors, trying to persuade them to do something about their grade. A brief description of the purpose of this pilot study was sent to the targeted students’ email accounts with a request for their participation. Those who were interested in participating wrote an imaginary email to their tutors and sent it to the researcher via her email account in which she collected the data for this study. A total of 20 emails were examined. Demographic information was obtained for both the students and the raters.
A sheet was designed on which raters had to score each student’s email on a scale from 0 to 10. In the rating sheet, NS and NNS are not distinguished, as the emails were mixed together; therefore, the raters’ main focus was to look at the content of the emails without recognizing the identity or the background of the writers from either group. However, for purposes of clarifying the findings for readers of the present study, demographic information about each student’s background was collected.

3.3 Research questions

This paper provides answers to the following five research questions:

1) To what extent do negotiation moves differ from one group to another?

2) Is there a significant difference between the two raters (male, female) when rating NS versus NNS?

3) Is there a significant relationship between students’ scores and the total number of words used in negotiation moves?

4) Which are the most important moves that might have affected the raters’ decisions when giving the highest scores versus the lowest scores?

5) Is there any difference in total scores of NS and NNS?

3.4 Analysis tools

The students’ email messages were analyzed according to the presence or absence of the following seven categories of email negotiation moves (S Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2002), in an attempt to evaluate the effectiveness of their techniques. The motivation for the selection of the framework of this research was the lack of linguistic research that categorizes negotiation moves especially where academic email writing is concerned. The categories are defined below:

1) Context: this move gives more details about a specific proposal, which is generally used to reduce uncertainty in negotiation (Lebow, 1996). It was, however, decided to call it focus on context, where students try to focus on a topic by giving their lecturers legitimate reasons for their belief that they deserved a higher grade on an assignment, such as having worked hard to meet the assignment’s requirements;

2) Proposal: in this move, students explicitly state the purpose of their email, such as having received a low grade;

3) Justification: in this move, students justify their general need for high grades, such as their hopes of being accepted into an honors program;

4) Options: this move gives alternative solutions, such as providing more options for solving the current situation;

5) Request for appointment: in this move, students request to a face-to-face meeting with the tutor;

6) Request for improvement: asking for a higher grade; and

7) Request for feedback: asking for feedback to help students understand the reason for a low grade they have received.
In order to take into account the different lengths of the sentences students used in each strategy, it was useful to count the number of words used by both parties in each negotiation move. All the negotiation move choices used in this study were included to investigate which of them had a significant impact on the negotiation; however, the main moves that will be analyzed in detail are Context (“focus on context”) and Options.

3.4.1. Quantitative analysis

Following Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2002), each message in the students’ emails was assigned to one of the negotiation moves mentioned above (context, proposal, justification, options, request for information, request for response, and other requests). Finally, the sentences constituting each move were divided into clauses in order to arrive at an objective means for measuring the degree to which each move was developed. This quantitative part also included two raters to score each email on a scale from 0 to 10 according to the quality of persuasion that it carried.

3.4.2. Quantitative analysis

Some interesting linguistic phenomena from the emails of the two cultural groups will be examined in order to explore cross-cultural differences between Saudi and Australian students. A proportion of the qualitative analysis will be focusing on proposals and requests for a reply in line with Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth’s (2002) analysis who adopted Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford’s (1993) theoretical framework. Further, this paper will also focus on proposals and requests because they are considered to be the most essential moves in email negotiation. Without proposals “the messages under investigation would constitute merely inquiry rather than negotiation” (Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2002, p. 158). It is argued that an explicit request for a reply necessarily includes negotiation, particularly, as Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth believe, with the asynchronous email media.

4. Results

4.1 Quantitative findings

The findings revealed no significant differences between the two raters when rating NS versus NNS, as shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Raters’ total scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Raters’ Gender</th>
<th>NS</th>
<th>NNS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scores</td>
<td>M</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 shows that when rating NS, there was no difference between the two raters (M= 6.3, F=6.3). However, when rating NNS, it can be seen that the female rater gave the students a much lower score. This may represent a gender effect in rating.
The findings showed a great difference between NS and NNS with regard to negotiation moves and total number of words. While most of the NS’ messages negotiated Justification and Option with the tutor, the NNS negotiated Proposal and Justification, as shown in Table 2.

Table 2. Differences between negotiation moves and total word count among NS and NNS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negotiation Move</th>
<th>NS Words</th>
<th>NS %</th>
<th>NNS Words</th>
<th>NNS %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus on context</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>12.42</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>13.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposal</td>
<td>149</td>
<td>15.17</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>22.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justification</td>
<td>281</td>
<td>28.62</td>
<td>176</td>
<td>29.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option</td>
<td>203</td>
<td>20.68</td>
<td>115</td>
<td>19.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for feedback</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>7.02</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for higher grade</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>6.72</td>
<td>81</td>
<td>13.48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for appointment</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>9.37</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>1.67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>982</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>601</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Focusing on the major moves adopted by the students, it is clear from the table that the two groups differed significantly in some of the major moves, namely Justification, Options, Request for Feedback, and Request for Appointment. Overall, NS managed to use a higher number of words on each move, except for requests for feedback and higher grades. NNS used a higher number of words on each move, except for requests for feedback and appointment. Interestingly, none of the NNSs requested feedback, as shown in Error! Reference source not found..

Figure 1. Differences in negotiation moves and total word counts among NS and NNS

Table 3 and Table 4 reveal the moves that might have had the greatest effect on the raters’ decisions when they gave the lowest scores, versus when they gave the highest scores.
Table 3. *Lowest scores for NS and NNS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negotiation Move</th>
<th>NS</th>
<th></th>
<th>NNS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Words</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Words</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on Context</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposal</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.28</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>25.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justification</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>32.85</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15.72</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>30.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for feedback</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for higher grade</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17.15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>12.73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for appointment</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>70</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparing the lowest-scored student negotiation strategies in Table 3 with the highest-scored student negotiation strategies in Table 4 for both groups, it is clear that the students who received the lowest scores did not focus on the context at all (NS= 0, NNS=0), whereas the students who received higher scores were those who did focus on context, using a relatively large word count under that strategy (NS= 33, NNS= 25).

Table 4. *Highest scores for NS and NNS*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Negotiation Move</th>
<th>NS</th>
<th></th>
<th>NNS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Words</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Words</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Focus on context</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>20.50</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>35.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Proposal</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>17.39</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justification</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>28.57</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>30.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Option</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for feedback</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.42</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for higher grade</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>21.12</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Request for appointment</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>161</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Regardless of which students received the highest or lowest scores out of all the participants, the overall difference between NS and NNS is noticeable in relation to the total word counts used in their correspondence. Whereas both native and non-native highest-scored students concentrated on justification and focus on context, the highest-scored NNS did not explicitly request a higher grade. They also did not directly request feedback or an appointment.

4.2 Qualitative findings

Some general but interesting phenomena will be introduced first in this section. For example, even though the role-play email did not require students to write a title for their email, of the 20 participants, one Saudi student wrote the title: *Urgent matter regards to XXX assignment*. In Saudi culture, it is often recommended that people should sometimes exaggerate the importance of their matters to promote actions, lest they not be taken seriously. However, expressing urgency for topics of this kind in an Australian context may not be perceived positively. Levy and Murphy (2006) believe that some words can be added to minimize an imposition and the accompanying illocutionary force, such as “If you have the time, could you send me a copy?” Regarding terms of
address, Rau and Rau (2016) believe that these are considered a move of politeness. The findings showed that students of both cultural backgrounds used the addressing term “Dear” in their emails, which is consistent with students’ general practice when they need to discuss such sensitive issues as a higher grade. Rau and Rau (2016) argue that the use of a particular term of address depends on different factors or modes of communication.

According to Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993), students need to strike a balance between compliance and initiation in their negotiations to reserve their own status and, in certain situations, determine speech acts that are congruent with that status (as illustrated in Figure 2). Some general observations are presented before focusing on the two moves discussed earlier; Proposal and Request for a Reply. This illustration is relevant in understanding how such balance should be maintained in some of the examples provided in this section.

![Figure 2. Status balance for students’ successful academic negotiations](image)

Since two independent academics were recruited to rate the emails of both cultural groups, from the least convincing rated as 1/10 to the most convincing rated as 10/10, the least convincing and the most convincing emails were further investigated by the present researchers. Some persuasive strategies might have influenced the raters’ decisions. The following are the least convincing examples (one from a NS and one from a NNS):

**Lowest scored students, NS and NNS:**

Example NS: My mark for the last assignment was under my expectations ([mark]) and I think you would agree that it could improve.

The native speaker in this instance argued that the lecturer would agree that this grade could improve because it was under her expectations. Despite the fact that the native speaker used politeness strategies through hedging (could/would) and through the inclusive expression I think you would agree that, which mitigates the illocutionary force (Brown & Levinson, 1978), some important negotiation moves were missing. No reasons were given why the lecturer should improve the grade (mark), such as the student having met the general criteria for the assignment, nor was any proposed course of action (option move) proposed for the lecturer to consider. These might be possible reasons why both raters thought this email was the least convincing. The next example is written by a Saudi student:
I had 3 exams in 1 day, which results in lack of time to prepare all subjects. Please help me to improve my mark.

Although the emails in this study were based on a role-playing technique, it is interesting that a couple of Saudi emails focused on excuses rather than focusing on the context, such as evidence of hard work or meeting the assignment criteria. The excuses included being sick, not having enough resources, or, as above, having three exams in one day. This email received the lowest score because it did not provide enough information about why the student wanted a higher grade; neither did it make use of suggestions for some course of action. It was a short appeal that pleaded for the professor’s help rather than initiating options. There were very few politeness strategies to mitigate the interactions. Even the word please in this example has not functioned as a politeness marker, as it was followed by the imperative help me. Some of the UK lecturers commented that “the use of imperative always sounds harsh even when a ‘please’ is added” (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011, p. 14). Another example of a non-native speaker’s email is shown below.

Hi Professor,
I hope you are well, my name is xxx student at your class (Sociolinguistics) and my Id student is 12345. However, I didn’t ask for extension, I kept working on it even I went to ESL for amendment and giving some feedback. I heard about your fairness in grading the essays and about your humanity especially for international students, that’s why I am writing with hope to respond to my appeal. I anticipate hearing from you regarding the above matter.
Regards,
XXXX

Both successful emails were written by female students. This email written by a NNS has got the highest score for being convincing, 8/10, by the male rater, but only 3/10 by the female rater, although, overall in the highest scoring category for a non-native speaker. Although it contained some effective arguments such as having the assignment checked academically by the ESL center (focus on context), the emotional part of it was striking. The female student indicated that she had heard about her lecturer’s “fairness” and “humanity” with international students, which would typically portray her as “appealing for the professor’s charitable assistance” (Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2002, p. 160). She then explicitly requested a reply to her email, which is an important move in email genre. Overall, the student used the core negotiation moves with good “initiation.” However, she failed in terms of the language she used to articulate her demands and overused “compliance,” which may have shaken the status of the student's balance as an independent post-graduate researcher. It seems from this example that the use of the core negotiation moves might encourage some academics to disregard the linguistic features and focus on the content of the effective argument of the student. An example of a native speaker’s email is shown below.

Dear Dr Jones,
I am xxxxx , student number xxxxxxx, and I am writing this letter as a query regarding my first Quan. Methods essay. I am happy to accept your mark, there is no problem about that. However, to obtain a high overall mark in this
subject is important for me in being able to go on to do a minor thesis- as you know, a “B” average is necessary for me to do that, so a “C” is below the mark.

I did read the assignment criteria carefully; I searched the topic widely, and as far as I could see, met the criteria in an appropriate way-but obviously not according to your marking.

Could you please tell me where I went wrong, and what could I have done to improve my submitted essay? Have I misunderstood your meaning in some areas? It’s really important for me to be clear about this, as I must improve what I do for the second and final assignment submission.

I will be grateful for any guidance you can provide in this.
Thanking you in advance,
Yours sincerely,
Xxxxxx

This email had a perfect balance of compliance and initiation as suggested by Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993). It did not contain any direct confrontation; rather the writer suggested that she was happy with the grade given. Like the email of the previous NNS, this student employed all the negotiation moves necessary for this particular genre. She provided reasons why she needed a high grade without actually requesting it, which is under the “justification move.” She then “focused on the context” by providing good justifications such as researching the topic widely and reading the criteria carefully. Further, she used some compliance strategies in the form of questions such as … what could I have done to improve my submitted essay? Have I misunderstood your meaning in some areas? Her message was transmitted delicately, indirectly, and in a very polite manner. Before ending her email, she indicated that she would be grateful for any guidance instead of saying “any feedback on the essay,” which she was hoping to have, what may be called a polite ambiguity. She ended by “Thanking you in advance,” which emphasises the expectation of a reply. This email received the highest score by both raters and by an individual academic who refused to rate all the emails because he believed that no student could negotiate a higher grade with him, but he agreed that this was the only email he could accept.

The following are examples from NSs that focus on two moves, proposal and request for response.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Native Speakers’ Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Would you consider a redraft of the assignment?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>I would like to request more information regarding the grading of the paper as well as more feedback as to why the grade given was deemed suitable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>If you could spare the time to meet with me [Request for Appointment] to discuss this issue, it would be greatly appreciated. If not, if you might refer me to any course of action I might be able to undertake</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. I will be grateful for any guidance you can provide in this.
5. I was therefore wondering if there is something I can do, such as extra work and submissions, [Options] to further my competency in this subject.
6. Am wondering whether I could come and speak to you [Request for Appointment] about this with a view to either having it remarked [Options] or resubmitting a new draft.

The above examples show how native speakers began negotiation by requesting a higher grade. NS used more tentative language than NNS, which not only serves to observe the status difference between students and their lecturers but also helps in generating a course of action. In example 5 above, a native speaker used hedges such as I am wondering and subsequently used whether and either. It seems that a person who uses tentative language is likely to produce one of two different suggestions. In the examples above, most native speakers used hedges such as wondering, would, and if you could, which motivate the speaker to put forward suggestions to open more doors for negotiation. By providing more suggestions (options) to the lecturer, post-graduate students preserve their status as independent scholars in the eyes of their lecturers. In contrast, lacking such initiative and requesting a lecturer to find a solution result in a negative evaluation by the lecturer, and they run the risk of appearing incompetent and failing to carry out the negotiation process further (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990).

**No Non-Native Speakers’ Examples**

1. Please consider this request?
2. I need a higher mark on my essay.
3. I am sure I deserve better than D mark.
4. Please help me to pass this subject.
5. I am seeking your kind help to repeat the exam.
6. Please reconsider my request and retest me in this subject.

When attempting to request a higher grade, Saudi students used more assertive expressions that lack appropriate status-preserving strategies, such as I need a higher mark or I am sure I deserve better than D mark. These expressions have a high degree of imposition and therefore threaten the recipient’s face (Brown & Levinson, 1978). Most interestingly, the tone of these messages ranges between commanding (“I need a higher mark”) and pleading (“[p]lease help me to pass”). Assertiveness and overuse of compliance are unfavorable qualities coming from post-graduate students, who should demonstrate a scholarly position. Therefore, as Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990) argue, students should strive for a balance between compliance and initiative. In a subsequent study, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) suggest that, in order to be good negotiators, NNS should employ more suggestions and fewer rejections. In example 3 above, the student showed a rejection of the grade by asserting that he deserved a better grade. From a negotiation perspective, this can also put Saudi students at a disadvantage, because they neither used options to open up the door for negotiations, nor used successful pragmatic requests. Therefore, “I need a higher mark “or “[a]m seeking your kind help to repeat the exam” are not considered polite, as they present potential threats to the recipient through a negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1978). If the students failed to negotiate successfully, this may have resulted in the
withdrawal of their right to have their opinion considered (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990). Two out of 10 Saudis managed to explicitly request a reply to their emails. However, most of the other emails focused on asking for a meeting time and then completed their emails by thanking the lecturers, expecting that their request for a meeting time is enough for a reply. The explicit expectation of a reply is an important cue in this medium for the negotiated topic to continue. The following examples show how NS employ hedging in their messages.

**No Native Speakers’ Examples**

1. If you could spare the time to meet with me [Request for Appointment] to discuss this issue, it would be greatly appreciated.

2. I will be grateful for any guidance you can provide in this.

3. I would like the opportunity to discuss this matter further with you and am available for a meeting at your earliest convenience.

4. I am wondering whether I could come and speak to you.

5. I would much appreciate any advice/efforts to look into this matter.

6. I was hoping you would consider my request. I look forward to hearing from you.

7. It would be great to discuss this.

8. I nervously await your response.

9. I am aware that you have many commitments but would appreciate a face-to-face meeting.

Hedging is often noted in NS’ messages (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990, 1993) and was also evident in later research by Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2002). Unlike NNS, Native English speakers have a clear range of proposals that are expected initiatives from post-graduate students. Their expressions in wondering about a solution to a low grade typically include a variety of hedges that are not present in NNS’ messages, such as *If you could – I would like the opportunity – I would much appreciate – I was hoping you would consider*, etc.

In general, NS’ requests for responses are tentative and appropriate to both the situation and the medium, except for one instance where the student said she would *nervously await* the lecturer’s response. Overuse of emotional expressions over a higher grade topic may be perceived as infelicitous because it exceeds the congruence maxim and therefore lacks a status-preserving strategy.
5. Discussion

This section includes discussion of the findings and offers some possible explanations, summarized in terms of the five research questions presented in Section 3.3. The discussion is structured both by findings that are consistent with previous studies (Section 5.1) and by those that add new insights in this field (Section 5.2).

5.1 Findings consistent with previous research results

Q.1 To what extent do negotiation moves differ from one group to another?

Observing both groups in terms of their use of different negotiation moves revealed that NS deviated significantly in their employment of “options” from NNS, using 50% more in this move. As Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasonforth (2002) point out, options are the most important move, providing more alternatives and not limiting the tutor’s response to a single point. Other moves showed differences as well. NS outperformed NNS in only one move, the “request for feedback,” which indicates the NNS’ reluctance to make such explicit requests. This finding is in line with those of a number of studies (Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2000; Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2002) where NNS used email mainly to submit the final draft, but not to solicit their instructors’ input. Overall, NS used more extensive negotiation strategies than did NNS.

Q.3 Is there a significant relationship between the students’ scores and the total number of words they used in negotiation moves?

A significant relationship existed between the scores and the number of words in negotiation moves. There is strong evidence that adding more details and information most likely improves the quality of persuasion, as indicated by the fact that the teachers who participated in this study unintentionally gave higher scores to those emails with a higher number of words. What is striking, however, is that this is applicable to NS as well as NNS. Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2002) suggest that NNS always tend to provide brief messages in their emails, which rarely include strong negotiation strategies. Therefore, to appear convincing in their negotiations, it is highly recommend that NNS employ strategies with larger numbers of words.

5.2 Findings that provide newer insights in this field

Q.2 Is there a significant difference between the two raters (male, female) when rating NS versus NNS?

The only significant difference found between raters was in their evaluation of NNS’ emails. The two managed to give NSs fairly similar results. The reason the female teacher gave NNS almost half the score that the male teacher gave (respectively 3 vs. 8 marks out of 10) might be attributed to a gender effect or to the different personalities of the teachers. Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth (2002) indicated that different tutors often have different reactions to students’ emails. Holmes (1995) suggests that women are more sensitive to the language and the feelings rather than the content, whereas men focus on the information. Therefore, the low-scoring NNS used good negotiation moves but failed to pragmatically fulfill the linguistic expectations.

Q.4 What are the most important moves that might have affected the raters’ decisions when giving the highest scores versus the lowest scores?

Despite the fact that “options” was found to be the most significant strategy that gave NS an advantage over NNS in Biesenbach-Lucas and Weasenforth’s (2002) study, the “focus-on-
context” strategy was the most important move affecting the raters’ decisions in the present study. After examining the lowest-scored students and the highest-scored students in both groups, it was found that is obvious that students who managed to “focus-on-context” and provide more evidence in relation to the issue gained higher scores. It is unlikely that other possible negotiation strategies could have affected the raters’ decisions, since the two parties varied distinctively in their use of the other moves. Looking at their “focus-on-context” words, the two students with the highest scores were the only students who used the word “criteria” in their emails, in order to provide evidence that they had applied the criteria for the assignment, this being one of the key issues; the rest of the students did not include this word in their emails. The lowest-scoring students did not mention anything about the past or reasons why they believed they did not deserve a low grade; instead they merely focused on what to do next, using the fewest number of words in their emails. In his book, Korobokin (2002) stressed that negotiators should not simply critically assess what they want to achieve from the negotiation but should also emphasize the relative importance of their various desires. As they were more interested in achieving their future desires, the lowest-scoring students missed the fact that they should draw on “history” and “take into consideration the research [they] have done” (Lewicki, Hiam, & Olander, 1996, p. 18) and offer more reasons for why they think they deserve higher grades.

Q.5 Is there any difference in total scores of NS and NNS?

Both groups differed significantly in the mean average of their scores which proves that NSs employed more negotiation strategies than NNS (Biesenbach-Lucas & Weasenforth, 2002). Furthermore, there is new evidence in this study that the reason that NSs gained higher scores might be attributed to the fact that they used a larger number of words, an old assumption that has long thought to be applied only to NNS, which can also be one of the possible reasons explaining why NSs attained higher grades.

6. Conclusion

It has been found that NS and NNS have similar likelihoods of gaining higher grades when using more details (words). Focus-on-context was found to be the most important negotiation move to explain the reason raters gave students who used this strategy the highest grades of all, which places importance on the fact that different negotiation topics require emphasis on some strategies more than others. Overall, NS wrote longer emails, one of the possible reasons why they gained higher scores. NNS need to be encouraged to give more detailed explanations to improve their negotiation techniques, rather than explicitly ask their tutors to “help” them find solutions.

The pedagogical implication of this study is that some orientation in effective email negotiation moves should be provided that focuses on a number of common academic negotiation tasks. Linguistic scholars should balance their focus between rhetorical negotiation moves and the language students’ use in each move. Some empirical evidence in this study shows that students who use the essential negotiation moves have some chance to communicate successfully despite their pragmatic failure. Finally, given the lack of studies on negotiation discourse, more studies are needed in this field, which may include other cultures and the online media.
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References


Creativity in the EFL Classroom: Exploring Teachers’ Knowledge and Perceptions

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Abstract
As a response to the new requirements and needs of this fast-changing information era, higher education systems all over the world are focusing on developing learners’ higher mental competences including creative thinking. The current study aims at exploring teachers’ knowledge about the general concepts of creative thinking and its related skills. Moreover, the study attempts to investigate teachers’ perceptions about creativity and its incorporation in the English foreign language (EFL) Classroom. To examine these issues, a questionnaire was administered to twenty-seven EFL teachers from the English department of Badji Mokhtar university, Algeria. The Findings reveal that although teachers hold positive perceptions about promoting creative thinking in the EFL classroom, they generally consider creativity as a quite confusing concept and have uncertain knowledge about its characteristics.

Key words: creativity, EFL, higher education, knowledge, perception

Introduction

As the Algerian universities move towards global competition, many changes are to take place in order to equip students with the necessary skills that enable them to perform successfully in such complex fast changing world. As far as foreign language teaching is concerned, one of the main challenges facing higher education is to change the current foreign language teaching pedagogies, which focus excessively on the accumulation of knowledge, so that greater value is placed on the development of students’ mental skills including creative thinking. Promoting students creativity will not only develop their language skills but will also help them to be successful in their upcoming lives.

Teachers play a fundamental role in the language learning process and the development of learners’ language competences comprising thinking skills. Developing a clear understanding of teachers’ knowledge and perception of creativity is essential to inform practice on the effective inclusion of creative practices in the EFL classroom. Thus, the way teachers perceive creativity and their awareness of the adequate strategies and techniques to incorporate it may significantly influence the way they promote it in their classes. In order to provide students the appropriate creative thinking instructions in the EFL classroom it is of a prime importance to examine the actual knowledge teachers have concerning creative thinking skills as well as investigate their attitudes towards teaching these skills. The interest in this study was based on the need to reconsider the status and the role that creativity occupies in the EFL classroom. It intends to explore EFL teachers’ knowledge regarding creative thinking skills and capture their perceptions towards integrating creativity activities into their courses.

Research Questions and Aims of the Study
The study addresses two research questions:
1- What is EFL teachers’ knowledge regarding creative thinking skills?
2- How do EFL teachers perceive creativity within the EFL classroom?
Thus, the study aims to:
1- Explore the knowledge EFL teachers have regarding creative thinking skills
2- Investigate the perceptions of EFL teachers on teaching creative thinking skills

Theoretical Background
A survey of the literature reveals that creativity is a complex concept that flouts simple definition (Xerri & Vassallo, 2016). As Amabile (1996) as cited in Maley (2015) “a clear and sufficiently detailed articulation of the creative process is not yet possible” (p.10). Many studies attempted to conceptualize the notion of creativity but failed to attain consensus on how to describe it accurately (Sternberg et el, 1999). For Maley (2015) “the difficulty of finding an inclusive definition of creativity maybe owing to the latter’s forms and manifestations” (p.6). In fact, human creativity is a multi-faceted construct that can be applied to several fields and that is considered from different perspectives which made it hard to reduce it to one explicit definition, the reason why the term remained elusive and vague (Stepnack, 2015). However, despite the plethora of definitions, there seems to be a widely accepted understanding of creativity that describes the creative act as a process leading to a novel, unique and usable product. Hence, Novelty (originality) and Value (usefulness, appropriateness) represent the main features that characterize any creative act (Ritchie, 2004; Mayer, 1999 cited in Jordanous, 2015)
Guilford’s (1950) call for creativity research has shifted creativity from a vague concept to a compound construct that could be studied and measured. For him, creativity covers multiple attributes such as flexibility, fluency, novelty, synthesis, analysis, reorganization, redefinition, complexity and elaboration. These constructs constitute the most fundamental divergent thinking skills that shape the concept of creativity (Ghonsooly, 2012).

In the same line of thought, Torrance (1970) provides the most influential definition of creative thinking that describes it as “the process of sensing a problem, searching for possible solutions, drawing hypotheses, testing, evaluating and communicating results to others” (p.27). Furthermore, he described this process as “including original ideas, different points of view, breaking out of the mould, recombining ideas, and seeing new relationships among ideas” (p.27). According to him, the creative act is based on divergent thinking skills which include: fluency, flexibility, elaboration and originality as explained below:

- Fluency: the production of great number of ideas or alternate solutions to a problem,
- Flexibility: the production of ideas from different approaches that show different possibilities
- Originality: the production of novel and unusual ideas
- Elaboration: enhancing ideas by providing more details and clarity.

Whereas Guilford (1950), and Torrance (1970) view creativity in terms of divergent thinking abilities, De Bone (1969) described the creative act as an illogical process based on lateral thinking skills that involve collecting the information and making the best use of it.

As claimed by Runco (2003), scholars’ definitions of creativity vary depending on how it is perceived, whether as a personality trait (creative personality), a process (creative process), a product (creative product), or environments that foster creativity. Such conceptualization falls under The Four Ps creativity approach suggested by Rhode (1961/1987) as cited in Jordanous (2015) which distinguishes Four dimensions/perspectives for creativity: Person (personality characteristics or traits of creative people); product (the result of a creative process); process (mechanism underlying creativity) and press (conditions and environment conductive to creativity).

According to Tardiff and Sternberg (1988) as cited in Fleith (2000), the first category of definition (person) underlines three main aspects: cognitive characteristics, personality, emotional qualities and experience. The second dimension (product) highlights the features of the creative product, which as mentioned previously should be unique and valuable. The definitions of creativity set in the third category (Process) involve the process leading to creative products. Such creative process can comprise new ways of looking at a problem, producing novel ideas, making unusual associations or escaping the restricting patterns of the usual thinking process. The fourth category (press) stresses the importance of the environment in the development of creative competences. These four perspectives were included later in a comprehensive definition produced by Plucker, Beghetto and Dow (2004): “Creativity is the interaction among aptitude, process, and
environment by which an individual or group produces a perceptible product that is both novel and useful as defined within a social context.” (p.90).

Creative thinking for Howard (2008) is a complex cognitive process that involves the ability to move appropriately and easily between an array of thinking modes mainly analytical and generative. “These two terms emphasize the difference between the thought processes we use for critical evaluation or interpretation of an outcome and those we use to generate it in the first place” (p.8).

Haarmann (2013) defines creativity in terms of two sorts of thinking: the first is “divergent thinking” which involves multiple perspectives and numerous possible solutions to a problem unlike the second type “convergent thinking” which considers the existence of only one solution to a problem. In the creative process, both types complement each other; divergent thinking helps in the generation of many new ideas and convergent thinking seeks to evaluate these ideas and select the one that solves the problem.

Throughout all these definitions, it is clear that creativity is associated with several attributes mainly: imagination, divergence, intellectuality, lack of conventionality, originality and flexibility. This construct encloses a number of distinct dimensions such as:

- Having original and unusual thoughts about something
- The capacity to solve problems in original, pertinent and viable ways
- The ability to make new connections, often between unrelated data
- Using imagination and previous knowledge to generate new ideas and learning possibilities

The interest in promoting students’ creative thinking has significantly increased since the 21st century and has become an essential objective of education (Formosa, 2016). In addition to the basic language skills, creative thinking is fundamental to EFL instruction. EFL teachers are challenged more than ever to design novel learning environments that do not focus exclusively on imparting knowledge but rather on activating students thinking abilities. Developing learners’ creative thinking skills enables them to assimilate information in different ways, apply their content knowledge in diverse manners, solve problems, overcome learning challenges as well as improve their language competences (Seelig, 2012).

Creative teaching is the process leading to creative learning through the implementation of new methods, tools and content which stimulate learners’ creative potential. For Horng et al (2005) creative learners need creative teachers: “only when teachers are willing to create, will students feel unrestrained and encouraged to be creative in the class”, (p.355). For successful creative thinking instructions, teachers have not only the responsibility to comprise a varied menu of creative practices, but also to establish an appropriate creative classroom climate, one that is positive, open and pleasant. Students should feel comfortable, motivated and free to explore and express their opinions (Birdshell, 2013).
As Suggested by Skiba et al (as cited in Mullet, 2016), in a teaching/learning context that prioritize traditional approaches, appraising how teachers’ perceptions of creativity must be considered as a prelude to any endeavor to promote a pedagogy of creativity. Teachers’ perceptions play a vital role in the pedagogical choices they make, whether concerning their teaching materials, teaching approaches and techniques, their classroom practices or their assessment tools. Therefore, when teachers understand the nature of creativity and its attributes, and when they are fully aware of its importance, they will consequently include it successfully into their teaching practices.

Research demonstrates that the way teachers perceive creativity has an impact on how they nurture it in their classrooms. In his study, Odena (2010) concludes that having personal ideas about the nature of creativity could affect teachers’ approaches to teaching strategies, classroom attitudes and the assessment of activities that develop creativity. Teachers’ poor knowledge about creativity may prevent them from providing the appropriate conditions that help in nurturing learners’ creative potential (ibid). In their study of English teachers’ attitudes towards creativity, Myhill and Wilson (2013) noticed that there is a gap between teachers’ perceptions and actions; the results show that creativity can be activated through classroom activities but it cannot be taught explicitly. For Rubenstein et al (2013) classroom environment is a contributing factor to this creativity gap that refers to “the space between teachers valuing creativity and putting it into practice” (Makel 2009, p.16). Al-Qahtani (2016) examined Saudi EFL teachers’ Attitudes towards creativity and concluded that teachers’ lack of clear conceptions of creativity / misconceptions about creativity constitute the main reason which hinder its application in the classroom.

**Methodology**

In order to answer the research questions and fulfill the purpose of the study, the quantitative method was employed for data collection.

**Participants**

The sample population of this study was a group of 27 EFL teachers from the department of English/ Badji Mokhtar University, Annaba during the academic year of 2015/2016. A simple random selection of participants was used. As it is shown in Tables 1, 2 and 3, the majority of teachers (N=18) hold a magister degree, while only nine have a doctorate Degree. Eight teachers have a teaching experience between 5-10 years, eight have been teaching English more than 20 years, seven teachers for 11-20 years, while only four teachers have less than 5 years teaching experience. As per the specialty, ten teachers are specialized in linguistics, nine in literature and eight in civilization.

**Table 1. Participants’ level**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Magister</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>66.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Creativity in the EFL Classroom: Exploring Teachers’

Table 2. Participants’ experience

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>less than 5 years</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 Years</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>25.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>More than 20 years</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3. Participants’ specialty

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Specialty</th>
<th>Number</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>linguistics</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>37.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>litterature</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>33.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>civilisation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Data Collection Instrument

To fulfill the purpose of this study, the three first parts of the questionnaire (see appendix) that originally includes six parts were used. The whole questionnaire intended not only to discuss the questions of this study but also to address other issues related to the status of creativity and its promotion in the EFL context. The questionnaire consists of three parts. The first is a biographical section which includes three basic questions about respondents’ level, experience and specialization (already discussed in tables 1, 2, and 3).

The second part of the questionnaire explores teachers’ understanding and knowledge about creative thinking. It includes a list of thinking skills (all of them sub-skills of creativity) and teachers were asked to choose the ones related to creative thinking. The third part attempts to gauge teachers’ perceptions about creative thinking. It used a five-point Likert scale, participants were asked to indicate their opinions about the statements by marking one of the following: strongly disagree, disagree, neutral, agree, and strongly agree. The reliability coefficient was calculated according to the internal consistency (Cronbach alpha) providing a score of 0.81 that is considered appropriate for the purpose of the study.

In order to answer the research questions, the following data analysis method was used: sums, means and standard deviation of teachers’ responses on the questionnaires. The survey collected demographic data in order to identify the profile of the responding sample. The quantitative data was analyzed with IBM SPSS STATISTICS software program (version. 22.0).

Teachers’ Knowledge about Creative Thinking

In order to answer the first question of the study, the second part of the questionnaire explores teachers’ knowledge about creative thinking; teachers were given a list of skills (all of them are sub-skills of creative thinking) and were required to distinguish those related to creative thinking. As could be observed in table 4, participants failed to identify all the skills; the results demonstrate that the means of 09 out of the 15 items existed in the range (0.30-0.60) that reveal unclear understanding of creative thinking skills. The results show that teachers were unable to
distinguish the key sub-skills of creativity: the third skill (M=0.33) “using old ideas to create new ones” recorded only 9 correct answers out of 27, whereas only 10 correct answers were recorded for the fourth skill “flexibility” as well as the thirteenth skill “fluency and elaboration of ideas” (M=0.37). The ninth skill (M=0.40) “Making unusual associations among unrelated things” got 11 correct answers among 27.

Table 4. Sum, mean and standard deviation (SD) for knowledge about creative thinking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The skill</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- Brainstorming/Generating new ideas</td>
<td>13,00</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td>0.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Evaluating and interpreting an idea</td>
<td>19,00</td>
<td>0.703</td>
<td>0.465</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Using old ideas to create new ones</td>
<td>9,00</td>
<td>0.333</td>
<td>0.480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Flexibility</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td>0.370</td>
<td>0.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Relating knowledge from several areas</td>
<td>4,00</td>
<td>0.148</td>
<td>0.362</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Solving problems by imagination</td>
<td>24,00</td>
<td>0.888</td>
<td>0.320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- The ability to produce various ideas/Solutions about the same thing/problem</td>
<td>13,00</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td>0.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- Thinking outside the box</td>
<td>20,00</td>
<td>0.740</td>
<td>0.446</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9- Making unusual associations among unrelated things</td>
<td>11,00</td>
<td>0.407</td>
<td>0.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10- Seeking for new ways of looking at a problem</td>
<td>21,00</td>
<td>0.777</td>
<td>0.423</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11- Drawing conclusions</td>
<td>12,00</td>
<td>0.444</td>
<td>0.506</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12- Generalizing from given facts</td>
<td>13,00</td>
<td>0.481</td>
<td>0.509</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13- Fluency and elaboration of ideas/Divergent Thinking</td>
<td>10,00</td>
<td>0.370</td>
<td>0.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14- Curiosity and Risk-taking</td>
<td>17,00</td>
<td>0.629</td>
<td>0.492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15- Producing a solution that is both novel and suitable</td>
<td>22,00</td>
<td>0.814</td>
<td>0.395</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Teachers also expressed their doubt regarding the skills of “Generating new ideas”, “the ability to produce various ideas and solutions”, “drawing conclusions” and “generalizing from given facts” which scored with 13 correct answers (M=0.44). The least score was recorded with the fifth skill “Relating knowledge from several skills” which was fitted in the low range with only 4 correct answers out of 27. Only five out of the fifteen statements existed in the high range (0.66-1). The highest mean (M=0.88) was recorded with the sixth skill “solving problems by imagination” with 24 correct answers, followed by fifteenth skill (M=0.81): “Producing a solution that is both novel and useful”, then comes the tenth skill (M=0.77): “seeking for new ways of looking at a problem” with 21 correct answers. The eighth skill “Thinking outside the box” scored 20 correct answers with a mean of (M=0.74). Finally the second skill “evaluating and interpreting ideas” comes last in the high range with a mean score (M=0.70).

These findings reveal a lack of a clear understanding of creativity. Teachers’ responses show a poor knowledge about creative thinking skills which inhibit effective integration of creativity activities into their language classrooms. The results demonstrate that though teachers succeeded to recognize the skills of imagination, production of novel and valuable solutions to problems, risk...
taking, thinking outside the box and evaluation/ Interpretation of ideas, they failed to identify a significant number of skills that are basic for creativity such as brainstorming, fluency, flexibility, making unusual association among unrelated things, relating knowledge from different areas, and using old ideas to produce new ones. Given these negative results, EFL teachers seem to struggle with the concept of creativity and have poor knowledge about the nature of creative thinking skills. Teachers’ unfamiliarity with the notion of creativity may affect considerably the way they perceive it and integrate it into the English language activities. As a result, EFL teachers need to be prepared and equipped with the necessary tools, through appropriate creative thinking education, to ensure successful implementation of creative thinking instructions.

Teachers’ Perceptions towards Creative Thinking Skills

To answer the second question, the third part of the questionnaire explored teachers’ perceptions regarding creativity and its importance in the English language classroom. Teachers were required to respond to a 14 statements’ perception scale. Data analysis reveals in Table 5 that the means of nine statements out of sixteen fell into the high range of agreement. The first highest mean (M=4.550) was recorded for the statement “I intend to incorporate creative thinking in my course”. The second highest mean (M=4.450) was recorded for the statement “creative thinking enhances independent and active learning”. Participants strongly agreed “creative thinking activities are essential in the language classroom” (M=4.400). With a high mean score of (M=4.350) teachers agreed that “fostering students’ creative thinking is my responsibility” and that “to implement creative thinking effectively into my course I would need training”. They also agreed (M=4.300) that they do not have the necessary skills to promote students creativity. With a mean score of (M=3.600), teachers strongly agreed that they have a vague understanding of creativity. As per incorporating creative thinking activities into the language classroom, teachers believe that such activities improve their teaching skills (M= 3.800) though “teaching for the exam doesn’t leave time for these creative activities” (M=3.550). Besides, their disagreement about the fourteenth statement (M=3.55) proves that they do not consider the integration of creativity activities as an additional workload.

Table 5. Sum, mean and standard deviation (SD) for perceptions on creative thinking

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Sum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1- I intend to incorporate creative thinking activities in my course</td>
<td>91,00</td>
<td>4,550</td>
<td>0,510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2- Creativity is a vague concept to me/ I’m familiar with creativity and its sub</td>
<td>72,00</td>
<td>3,600</td>
<td>1,046</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3- Creative thinking enhances independent and active learning</td>
<td>89,00</td>
<td>4,450</td>
<td>0,492</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4- Creative thinking activities are essential in the language classroom</td>
<td>88,00</td>
<td>4,400</td>
<td>0,502</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5- Fostering students’ creative thinking is my responsibility</td>
<td>87,00</td>
<td>4,350</td>
<td>0,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6- Using creative thinking activities improves my teaching skills</td>
<td>76,00</td>
<td>3,800</td>
<td>0,510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7- I do not have the necessary skills to promote students’ creativity</td>
<td>86,00</td>
<td>4,300</td>
<td>0,470</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8- During exam, it is necessary to ask questions that encourage creative thinking</td>
<td>39,00</td>
<td>2,150</td>
<td>0,894</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Creativity in the EFL Classroom: Exploring Teachers’ NEDJAH & HAMADA

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Teachers' Agreement Mean</th>
<th>Teachers' Disagreement Mean</th>
<th>Teachers’ Uncertainty Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I need additional support/Training to implement creativity appropriately</td>
<td>87,00</td>
<td>4,350</td>
<td>0,489</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I think that students have barriers to creative thinking regardless of the strategies I use</td>
<td>43,00</td>
<td>2,350</td>
<td>0,850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The current language classroom can improve students’ creativity</td>
<td>57,00</td>
<td>2,800</td>
<td>0,850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I am aware when my students use creative thinking abilities</td>
<td>50,00</td>
<td>2,700</td>
<td>0,759</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching to the Test/Exam doesn’t leave time for creative abilities</td>
<td>71,00</td>
<td>3,550</td>
<td>0,825</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrating creative thinking activities is an additional workload</td>
<td>69,00</td>
<td>3,450</td>
<td>0,815</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The lowest scores were recorded with the statements eight, nine, eleven and twelve. Participants expressed their doubt about the statement “the current language classroom can improve students’ creativity” (M=2.800); they were also uncertain about their awareness of when students make use of creative abilities (M=2.700). The ninth statement “I think that students have barriers to creative thinking regardless of the strategies I use” collected a strong agreement among teachers (M=2.350). The least mean (M=2.150) was recorded for the seventh statement that pointed that teachers generally do not think that exam questions should include creative thinking activities.

The findings reflect positive teachers’ perceptions towards the integration of creativity in the language learning process and the importance of creative thinking activities in the language classroom. EFL teachers at the English department of Annaba-university were found to strongly agree that creative thinking not only improves their teaching skills but also enable students to become better thinkers and active learners. They agreed that creative thinking could be used to achieve better learning outcomes and promote students language skills. Even if the participants in this study believe that it’s their responsibility to promote students creative thinking, they feel that they do not have the necessary competences to assume such responsibility effectively, and consequently need additional support and training to implement it into their courses which supports the concluding results of the second part. Teachers do not consider the inclusion of creativity into the language activities as an additional workload though teaching to prepare students for exams doesn’t leave enough time for the selection, organization and incorporation of to this type of tasks.

However, the obtained results indicate teachers’ unfamiliarity with the concept of creativity that reflects their weak awareness about when students used creative abilities in their courses. The findings of this study show that teachers hold vague and unclear understanding about the nature of creativity as they expressed their disagreement about including activities that encourage creative thinking skills into the exam questions. For teachers, exams are supposed to assess students’ content knowledge not to stimulate or evaluate their creative abilities. Furthermore, the results demonstrate that having a syllabus to follow and teaching for exams restrict significantly teachers’ willingness to go beyond the confines set for them and place creativity as one of their teaching priorities. Moreover, the data analysis displays teacher’s beliefs about students’ unwillingness to employ or develop creative thinking competences despite the methods or techniques they apply. Such reluctance from the part of students constitutes another factor limiting the implementation of creativity in the EFL context.
Conclusion

The study revealed that teachers hold positive opinions about the value and the relevance of cultivating creative thinking in the EFL classroom. They recognized the essential role creativity plays in developing students’ intellectual skills and academic achievements. However, despite such positive attitudes, there is a common perception among EFL teachers surveyed in this study that they do not have the required competences to teach creative thinking skills, they feel that they are not prepared to promote creativity or apply any kind of creative pedagogies. Therefore, it is recommended that in order to offer EFL students some creative learning experiences, teachers positive attitudes are not enough. Teachers need to receive adequate training and orientations that will familiarize them with the notions of creativity and the appropriate practices that promote it. Addressing teachers’ misconceptions about the nature of creative thinking and its related sub-skills leads to a proper selection of strategies, approaches, and activities that nurture students’ creative competences. Moreover, if creativity is to be effectively enhanced, its position in the curriculum should be reconsidered. Developing students thinking skills including creativity deserves to be among the main objectives of teaching English at tertiary education.

This study attempts to encourage teachers to embrace creativity in their daily classroom routines. When taking into account that all participants answered none of the questionnaire’s statements that explored creative thinking knowledge correctly, one may believe that teachers need to realize that creativity is not an optional learning skill but rather one of the main 21st century educational objectives. In this new information era, it is necessary to make the EFL classroom a modern, fresh, dynamic and learner-centered place in which teachers explore new practices that unlock students’ creative potential.

About the Authors:
Nedjah Hana is an assistant professor in the Department of English Language, Badji Mokhtar University of Annaba-Algeria. She holds a Magister in Applied linguistics and is currently completing her Doctoral studies. Her research interests are TEFL, oral communication skills and technology-enhanced language learning/Teaching.

Hamada Hacene is a professor in applied linguistics in the English language Department / Ecole Normale Superieur of Constantine-Algeria. Beside his teaching responsibilities that cover a wide range of courses, he supervises Doctoral students in language sciences. Discourse Analysis, Language learning strategies, curriculum design and course design constitute his main research interests

References
Creativity in the EFL Classroom: Exploring Teachers’


Xerri, D. & Vassallo, O., (2016) Creativity in ELT : An Introduction. In D., Xerri & O.Vassallo (Eds), Creativity in English Language Teaching (pp.01-08). Malta: ELT Council
Appendix: Teachers’ Questionnaire

Dear Colleague,

This questionnaire is a data collection tool that aims at exploring the status and the promotion of creativity in the EFL context. You are kindly requested to respond to the following questions as accurately as possible. Your collaboration will be of a great help to make the research work achieves its objectives.

Section I/ Biographical information
1. Degree: B.A. / License □ M.A. / Magister □ Ph.D. / Doctorate □
2. Teaching Experience:
   Less than 5 years □ 5 - 10 years □ 11 – 20 years □ more than 20 years □
3. Area(s) of Specialty:
   Linguistics □ Literature □ Civilization □ Cultural Studies □
   Sociolinguistics □ Applied Linguistics □ Stylistics □ Educational Psychology
   Other:…………………………………………..

Section II/ Teachers knowledge about Creativity
Among the following skills, please select the one(s) related to creative thinking:
1. Brainstorming/ Generating new ideas □
2. Evaluating and interpreting an idea □
3. Using old ideas to create new ones □
4. Flexibility □
5. Relating knowledge from several areas □
6. Solving problems by imagination □
7. The ability to produce various ideas/Solutions to the same problem □
8. Thinking outside the box/ outside the norms □
9. Making unusual associations among unrelated things □
10. Seeking for new ways of looking at a problem □
11. Drawing conclusions □
12. Summarizing an article in one's own words □
13. Fluency and elaboration of relevant ideas
14. Curiosity and Risk-taking □
15. Producing a solution that is both novel and useful □

Section Three/ Teachers’ Perceptions about Creativity
Please thick (✓) the option that best describes your view (SD= strongly disagree, D= disagree, N=neutral, A=agree, SA= strongly agree)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>SA</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1-I intend to incorporate creative thinking activities in my course</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-Creativity is a vague concept to me/ I’m familiar with creativity and its sub</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1- Creative thinking enhances independent and active learning</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-Creative thinking activities are essential in the language classroom</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5-Fostering students’ creative thinking is my responsibility</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>6-Using creative thinking activities improves my teaching skills</td>
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<tr>
<td>7-I do not have the necessary skills to promote students’ creativity</td>
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<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>8-During exam, it is necessary to ask questions that encourage creative thinking</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9-I need additional support/training to implement creativity appropriately</td>
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<tr>
<td>Statement</td>
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<tr>
<td>10- I think that students have barriers to creative thinking regardless</td>
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<tr>
<td>of the strategies I use</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>11- the current language classroom can improve students’ creativity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12- I am aware when my students use creative thinking abilities</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13- Teaching to the Test/Exam doesn’t leave time for creative abilities</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14- Integrating creative thinking activities is an additional workload</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Tongue Twister, Students’ Pronunciation Ability, and Learning Styles

Fatchul Mu’in
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Abstract
In EFL context, considering appropriate technique in teaching pronunciation is a pivotal issue since it could help students to learn how to pronounce English sounds easy. This study aimed to investigate the effect of tongue twister technique on pronunciation ability of students across different learning styles. This study involved 34 first-year English major students taking Intensive English course at Universitas Lambung Mangkurat, one of leading universities in Indonesia. The students in the experimental group were taught by using tongue twister, while those in the control group were taught by using repetition technique. The students were also grouped based on two types of learning styles, namely active and reflective learning styles referring to Felder and Silverman’s (1988) learning style model. The findings of the study showed that there was no significant difference in pronunciation ability between the groups. No significant difference was either found in pronunciation ability between students with active learning style and those with reflective learning style. In spite of the insignificant results, tongue twister is considered beneficial by the students as they perceived that practicing tongue twisters cultivated joyful learning and it helped them to improve their pronunciation, fluency, and motivation in learning English pronunciation. Tongue twister practice could complement the use of repetition technique to enhance students’ learning experience and learning outcome.

Keywords: active, learning styles, pronunciation, reflective, tongue twister

Introduction
Among the four language skills and other language components, pronunciation gets the least attention to discuss. The attitudes towards foreign accents have generally changed from judgmental to more tolerant (Tergujeff, p. 2013). In fact, the teaching of pronunciation takes part every year in most English Departments curriculum at the university level. Some prior issues such as whether pronunciation is worth teaching (Richards & Renandya, 2002, p.175), whether pronunciation can be taught (Jones in Richards & Renandya, 2002, p. 179), and the importance of teaching pronunciation to adult learners (Thompson & Gaddes, 2004) have put pronunciation in a settled position in language teaching. Over the past 50 years, at least three primary orientations of pronunciation teaching exist. These orientations are imitating sounds orientation, explicit presentation and intensive practice with specific sounds orientation, as well as experiential orientation (Murphy in Nunan, 2003, p.112-114).

This third orientation is the most common one used by teachers nowadays to teach pronunciation. The basis of this orientation is on the communicative and task-based language teaching since word as well as sentence stress, rhythm, and intonation become a priority (Murphy in Nunan, 2003, p. 115, Harmer, 2007, p. 253, Brown & Lee, 2015, p. 374). Further, this priority is immersed into a wide variety of existed techniques used in pronunciation teaching including listen and repeat/drills, minimal pair practice, role play, teacher correction, phonemic script, recording learners, using mirrors and diagrams of the mouth, listening tasks, and encouraging learners to think of their pronunciation goals. However, there are some other things besides these orientations and techniques that can even hinder and support students’ mastery of pronunciation. Brown and Lee (2015, p. 375) listed six factors that affect pronunciation. Native language is the first and the most influential factor. The other five factors are age, exposure, innate phonetic ability, identity, and agency, as well as motivation and concern for good pronunciation.

Acquiring good pronunciation is teacher and students’ goal. Therefore, teacher spends time considering appropriate ways of teaching pronunciation and developing students’ skill. Velázquez and Ángel (2013) and Szyszka (2016) revealed that the majority of teachers use repetition technique to facilitate the acquisition of English pronunciation and help students to become more familiarized with the pronunciation more easily and quickly. In its most basic form, repetition technique asks students to repeat individual words or utterances. As the teacher gives a model of the language, the students repeat it either in unison or individually or both. The other researcher, Khakim (2015) also found that applying repetition could improve students’ pronunciation ability. Jones in Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 180) mentioned that although repetition is a means to help articulation, it can be more meaningful, communicative, and memorable by including visual representations and training in the awareness of kinesthetic sensation. However, apart from these findings, repetition is a pronunciation technique that does not fully address some native language interference challenges faced by the students.

The challenges in English sounds pronunciation are apparent. One of the challenges is that students have to learn not only how to use their voice in a different way from their native language, but also have to learn to make new movements with the organs of articulation in pronouncing the English sounds (Orion, 1997, p. 24). In other words, there are some necessary movements which are made to make some English sounds which are very similar and often confusing to pronounce. The other challenge which is related to native language is that most students are reluctant to speak
because of their foreign accent. Even though acquiring native-like pronunciation is not the main goal to reach, the native speaker's pronunciation patterns reflect the commonly accepted by particular speech communities (Murphy in Nunan, 2002, p. 112). Accordingly, Jones in Richards and Renandya (2002, p. 180) emphasizes the attention to focus on the teaching methods that fully address the issues of motivation and exposure to input from native speakers.

In responding to the challenges above, one technique namely tongue twister comes as a technique that promotes native-like pronunciation provides exposure of certain different sounds, and drives students’ motivation for good pronunciation. Harmer (2007, p. 256) mentions that teacher can use tongue twister in working with difficult sounds. A previous study by Turumi, Jamiluddin, and Salehuddin (2016) on tongue twister in the eighth grade of junior high school showed that tongue twister is a promising technique to teach pronunciation. In addition, Zhang (2013) also used tongue twisters to supplement beginning level CFL students’ pronunciation and tone practice. Meanwhile, in the university context, Sitoresmi (2016) implemented tongue twisters in the pronunciation class and the result was tongue twisters were useful to improve motivation, class condition, and pronunciation ability. The definition of tongue twister itself is a text that features one or a combination of sounds that are extremely difficult for the mouth and, of course, tongue to control (Karker, 2000, p. 2 in Sitoresmi, 2016). Despite the difficulty, especially for foreign learners, tongue twister is helpful to guide students to native-like pronunciation and help students learn many minimal pairs for example in distinguishing phonemes /ʃ/ and /s/ as well as producing distinct and accurate [l] and [r] sounds. Unfortunately, tongue twister technique is less popular than repetition at higher secondary level pronunciation teaching (Szyyska, 2016). Considering the potential impacts of tongue twister on students’ pronunciation ability, this study aimed to investigate the effect of tongue twister compared to repetition technique on students’ pronunciation ability.

Students’ success in learning English pronunciation is not only affected by the use of appropriate teaching techniques. Given that pronunciation is a personal matter (Harmer, 2007, p. 252), the outcome of English pronunciation learning can also be affected by students’ individual differences, such as intelligence, aptitude, personality, motivation, attitude, age of acquisition and learning style (Saville-Troike, 2006; Brown & Lee, 2015). Among these differences, students’ learning style is a prominent concern in this study in addition to the teaching technique employed in the pronunciation classroom. Learning style is the preference individuals have for learning. In pronunciation teaching, it is important to realize that students ultimately have their own control of changes in pronunciation (Murphy, 2003, p. 115-117 in Nunan), so the way or strategy they prefer for learning pronunciation would play important role in affecting the learning outcome. Furthermore, when students’ learning styles were matched with teaching technique, positive learning experience would possibly be created (Reid, 2005; Felder & Silverman, 1988).

The types of learning style involved in this study were active and reflective learning styles, which postulated by Felder and Silverman (1988) in their learning style model. These learning styles were selected due to their relevance to the pronunciation teaching and learning process, which included listening activities, repetition, and tongue twister practice, in this study. Students with active learning style theoretically are those who like trying things, understand something better after they try it out, more easily remember what they have done and like working in groups (Felder & Silverman, 1988). With these characteristics, the researchers assumed that students with
active learning style might benefit from the tongue twister practice since they were guided to be actively engaged in practicing tongue twister in pairs to improve their pronunciation. On the other hand, students with reflective learning style are those who prefer to think about what they learn quietly first and prefer working alone (Felder & Silverman, 1988). During tongue twister practice, students with reflective learning style might feel more self-conscious and therefore reticent to try tongue twister out and to take risk making mistakes. Nevertheless, students with reflective learning style might benefit from listening activity and teacher’s models during the practice. In a nutshell, active and reflective learning styles were taken into account in this study given that the characteristics of each learning style might interact with the pronunciation teaching technique and in turn, result in a positive effect on students’ pronunciation ability.

Despite the relation between the characteristics of the active and reflective learning styles to the pronunciation teaching and learning has been discussed, the role of the two types of learning styles to students’ learning outcome actually remains unclear, especially in pronunciation. The investigation on these types of learning styles in relation to students’ learning outcome is still rare. Most of the researchers who are interested in these types of learning styles only focused on finding the students’ learning styles, for instance, El-Hmoudova (2014); Aziza, Yib, Alwic & Jetd (2013); Baldwin and Sabry (2010); Charlesworth (2008); and Judy & Moira (2007). One example of research studies which investigated these learning styles in relation to students’ learning outcome was Wichadee (2011) who focused on students’ reading comprehension. Furthermore, as there is not any wider study on the effect of tongue twister across learning styles, this present study was conducted to fill in the gap by examining the effect of tongue twister compared to repetition technique across active and reflective learning styles. This study further attempted to find which learning style benefit more from the use of tongue twister. The research questions are accordingly formulated as follows:

1) Is there any difference in pronunciation ability between the students who are taught using tongue twister and those who are taught using repetition?
2) Is there any difference in pronunciation ability between the active students and the reflective students?
3) Is there any interaction between pronunciation teaching techniques and students’ learning styles?

Research Method

Research Design

To answer the research questions, the 2x2 factorial quasi-experimental research design was used in this study. Using this research design enabled the researchers to find not only the independent effect of the pronunciation teaching techniques on students’ pronunciation ability but also the simultaneous effect of the teaching techniques and learning styles involved in this study. Based on the design, the independent variable was pronunciation teaching technique in the form of tongue twister and repetition. The dependent variable was students’ pronunciation ability. Students’ pronunciation ability in this study referred to their ability in pronouncing English vowels. The attribute variable was learning style which comprised active and reflective learning styles.
Participants and Setting
This study involved 34 first-year students from two intact classes of Intensive English course in English Department, Faculty of Teacher Training and Education, Universitas Lambung Mangkurat, Banjarmasin, Indonesia. The first class (Class A) was the experimental group who consisted of 17 students. There were 11 female and 6 male students in the group. The second class (Class B) was the control group who also consisted of 17 students. In terms of gender, the control group has the equal number of female and male students to that of the experimental group.

Treatment
Tongue twister technique as the treatment in this study was applied in the experimental group during Intensive English course. In the setting of the study, one of the learning objectives in Intensive English course is that the students are expected to be able to pronounce English vowels by comparing and contrasting English vowels in oral production correctly. Based on this objective, the treatment focused on the pronunciation of English vowels. The list of the English vowels as the learning topics and the materials of the vowels used in the experimental and the control groups were adopted from Orion (1997). It can be seen in Table 1.

Table 1. The list of vowels as the topics used in this study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>List of English vowels as the topics and materials in this study</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>/i/ as in see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>/ɪ/ as in sit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>/э/ as in pay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td>/э/ as in met</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td>/э/ as in cat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td>/æ/ as in not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td>/æ/ as in buy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td>/æ/ as in now</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.</td>
<td>/æ/ as in up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10.</td>
<td>/æ/ as in sir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11.</td>
<td>/н/ as in boy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12.</td>
<td>/н/ as in all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13.</td>
<td>/н/ as in no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14.</td>
<td>/н/ as in do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15.</td>
<td>/н/ as in book</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The tongue twisters utilized in this study were adopted from Kisito (2006) and Hart (2008). They were practiced by the students based on the vowels learned in the classroom. For instance, when the students learned how to pronounce the vowels /i/ and /ɪ/, they practiced the tongue twisters “The sheep on the ship slipped on the sheet of sleet.” and “The keen king kissed the quick queen on her green ring”. As another example, when they learned how to pronounce the vowels /u/ and /ʊ/, they practiced the tongue twister “You can bake a kooky cookie or stew a stupid duck. You can look it all up in a cool cook book.” The practice of the tongue twisters combined and contrasted not only two different vowels but also three or more different vowels in the middle of the treatment. For instance, the students practiced reading aloud the tongue twister Betty Botter bought some...
butter, but she said “This butter’s bitter. If I put it in my batter, it will make my batter bitter.” to practice pronouncing the vowels /ε/, /ɔ/, /ə/, /ɪ/, and /æ/. The use of tongue twisters was considered beneficial for the students, for it is assumed that it helps them compare and contrasts the learned vowels correctly in oral production. The samples of tongue twister texts used in this study can be seen in Appendix A.

The implementation of the tongue twister in the experimental group started with the introduction of the English vowels and demonstration of how to pronounce them in words by the lecturer. The students listened to the lecturer and were given chance to repeat the vowels solely and in words. At the next step, the students got the texts of tongue twisters which contained the learned vowels. Before they practiced the tongue twisters, they listened to the tongue twister audio and listened to their lecturer modeling the tongue twisters. Afterwards, the students were asked to read the tongue twisters aloud several times along with the lecturer. At this moment, the students did not get any correction since the lecturer only noted problem areas on the copy of the text. After the problem areas were identified, the activity was continued by demonstrating line by line of the tongue twister to produce the problematic vowels and the students were asked to repeat the line. Subsequently, the students were asked to repeat the whole tongue twister slowly and then more quickly. The students then worked in pairs to take turns practicing the tongue twister as quick as possible without mistakes. The next meeting was started with the review of the vowels as well as the tongue twisters which have been learned. The procedure from the modeling to pair practice was repeated for the next vowels with different tongue twisters. The whole treatment was conducted for 14 meetings.

In contrast to the treatment in the experimental group, the control group practiced their pronunciation by using repetition technique only. The meeting started by listening to the audio of the vowels and repeating the vowels together. The students also listened to the lecturer demonstrating how to pronounce a list of words which contained the vowels and repeated after her. Moreover, the classroom activity involved identifying which vowels were located in certain words and was continued by using repetition technique.

**Instruments**

To measure the students’ pronunciation ability, a pronunciation test was utilized. It was constructed by the researchers based on the English vowels which were taught during the study. The test consisted of 60 words and 14 sentences which comprised 40 assessed words. Each correctly-pronounced word was scored 1 point, so the maximum score was 100 points. The students were instructed to read aloud the words and sentences in maximum 5 minutes. The test was administered after the treatment was finished. The test is shown in Appendix B.

The second instrument was learning style questionnaire used to find the students’ learning style and classify it into active or reflective learning style. It was adopted from Felder and Soloman’s (1997) Index of Learning Style questionnaire on the part of active-reflective dimensions. The consideration of adopting the questionnaire was that it is widely considered as a reliable instrument (Felder & Spurlin, 2005) with valid scales (Cook, 2005) and evidence of construct validity (Litzinger, Lee, Wise & Felder, 2005). It consisted of 11 items. It was administered prior to the treatment. The students were required to fill in the questionnaire by selecting one of two options that applies to themselves. The first option in each item belongs to
the characteristics of active learning style, while the second option in each item belongs to the characteristics of reflective learning style. The scoring of the questionnaire was conducted based on the guidelines by Felder and Soloman (1997). The questionnaire can be seen in Appendix C.

The third instrument employed in this study was a questionnaire of students’ perception of the implementation of the tongue twister. The data from the questionnaire were used to either support or clarify the effect of a tongue twister as viewed from the students’ perception. The questionnaire consisted of 10 items with 4 Likert-scales. The students were asked to fill in the questionnaire by selecting 4 options indicating their perception of the use of the tongue twister in their class. The options ranged from scale 4 for “strongly agree” to scale 1 for “strongly disagree”. The questionnaire is shown in Appendix D.

The data analysis primarily involved the students’ scores from the pronunciation test and was performed by means of SPSS 18.0 version. The students’ scores were first analyzed by using descriptive statistics. Following the descriptive statistics, the fulfillment of statistical assumptions was investigated to determine which inferential statistics was used in the next analysis procedure to analyze the data based on the research questions.

Results

Prior to the treatment, learning style questionnaire was administered to identify whether the students had active or reflective learning styles. Based on the analysis of the students’ score from the questionnaire, 6 students had active learning styles and 11 students had reflective learning styles in the experimental group. In the control group, there were 8 students with active learning style and 9 students with reflective learning style. Thus, holistically, 14 students had active learning style and 20 students had reflective learning styles.

The students’ pronunciation scores were analyzed and organized into descriptive data based on the groups. The descriptive data showed that the mean score from the experimental group was 86.2 with standard deviation (SD) of 8.03, while the mean score from the control group was 81.8 with SD of 11.21. Thus, the experimental group had higher mean score than did the control group with the difference of mean score of 4.4 points. The descriptive data of students’ pronunciation scores from both groups are displayed in Table 2.

Table 2. The descriptive data of students’ pronunciation scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Experimental Group</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>86.2</td>
<td>8.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(Class A)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control Group (Class B)</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>81.8</td>
<td>11.21</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students’ pronunciation scores were also organized based on their learning styles. The descriptive data of the scores showed that the mean scores from the active students and reflective students holistically were 84.71 and 83.50, respectively. The rough difference in the mean score between active and reflective students was 1.21. This finding revealed that the active students obtained higher mean score than the reflective students did, but the difference was only a few points. Similarly, in each group, the active students outperformed the reflective students.
students’ complete scores can be seen in Appendix E. The descriptive data of students’ pronunciation scores based on students’ learning styles are shown in Table 3.

Table 3. The descriptive data of students’ pronunciation scores based on their learning styles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Learning Styles</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Minimum</th>
<th>Maximum</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Both Groups</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>65.00</td>
<td>93.00</td>
<td>84.71</td>
<td>8.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reflective</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>52.00</td>
<td>96.00</td>
<td>83.50</td>
<td>11.08</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experimental</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>80.00</td>
<td>91.00</td>
<td>86.83</td>
<td>4.31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reflective</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>68.00</td>
<td>96.00</td>
<td>85.91</td>
<td>9.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Control</td>
<td>Active</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>65.00</td>
<td>93.00</td>
<td>83.13</td>
<td>10.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reflective</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>52.00</td>
<td>92.00</td>
<td>80.56</td>
<td>12.51</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The fulfillment of statistical assumptions was examined in terms of homogeneity and normality of the data. Levene’s test in SPSS 18.0 was used to test the homogeneity of the data. Based on the analysis, the *p*-value from Levene’s test for the data of pronunciation scores from both experimental and control groups was 0.211, while the *p*-value for the data based on the students’ learning styles was 0.250. Therefore, the data were considered homogeneous since the *p*-values were greater than .05 level of significance. Moreover, Shapiro Wilk's test was applied to find if the distribution of the data was normal. Based on the test results, it was found that the data from the experimental group were distributed normally (*p*-value .102 > .05). However, the data from the control group and those based on the students’ learning styles were not distributed normally (*p*-values .006, .011, .012 < .05). Given that only one statistical assumption was fulfilled, the data analysis was continued by means of Mann-Whitney U test to find the answers to the research questions.

The first research question dealt with the effect of tongue twister compared to repetition technique on students’ pronunciation ability. Based on the result of Mann-Whitney U test, the obtained *p*-value was .201 which was greater than .05 level of significance (*p*-value > sig .05). Thus, the analysis result revealed that there was no significant difference in pronunciation ability between the students taught by using tongue twister and those taught by using repetition technique. The result of Mann-Whitney U test can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4. The result of Mann-Whitney U test on the difference in pronunciation scores between the experimental and the control groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronunciation scores</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mann-Whitney U</td>
<td>107.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wilcoxon W</td>
<td>260.500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Z</td>
<td>-1.278</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</td>
<td>.201</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second research question was concerned with the effect of tongue twister compared to repetition technique on students’ pronunciation ability across active and reflective learning styles. The result of Mann-Whitney U test indicated that the obtained p-value was .902. Since it was greater than .05 level of significance, it was concluded that there was no significant difference in pronunciation ability between the active students and reflective students in both groups. The result of Mann-Whitney U test computation for the second research question is presented in Table 5.

Table 5. The result of Mann-Whitney U test on the difference in pronunciation scores between the active and reflective students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pronunciation Scores</th>
<th>Mann-Whitney U</th>
<th>Wilcoxon W</th>
<th>Z</th>
<th>Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>136.500</td>
<td>241.500</td>
<td>-.123</td>
<td>.902</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The third research question was formulated to find if the interaction among the variables. Two-way ANOVA analysis was undertaken to investigate the interaction and it resulted in a p-value of .817 which was greater than .05 level of significance. It was interpreted that there was no interaction between pronunciation teaching techniques and learning styles on students’ pronunciation ability. The result of two-way ANOVA for the third research question is shown in Table 6.

Table 6. The result of Two-way ANOVA on the interaction between the variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Type III Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation Teaching Techniques*Learning Styles</td>
<td>5.483</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5.483</td>
<td>.055</td>
<td>.817</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The quantitative data were complemented with the qualitative data from students’ perception on the use of tongue twister in learning English pronunciation. Based on the results of the questionnaire, the students generally indicated positive perception on the use of tongue twister. Most of them (70.57%) strongly agreed that the use of tongue twister motivates them to learn how to pronounce English vowels in words and sentences correctly, while the rest (29.41%) agreed with this statement. They also considered that learning pronunciation with tongue twister gave them excitement as shown by 52.94% of the students who strongly agreed and 47.06% agreed with this idea. In terms of tongue twister effects toward the improvement of the students’ pronunciation ability, there were 41.18% of the students showing their strong agreement and the rest (58.82%) showing their agreement that the use of tongue twister provides them good pronunciation practice in comparing and contrasting English vowels. The next finding showed that 47.06% of the students strongly agreed and 52.94% agreed that learning English pronunciation by using and practicing tongue twister helps them to pronounce English vowels in words and sentences correctly and more
easily. Moreover, 52.94% showed their strong agreement on the benefit of the tongue twister in improving their fluency in English and 47.06% showed their agreement on the same point.

The subsequent finding showed that practicing tongue twister in pairs was beneficial for the students to learn and get feedback from each other since 47.06% of the students strongly agreed and the other 52.94% agreed with the benefit of the pair practice. This finding is confirmed by the next questionnaire item which was dominated by the students’ strong agreement (76.47%) on their increased motivation to work collaboratively in pairs to pronounce English vowels correctly. Furthermore, most of the students (70.59%) strongly agreed that the use of tongue twister made them actively engaged in pronunciation practice. The last questionnaire item revealed an interesting finding. Only 35.29% of the students showed their strong agreement to the better learning experience provided by tongue twister implementation compared to repetition only. While 47.06% of the students agreed with this perception, 3 students (17.65%) disagreed that the use of tongue twister gave them better learning experience for pronunciation aspect than repetition only. All in all, the students in the experimental group regarded the practice of tongue twister beneficial for the improvement of their English pronunciation and fluency.

Discussion

This study revealed the effect of tongue twister on students’ pronunciation ability across learning styles. Previous researchers, Turumi, Jamiluddin, and Salehuddin (2016), Zhang (2013), and Sitoresmi (2016) found that tongue twister contributed significant result in students’ pronunciation ability. In contrast, the finding for the first research question of this study showed that there was not any significant difference on students’ pronunciation ability between the students who were taught using tongue twister and those who were taught using repetition technique. This contradictory result might be caused by quite similar procedures in both of these techniques. Both in the implementation of repetition and tongue twisters, the students listen to the teacher modeling how to pronounce the words and repeat them after the teacher. What makes them different was that students in the experimental group used unique tongue twister texts to practice pronouncing the learned vowels. In addition, the students were asked to read aloud the tongue twister with different speed, namely from slowly and then more quickly. The students also worked in pairs to take turns practicing the tongue twister as quick as possible without mistakes. Thus, this study suggested that both tongue twister and repetition technique gave a positive impact on students’ pronunciation ability. Furthermore, in some other previous studies, tongue twister technique was used in analyzing speech errors (Frisch & Wright, 2002; Keller, Carpenter, & Just, 2003; Goldrick & Blumstein, 2004; Acheson & MacDonald, 2009). In other words, it is used to work more on detail problems in pronunciation due to its segments from nearby syllables.

This study further revealed an insignificant difference in students’ pronunciation ability across learning styles. It means that students with either active or reflective learning styles obtained equal positive impact from the use of tongue twister. This finding could be explained through the characteristics of each learning style which were accommodated by the procedure in implementing tongue twister in pronunciation teaching and learning. As previously outlined in introduction part, students with active learning style might learn pronunciation more easily as they tried the tongue twister out together with their partners. They directly immersed in active collaborative practice and could discuss with their partners. The activities they were engaged in definitely suited their
learning style. On the other hand, reflective students might get more benefit when they had the opportunity to listen to the audio of tongue twister and teacher’s models carefully. These activities would help them understand how to pronounce the vowels well. Although reflective students theoretically do not prefer trying things out and work in groups (Felder and Silverman, 1988), in this study the reflective students only worked with one partner, so the tongue twister practice might not demotivate them. Moreover, reflective students could also observe and learn from their partner to read the tongue twister aloud correctly. In addition to the equal benefit as viewed from the matching characteristics of the learning styles to the practice of tongue twister, the data from students’ perception also confirmed that both the students, with active and reflective learning styles, considered that practicing tongue twister helped them to improve their pronunciation.

The next important finding from this study was no interaction between pronunciation teaching techniques and learning styles. In other words, the main effect of the tongue twister and drilling techniques in this study did not rely on the students’ learning style as the attributive variable. In spite of no interaction found, matching teaching technique and students’ learning style remains worth trying to optimize the students’ learning experience (Reid, 2005; Felder & Silverman, 1988). In the case of using tongue twister in pronunciation teaching and learning, this study suggested that the optimal use of tongue twister with listening activities, teacher’s modeling, and peer practice could accommodate the learning need of both active and reflective learning styles. As it is seen from the questionnaire results, tongue twister technique, apart from its insignificant result in this study, conformed Sitoresmi’s (2016) study to which he mentioned that it aroused students’ motivation in pronunciation learning. Brown and Lee (2015) and Jones in Richards and Renandya (2002) statement that motivation is one of the factors that affect pronunciation was clarified. Therefore, tongue twister is worth using for it can enhance students’ motivation in learning pronunciation.

Furthermore, this study also verified Harmer’s (2007, p. 256) statement that tongue twister is one of the beneficial techniques to work with two or more contrasting sounds. Even though working with English sounds which were quite different from those in students’ native language, learning pronunciation using tongue-twister made students felt much fun and enjoyment. It motivates them for mastering good pronunciation in almost native-like pronunciation. More importantly, among the five principles in teaching pronunciation mentioned by Murphy in Nunan (2003, p. 115-117), tongue twister covers three of the five principles for teaching pronunciation namely fostering intelligibility, keeping affective considerations firmly in mind, and avoiding teaching individual sounds in isolation. First, the students learned difficult sounds in an easier way. Second, the students’ interest increased high as they developed new pronunciation habits from this tongue twister technique. The last, the students did not learn individual sounds in isolation as they practiced the sounds in whole phrases, short sentences, and interactive classroom tasks. In the long run, tongue twister technique gives the impact of making pronunciation teaching be more interesting and enjoyable.

Conclusions
This current study reached several conclusions. First, no significant difference was found in pronunciation ability between the students taught by using tongue twister and those taught by using repetition technique. This suggests that both tongue twister and repetition could give positive learning experience and enhance students’ learning outcome. Second, there was no significant
difference in pronunciation ability between the active students and reflective students in both groups. Third, there was no interaction between pronunciation teaching techniques and learning styles on students’ pronunciation ability. However, despite these insignificant results, the students’ responded that they found learning pronunciation by using tongue twisters more interesting and enjoyable. Its components successfully made pronunciation learning easier especially on some difficult sounds, attracted students’ interest, and avoided teaching individual sounds in isolation. There might appear one possible factor that contributes to the insignificant result of this study, namely the number of reflective students. In the experimental group, the number of reflective students was higher than that of the active students. This may influence the result of the difference in pronunciation ability across the learning styles. The recommendations for further researchers are to consider some overlap steps in both techniques and ensure an equal number of the learning styles group before research conduct is undertaken.

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References


Appendix A

Samples of Tongue Twister Texts
Adopted from Kisito (2006) and Hart (2008) in This Study

/ɪ/ /ɪ/
Keen king: The sheep on the ship slipped on the sheet of sleet. The keen king kissed the quick queen on her green ring.

/ɛ/ /ɪ/ /æ/
Seven slick snails: Seven slick slimy snails, slowly sliding southward.

/ɑ/ /ɛ/
Big black bear: A big black bug bit the big black bear, but the big black bear bit the big black bug back!

/æ/ /ɛ/ /i/ /æ/
clam cream can: How can a clam cram in a clean cream can?

/ɑʊ/, /ɑʊ/ 
Quite how
/ay/ Quite nice white mice
/aw/ How now brown cow

/ɑʊ/
Copyright: When you write copy you have the right to copyright the copy you write.

/ɑ/ 
Doctor doctoring: When a doctor doctors a doctor, does the doctor doing the doctoring doctor as the doctor being doctored wants to be doctored or does the doctor doing the doctoring doctor as he wants to doctor?

/ɛ/, /ɑ/, /ɔ/, /ɪ/, /æ/ 
Betty Botter bought some butter, but she said "This butter’s bitter. "If I put it in my batter, it will make my batter bitter." So, she bought some better butter, better than the bitter butter. When she put it in her batter, the butter made her batter better.

/æ/, /ɑ/, /ɑʊ/, /ɔ/, /aʊ/ 
Gnats are not now gnawing on the nuts at night.

/ɑ/ /ɑr/ 
Peter piper: Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers. A peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked. If Peter Piper picked a peck of pickled peppers, Where’s the peck of pickled peppers Peter Piper picked?

/ɔ/ /ɪ/ 
Thirty three thieves: The thirty-three thieves thought that they thrilled the throne throughout Thursday.
**/ɔr/**

**Whether the weather:** Whether the weather be fine, or whether the weather be not. Whether the weather be cold, or whether the weather be hot. We’ll weather the weather whether we like it or not.

**/ɔ/**

**Spoiled:** The spoiled boy foiled the coy boy’s joy by purloining his toy.

**/ɔl/**

**Spell New York:** Knife and a fork, bottle and a cork, that is the way you spell New York.

**I thought of thinking:** I thought, I thought of thinking of thanking you.

**I saw Susie:** I saw Susie sitting in a shoe shine shop.

**/ɑʊ/**

**Joe:** Joe told a joke he wrote on his own.

I know that’s not the note that Noel wrote.

The coat from the coast cost more than most

**/u/, /ʊ/**

**Food, book:** Make some fun, funky food and with some luck

You can bake a kooky cookie or stew a stupid duck

You can look it all up in a cool cook book

Or you can find a good excuse why you shouldn’t have to cook.

**Appendix B**

**English Pronunciation Test used in This Study**

Name : _______________

Class : _______________

Read aloud the following words and sentences carefully. Time allocation: max 5 minutes

A. Vowels in words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>receive</th>
<th>11</th>
<th>royal</th>
<th>21</th>
<th>hot</th>
<th>31</th>
<th>knee</th>
<th>41</th>
<th>noise</th>
<th>51</th>
<th>mosque</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>build</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>awful</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>ice</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>milk</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>pause</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>rhyme</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ate</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>soul</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>ouch</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>cave</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>sew</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>vowel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>kettle</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>too</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>umpire</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>guess</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>youth</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>sofa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>gas</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>push</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>urge</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>could</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>shirt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>occupy</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>people</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>oyster</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>college</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>caesar</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>toy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>height</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>women</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>holt</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>guide</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>minute</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>out</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>tale</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>pose</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>cloud</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>cake</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>vote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>trouble</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>said</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>flute</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>precious</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>head</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>goose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>church</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>bank</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>foot</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>heard</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>cattle</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>butcher</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Vowels in Sentences

1. At least you can give me a list.
2. The sheep are on the ship now.
3. I met my roommate yesterday.
4. Put the pepper on the paper.
5. He said he was sad.
6. There is a fat man with a rotten log.
7. Shut the door, or you'll be shot.
8. We tried to keep silent for a while when he doubt what he found in this town.
9. It occurred at this campus.
10. The worm is busy working.
11. We are annoyed by the voice.
12. Mr. Hoyle thought he had talked about the soil.
13. Paul bought a new note and a coat last week.
14. Choose the food which looks good.

Appendix C

Learning Style Questionnaire
Active-Reflective Category (Felder & Soloman, 1997)

Name : _____________________________ (M/F)
Class : _____________________________

For each of the 11 questions below select either "a" or "b" to indicate your answer. Please choose only one answer for each question. If both "a" and "b" seem to apply to you, choose the one that applies more frequently.

1. I understand something better after I...
   (a) try it out.
   (b) think it through.

2. When I am learning something new, it helps me to...
   (a) talk about it.
   (b) think about it.

3. In a study group working on difficult material, I am more likely to...
   (a) jump in and contribute ideas.
   (b) sit back and listen.

4. In classes I have taken, ...
   (a) I have usually gotten to know many of the students.
   (b) I have rarely gotten to know many of the students.

5. When I start a homework problem, I am more likely to...
   (a) start working on the solution immediately.
   (b) try to fully understand the problem first.

6. I prefer to study...
   (a) in a study group.
   (b) alone.
7. I would rather first...
   (a) try things out.
   (b) think about how I'm going to do it.

8. I more easily remember...
   (a) something I have done.
   (b) something I have thought a lot about.

9. I am more likely to be considered...
   (a) outgoing.
   (b) reserved.

10. When I have to work on a group project, I first want to...
    (a) have "group brainstorming" where everyone contributes ideas.
    (b) brainstorm individually and then come together as a group to compare ideas.

11. The idea of doing homework in groups, with one grade for the entire group
    (a) appeals to me.
    (b) does not appeal to me.

Appendix D

Students’ Perception Questionnaire on the Implementation of Tongue Twister

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Questionnaire items</th>
<th>Strongly Agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly Disagree</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. The use of tongue twister motivates me to learn how to pronounce English vowels</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in words and sentences correctly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The use of tongue twister makes learning experience more fun.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The use of tongue twister provides good pronunciation practice in comparing and</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contrasting English vowels.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Learning English pronunciation by using and practicing tongue twister helps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>me to improve my pronunciation. It helps me to pronounce English vowels in words</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and sentences correctly.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Learning English pronunciation by using and practicing tongue twister helps</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
me to pronounce English vowels in words and sentences more easily.

6. Using tongue twister is a good way to improve fluency (kelancaran) in English.

7. Practicing tongue twister in pairs is beneficial because my friend and I can learn the pronunciation and get correction/feedback from each other.

8. The use of tongue twister motivates me to work collaboratively to pronounce English vowels correctly.

9. The use of tongue twister makes me actively engaged in pronunciation practice.

10. The use of tongue twister gives me better learning experience for pronunciation aspect than the use of drilling only (listen and repeat).

### Appendix E

Students’ Pronunciation Scores from the Experimental and the Control Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
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<th>Score</th>
<th>Learning Style</th>
<th>No.</th>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>8</td>
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</tr>
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<td>79</td>
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<td>17</td>
<td>H</td>
<td>83</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Exploring EFL Teachers’ Beliefs and Practices Regarding Pronunciation Teaching in a Saudi Setting

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Abstract
Recent research has shown that explicit pronunciation teaching is effective in improving learners’ speech comprehensibility, and many studies have presented effective ways to teach pronunciation (Thomson & Derwing, 2014). However, it is still not yet known in many EFL (English as a foreign language) settings whether this finding has any effect on the current beliefs and practices of English language teachers. The current study examines what EFL teachers in a Saudi EFL context believe about teaching pronunciation, how they teach pronunciation, and what pronunciation training they have. Fifty-five English language teachers at the English Language Center at Taif University in Saudi Arabia were asked to complete an online survey regarding pronunciation teaching. Their responses were subjected to quantitative descriptive analysis. The results revealed that the teachers highly valued pronunciation teaching, and most of them considered it as important as teaching other language skills. In addition, most of the teachers reported incorporating pronunciation teaching into their English classes. The unavailability of pronunciation materials and technological recourses forced the teachers to employ traditional strategies to teaching pronunciation. The findings also showed a lack of specific pronunciation training available to the teachers, though the teachers desired to have more training opportunities.

Key words: EFL teachers, practices, pronunciation, teachers’ beliefs, training

1. Introduction

Teaching English as a second language (ESL) or as a foreign language (EFL) requires teachers to focus on all language skills. Nevertheless, English pronunciation teaching, relative to other skills, is still neglected in ESL/EFL classrooms (Derwing & Munro, 2005; Gilbert, 2010; Foote, Trofimovich, Collins, & Urzúa, 2016). Recently, pronunciation teaching has become a contentious issue (Foote et al., 2016). The debate has focused on the effectiveness of pronunciation teaching and how it can be effectively taught (Saito, 2011). However, teachers’ cognition and practices have not received enough attention in previous research on pronunciation teaching (Buss, 2015).

Very few studies have examined teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding pronunciation teaching in different EFL/ESL contexts, such as in Brazil (Buss, 2015), in Canada (Breitkreutz, Derwing, & Rossiter, 2001; Foote, Holtby, & Derwing, 2011), in Europe (Henderson, 2013) and in Iran (Yunus, Salehi, & Amini, 2016). In Saudi context, empirical research on teachers’ beliefs in general is still in its infancy (Alghanmi & Shukri, 2016). Further, relative to other language skills, English pronunciation teaching in Saudi context has not been a frequently researched topic. Most of the few studies conducted on teaching pronunciation in Saudi context concentrated on the analysis of pronunciation errors produced by Saudi learners (e.g., Ahmad & Muhiburrahman, 2013; Bintuki, 2008), pronunciation difficulties and problems faced by students (e.g., Hameed & Aslam, 2015), and the effect of pronunciation instruction on learners’ speech production (Algethami, 2016; Algethami, 2017). Because of the lack of research on teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding pronunciation teaching in Saudi Arabia, this study is an attempt to better understand teachers’ beliefs about pronunciation teaching, how pronunciation is taught, and what pronunciation training teachers have in a Saudi EFL setting.

2. Literature Review

2.1 Teachers’ beliefs

To understand teachers’ beliefs, it is crucial to define ‘belief’. The term ‘belief’ can be defined from anthropological, social, psychological and philosophical perspectives (Zheng, 2009), and this makes belief difficult to define (Borg, 2001). According to Borg (2001), a belief is defined as:

A proposition which may be consciously or subconsciously held, it is also evaluative in that it is accepted as true by the individual, and is therefore imbued with emotive commitments; further, it serves as a guide to thought and behavior. (p.186)

In terms of teachers' beliefs, Kagan (1992) defined teachers’ beliefs simply as the assumptions that the teachers hold in classroom about students, learning, and the subject matter they teach. In the same vein, Richard (1998) claimed that teachers’ beliefs are “the information, attitudes, values, expectation, theories, and assumptions about teaching and learning that teachers build up over time and bring with them to the classroom” (p.66).
2.2. Teachers’ beliefs regarding pronunciation teaching

Understanding teachers’ beliefs about pronunciation teaching can help us understand teachers’ practice in EFL classrooms. Most of the studies that have explored pronunciation issues have focused on students’ beliefs and attitudes concerning pronunciation instruction (e.g. Alghazo, 2015; Benzies, 2014; Kang, 2015). Little research has been conducted on teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding pronunciation teaching (Baker, 2014; Buss, 2015).

Sifakis and Sougari (2005), for example, investigated the beliefs about the importance of native-speakers’ accents and their roles in pronunciation norms or models. A number of EFL teachers in Greece were surveyed to elicit their beliefs on issues of accents and ownership of English. Their findings showed that teachers in primary level schools believed that native-speaker norms were important models. Nonetheless, a significant number of teachers pointed out the central role of speech intelligibility. In the same vein, Buckingham (2015) examined teachers’ beliefs about teaching particular accents in EFL classrooms in Oman. The author explored teachers’ views on the importance of native-speaker accents in teaching English in the Gulf. The results showed that the majority of the teachers regularly taught different aspects of pronunciation; however, most of them did not use a particular accent as a model when teaching pronunciation. They rather emphasized the need for a variety of accents. The teachers showed greater awareness of the importance of teaching pronunciation but with ‘clear English’ rather than with a specific accent. Macdonald (2002) showed that Australian teachers were unwilling to teach pronunciation. He conducted a study to find out the reasons behind the avoidance of teaching pronunciation among teachers. Eight ESL teachers were interviewed, and it was found that the curricula they were using did not encourage them to teach pronunciation due to inadequate resources. In addition, they lacked the knowledge of how to assess students’ pronunciation, and they did not feel comfortable with correcting or monitoring their students’ speech.

Another body of research focused on the preferred strategies and approaches used by teachers in teaching pronunciation, and which features of pronunciation should be taught. Baker’s (2011a) found that teachers who took training courses in pronunciation instruction reported preference for the teaching of suprasegmental features in their classes. Similarly, Burri (2015) showed that the cognition of teachers about pronunciation instruction developed during a postgraduate subject on pronunciation pedagogy. Their beliefs shifted from teaching individual sounds (segments) to a more balanced approach to pronunciation instruction which included suprasegmental features. Hismanoglu and Hismanoglu (2010) explored the preferred techniques teachers used when teaching pronunciation. Based on their survey results, they concluded that dictation, reading aloud, and dialogues were the three top preferred techniques reported by the teachers in their study. The authors also indicated that these techniques were traditional ones.

Baker (2014) differentiated between three types of techniques in teaching pronunciation: controlled, guided and free techniques. In controlled techniques, teachers play a dominant role in their instruction (e.g., repetition drills, listening discrimination, and minimal pair activities). The dominant role moves to students in free techniques. The students can collaborate with other students in open-ended activities, such as role play, drama, or presentations. Guided techniques refer to semi-controlled techniques. They are a blend of characteristics from controlled and free techniques, in that they may be both structured and open-ended (e.g., information gap activities,
In the light of these three techniques, Baker (2014) examined five ESL teachers’ cognitions and practices in classrooms regarding pronunciation teaching. She used different methods including semistructured interviews, classroom observations, and stimulated recall interviews to collect data from the teachers. She found that controlled techniques were the dominant techniques used by all five teachers. The same results were reached by Yunus, Salehi, and Amini (2016). Based on the results of these two studies, teachers may seem to be in favor of controlled techniques, although traditional approaches to pronunciation teaching are criticized and many recent communicative approaches appeared.

One of the few studies that investigated how the cognition of pronunciation teachers developed over time is the study of Baker (2011b). The results showed that programs containing at least one course focusing on pronunciation instruction had a significant impact on both teachers’ beliefs and their practices, which in turn increased their confidence in teaching pronunciation. It was also found that many teachers did not possess the knowledge about English pronunciation and how to teach it.

One of the most recent projects that have examined EFL teachers’ beliefs and their classroom practices regarding pronunciation teaching is the English Pronunciation Teaching in Europe Survey (EPTiES) (Henderson, 2013). The survey showed a lack of professional training that deal with pronunciation teaching. The teachers’ responses also indicated that most of them rated their own mastery of English pronunciation positively. According to the target model, most teachers preferred Received Pronunciation, though they recognized that General American English might be more popular amongst their students.

Breitkreutz et al. (2001) surveyed teachers from 67 ESL programs in Canada to explore their beliefs, their preferred methods for teaching pronunciation, and the pronunciation training opportunities they had received. The results showed that most of the teachers considered pronunciation teaching important to ESL learners at all levels. The results also indicated that most of the respondents believed in the importance of teaching both suprasegmental and segmental features. The authors also reported that focusing on troublesome sounds was the most favored strategy among the teachers surveyed. In term of pronunciation training, the results showed that the teachers lacked sufficient training, and indicated a dearth of training opportunities. Ten years later, the same study was replicated by Foote et al. (2011). They reexamined teachers’ beliefs about pronunciation instruction in ESL classes across Canada. The purpose of the study was to find out whether teachers’ beliefs and practices in Canada had changed since Breitkreutz et al. (2001). The findings revealed that there was no much difference between the two studies in terms of teachers’ beliefs and practices. For instance, most of the teachers indicated that they would like more pronunciation training, and they considered pronunciation instruction as important at all levels of proficiency.

In another EFL context, Buss (2015) explored the beliefs and practices of sixty Brazilian teachers. The teachers were found to attribute high importance to pronunciation instruction. The teachers were also found to use traditional pronunciation teaching methods, such as repetition. The study also indicated the limited training opportunities available to Brazilian EFL teachers on pronunciation teaching.
The current study attempts to explore teachers’ beliefs and practices regarding pronunciation instruction in a Saudi EFL setting. No previous study has yet explored the status of pronunciation teaching in Saudi context, particularly teachers’ beliefs about pronunciation teaching, how English pronunciation is taught, and what pronunciation training teachers have.

The current study focuses on one sample from the Saudi EFL context, the English Language Centre (ELC) at Taif University. The following questions are addressed:
1. What pronunciation teaching practices do EFL teachers at Taif University use?
2. What beliefs regarding pronunciation teaching and learning do EFL teachers at Taif University hold?
3. What pronunciation training do EFL teachers at Taif University have?

3. Method
3.1. The survey
The survey used in the current study was an online survey hosted on www.SurveyMonkey.com. It was adapted from the one used by Foote et al. (2011). It was originally developed to examine teachers’ beliefs about pronunciation instruction in Canada. The original survey of Foote et al. (2011) comprised forty-five questions that allowed Canadian teachers to report on their beliefs and practices regarding pronunciation teaching. The survey in this study contained thirty-nine items divided into five major sections. A section on private or one-to-one pronunciation classes was omitted, as we do not have such classes at Taif University. The first section asked the teachers surveyed for background information related to their institution, EFL program, and their students. In addition, it included a Likert scale question about pronunciation training opportunities available to the teachers. The second section asked the teachers for technological resources available to them at the University to teach pronunciation. The questions in this section were five-point Likert scale questions, and open ended questions. The third section asked about how pronunciation teaching was integrated into general EFL classes. It focused on teachers’ practices including the nature and the amount of pronunciation instruction given. Most of the questions in this section were in multiple-choice format. The fourth section asked the teachers to express their beliefs and practices about pronunciation teaching. It included twenty-two closed statements with a Likert scale of seven points to capture the teachers’ levels of agreement with each item. The last section asked the teachers for personal background information (such as age, qualification, teaching experience) in a multiple-choice format.

To ensure the validity of the survey, it was sent to three applied linguists at the Department of Foreign Languages at Taif University. In addition, before distributing the survey, a pilot study was carried out to identify any modifications needed. Further, it was implemented to discover any weaknesses in either the survey or data analysis, which could enhance the validity and reliability of the main study findings. Ten teachers were invited to participate in the pilot study. Based on the findings from the pilot study, the survey was improved before it was used for the main study. Then, the English Language Center (ELC) at Taif University was approached to send a web link to access the online survey in an email to all teachers at the center.
3.2. **Participants**

All the participants were English language teachers at the ELC at Taif University. The participants were chosen based on their accessibility to the researchers, that is, it was a convenience sample. Fifty-seven teachers responded to the survey. Two teachers answered only one or two questions from the first section. Their responses were excluded from the analysis. Thus, the responses of 55 teachers were analyzed. Only 20% of the participants were English native speakers. For the non-native English speakers, 70% reported that their first languages were Arabic, Urdu (26%), Filipino (2%), and Kwa (2%). Most of the participants were in their 30s (46%), with 26% in their 40s and 19% in their 20s. In terms of their highest level of education, more than half of the teachers (56%) had a master’s degree, and 26% had a bachelor degree. Only 2% had doctoral degrees. Regarding TESL/TEFL (teaching English as a second/foreign language) preparation, most of them (41%) held a master’s in TEFL or applied linguistics. Seventeen percent held diploma from a university or college, whereas 20% reported that they did not have any formal TESL/TEFL preparation. Most of the participants (67%) completed their TESL/TEFL preparation between 2001-2015. As for their experience in teaching English, 39% of the teachers had taught English for less than five years. The other teachers mentioned that they taught English between 10-15 years (28%), 5-10 years (17%), and 15-20 years (11%). Only two teachers had taught English for more than 20 years.

3.3. **Data Analysis**

After two months from opening the survey, the data were extracted and analyzed. For the quantitative data, the analysis provided by SurveyMonkey was used for descriptive analysis. The data collected from open-ended questions were categorized to be ready for analysis. Then, the number of mentions for each category was counted and percentages were calculated.

4. **Results**

4.1. **Pronunciation Teaching Practices**

The teachers’ responses to the question that asked about the frequency of teaching pronunciation were generally positive. The majority of the teachers integrated pronunciation instruction into their EFL classes (always=31%, often = 29%, sometimes=31%). Only 8% said that they rarely taught pronunciation (n=4), and no one responded to this question by they never taught pronunciation (n=0).

These positive results were confirmed by the responses to the following question. The respondents were asked to select all the statements that applied to them between five statements. As indicated in Figure 1, 47% of the teachers frequently taught specific pronunciation features when needed, and just over half (51%) indicated that they always tended to correct any mispronounced words. Furthermore, 34% of the teachers taught pronunciation explicitly in their regular EFL classes.
Figure 1 shows that most of the teachers taught pronunciation by either correcting mispronounced words or teaching specific pronunciation features. Using extra resources to teach pronunciation was the least frequently used approach by the teachers. Additionally, the teachers’ were relatively positive when asked if most of the EFL instructors in their center could integrate pronunciation instruction into their classes, with 66% indicating that they could. Only 18% reported that they could not, and 16% were unsure. Because *can* is different from *do*, around one third of the teachers (35%) agreed that EFL instructors in their center integrated pronunciation instruction into their classes. Twenty-five percent of the teachers mentioned that they did integrate pronunciation instruction, and 40% were unsure in this regard.

Regarding the materials and resources in teaching pronunciation, the majority of the respondents (78%) indicated that they used pronunciation activities in their general skills textbooks. However, around 97% did not use specific pronunciation textbooks in their classes. Similarly, 82% of the teachers responded *no* to the question about using resource or reference books to supplement their classes. One of the three who answered *yes* indicated the use of worksheets. The remaining two reported that they used YouTube videos.
As for the amount of time spent in teaching pronunciation, the teachers were asked first to write the time they spent in teaching English in general per week. Most of the teachers spent 12 hours in teaching English per week ($n=35$). Then, they were asked to select the amount of time given to pronunciation instruction from a list: none (10%), less than 15 minutes (18%), 15 minutes (28%), 30 minutes (8%), 60 minutes (14%), 90 minutes (4%), 120 minutes (6%), more than 120 minutes (10%). Moreover, almost all teachers reported that they spent at least some time on teaching suprasegmental features (e.g. syllable structure, stress, rhythm, and intonation). Most of the teachers (76%) indicated that they spent between 10% and 50% of the time to teach suprasegmental features. Only 15% of the teachers reported that they spent 70% or more of the time on suprasegmentals ($n=7$). No one indicated spending all their time on suprasegmental features.

The teachers also were asked which activities were the most effective in helping students to improve their pronunciation. Their responses were categorized into three main activities according to the activities frequently mentioned by the teachers: segmental activities, suprasegmental activities, and repetition. The segmental activities such as using phonetic symbols, individual sound exercises, and minimal pairs were the most frequently used activities by the teachers. The second type of activities was suprasegmental activities. These activities included stress placement activities and syllable structure activities. Repetition was also mentioned seven times. Other activities were also reported by the teachers, such as listening (two times), tongue twister, and using mirror. One of the teachers wrote the following comment “I don’t use a lot of pronunciation activities because our textbook doesn’t give much time to pronunciation or a variety of activities”.

Concerning the main pronunciation problems experienced by their students, the teachers’ responses were categorized into three main categories: individual sounds, suprasegmental features and vowels. These were the most serious pronunciation problems mentioned by the teachers. Problems with individual sounds were the most frequently reported (31 times), especially voiced and voiceless contrastive sounds, such as /p/ and /b/, /v/ and /f/. Five teachers mentioned the problem of distinguishing between /ʃ/ and /tʃ/. Vowels and suprasegmental features followed individual sounds, with 21 instances for each. One of the teachers made the following comment:

The students face issues especially with vowels, as Arabic and English vowel systems are entirely different. Also, consonant clustering patterns are different in both languages because of which my students tend to insert vowels between certain consonants when they are not required. Also, they have problem with stress due to the influence of L1.

Another teacher mentioned that some students pronounced short vowels instead of long vowels. As for suprasegmental features, they referred to suprasegmental problems in general, but intonation ($n=10$) and stress ($n=7$) were the most common problems. Furthermore, -ed ending was listed as a problem by two teachers.

The teachers were also asked to describe the most difficult aspects of pronunciation to teach. The results are presented in Table 1.
Table 1
The Most Difficult Aspects of Pronunciation to Teach

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Aspect of Pronunciation</th>
<th>Number of Mentions</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Stress</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>26%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individual sounds</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intonation</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vowels</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Syllable</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 indicates, stress was the most difficult feature to teach (11 times). The other challenging features were individual sounds (9 times), intonation (8 times), vowels (8 times), and syllable (6 times). One teacher listed rhythm as a difficult aspect in pronunciation teaching.

The teachers were also asked about the strategies they recommended to students to deal with communication breakdowns that were related to pronunciation errors. The teachers selected all that applied from a checklist. Repetition was the most popular strategy (85%), followed by focus on trouble sounds (66%), speak louder (40%), spell the word (38%), and speak slower (32%).

Regarding technological resources, the majority of the teachers (83%) reported no to the question about the availability of language or computer labs for the teaching of pronunciation in their institution or center. Seventeen percent of the teachers who answered yes indicated that most of them (79%) did not use either a language lab or a computer lab. Only 12% of the teachers have used a language lab \( (n=4) \), and 11% have used a computer lab \( (n=3) \). The reason why the teachers slightly varied in their answers to question about the availability of language or computer labs at their institutions is likely to be because their interpretations of what a pronunciation teaching language or computer lab actually is.

4.2. Beliefs regarding Pronunciation Teaching and Learning
The majority of the teachers (96%) believed that their students have difficulty with pronunciation. Two teachers only answered no to the question. The teachers indicated the importance of teaching pronunciation. They were asked to rate on a Likert scale the importance of teaching pronunciation to their students of different proficiency levels (beginners, intermediate learners, advanced learners) from 1= not at all important to 7= extremely important (Figure 2).
Overall, the teachers highly valued teaching pronunciation for learners at all levels. Most of the teachers (70%) reported that it was important for beginners, 82% mentioned that it was important for intermediate learners, 90% reported that it was important for advanced learners, and 76% of them considered it extremely important for advanced learners.

To examine teachers’ beliefs about pronunciation instruction, they were asked to respond to 22 statements about teaching pronunciation. The teachers were asked to express their levels of agreement on a seven-point scale (from 1=strongly agree to 7= strongly disagree). Following (Buss, 2015), their responses were collapsed into three categories: agree (1-3), neutral (4), disagree (5-7) as shown in Table 2.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Agree (%)</th>
<th>Neutral (%)</th>
<th>Disagree (%)</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Standard Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Teaching pronunciation does not usually result in permanent changes.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>4.60</td>
<td>1.93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching pronunciation is difficult.</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>2.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communicative practice is the best way to teach pronunciation.</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>1.56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A heavy foreign accent usually makes students' speech incomprehensible.</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>2.91</td>
<td>1.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The best person to teach pronunciation is someone who is specialized in phonetics.</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.55</td>
<td>2.09</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You can't teach pronunciation to lower levels.</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>5.34</td>
<td>1.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only native speakers should teach pronunciation.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>77</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>1.94</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is an age-related limitation on the acquisition of native like pronunciation.</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>4.23</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation instruction is only effective for highly motivated learners.</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some individuals resist changing their pronunciation in order to maintain their L1 identity.</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>3.67</td>
<td>1.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Belief</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly Agree</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Strongly Disagree</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>----------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>----------------</td>
<td>----------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation is best to be learned by living in a country where English is the first language.</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.94</td>
<td>2.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The goal of a pronunciation program should be to eliminate, as much as possible, foreign accent.</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>2.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'm completely comfortable teaching segmentals (i.e., individual sounds, such as /p/).</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>2.43</td>
<td>1.58</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I'm completely comfortable teaching all aspects of prosody (suprasegmentals: syllable structure, stress, rhythm &amp; intonation).</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>2.94</td>
<td>1.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I wish I had more training in teaching pronunciation.</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>2.26</td>
<td>1.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To teach English pronunciation to Arabs, one needs to have some knowledge about the sound system of Arabic.</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>2.85</td>
<td>1.91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation teaching is often unnecessary, as most learners are able to pick up on pronunciation when frequently exposed to good input.</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>4.32</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native speakers should be the model for pronunciation teaching.</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>3.62</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Most learners don’t like teachers to correct their pronunciation.</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3.34</td>
<td>1.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t like teaching pronunciation.</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>2.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The only goal of pronunciation teaching is to make students comfortably intelligible to their listeners.</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>1.98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pronunciation is best learned through language immersion, without the need for rules or theoretical explanations.</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>2.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The majority of the teachers (85%) believed that communicative practice is the best way to teach pronunciation (mean = 2.17). The teachers’ responses regarding their abilities to teach certain aspects of pronunciation were positive. They were completely comfortable with teaching segmentals (78%), and 68% agreed that they were completely comfortable teaching all aspects of prosody. Moreover, 83% of the teachers wished they had more training in teaching pronunciation. Sixty-eight percent of the teachers believed that knowing the sound system of Arabic is necessary to teach English pronunciation to Arab learners. Although more than half of them (55%) found teaching pronunciation difficult, 76% of them indicated that they liked teaching pronunciation. Most of the teachers (77%) disagreed with the notion that only native speakers should teach pronunciation, whereas 55% believed that native speakers should be the model for pronunciation teaching. Also, most of them disagreed with the statement "You can't teach pronunciation to lower levels" (mean = 5.34). Thus, they indicated the possibility of teaching pronunciation to lower levels.

4.3. Pronunciation Training

When the teachers were asked if the instructors in their center had special training in pronunciation, 22% reported that some of the instructors had special training, and 27% said that none did. Just above half of the teachers (n=28) were unsure. Regarding the pronunciation training opportunities available to them, 48% of the respondents indicated that the teachers could access university or college courses, and the same percentage mentioned that the teachers were able to attend conference presentations and workshops. Forty-two percent of the respondents said that the teachers could access in-house seminars. Only 24% indicated that teachers could take commercial courses offered by private sectors as shown in Figure 3.

![Figure 3 Pronunciation training opportunities available to the teachers](image)

As figure 3 indicates, it could be concluded that most teachers indicated that there was no sufficient training opportunities available to them. Then, the teachers were asked to point out what types of formal pronunciation training they themselves had received. Most of the teachers (49%)
had taken linguistics courses such as phonetics and phonology, and 49% of the teachers had received training as a part of a general TESL/TEFL. Forty-four percent of the teachers indicated that they had received a combination of linguistics courses and a pedagogical course in pronunciation. Only 16% of the teachers had taken a credit course at a university that focused specially on pronunciation teaching. Eight teachers reported that they had no training to teach pronunciation. The majority of the teachers had received general training, such as linguistics courses and general TESL/TEFL courses. Only seven teachers had taken specific courses on pronunciation teaching and four teachers had attended sporadic courses at conferences. The responses to the open-ended question “Are there any pronunciation training opportunities currently not available to you which you would like to have access to?” represent the need for more specific pronunciation training. The teachers indicated that they wanted more professional pronunciation training opportunities. For example, some of the teachers wrote, “Any training related to pronunciation” and “specific pronunciation training”.

5. Discussion

The EFL teachers in the current study showed a positive tendency toward integrating pronunciation instruction into their classes. Most of the EFL teachers in the current study reported that they taught pronunciation to their students. For example, half of the teachers always tended to correct mispronounced words. These findings concur with Breitkreutz et al. (2001), Buss (2015) and Foote et al. (2011). They agreed that teachers usually included pronunciation instruction into their regular classes. Also, 73% of the Canadian teachers in the study of Foote et al. (2011) regularly corrected mispronounced words. On the contrary, the study of Buss (2015) indicated that correcting mispronounced words was the least frequent approach used by the Brazilian EFL teachers.

Almost all of the teachers (97%) used neither specific pronunciation books nor additional reference books to supplement their classes. They rather focused mainly in their teaching of pronunciation on activities presented in their general skills textbooks. Similar results were found in Buss (2015). Likewise, Breitkreutz et al. (2001) indicated the disappointment of the teachers regarding the material available to them. In contrast, Foote et al. (2011) found that half of the teachers in their study used specific-pronunciation books and supplementary textbooks.

The findings of the current study also showed that most of the teachers in the ELC did not use either a language lab or a computer lab, and the majority of them (more than 80%) said that they were not available to them. Although the teachers did not use these technological resources that supported teaching pronunciation, they indicated the importance of using technology in pronunciation instruction.

The teachers preferred activities that focused on segmental features. They reported that activities like phonetic symbols, individual sound exercises, and minimal pairs were the most effective activities that helped students to improve their pronunciation. This preference to focusing on segmental features more than on suprasegmental features in pronunciation instruction was also found in Buss (2015), and Foote et al. (2016). In contrast, Breitkreutz et al. (2001) showed a more balanced view of teaching pronunciation; the teachers focused on segmental features as well as suprasegmental features. In addition, the emphasis on segmental features explains the teachers’
own challenges to teaching some suprasegmental aspects. The teachers in the current study considered stress, as a main suprasegmental feature, as the most difficult aspect of pronunciation to teach. The teachers in the present study tended to focus on the features that were most challenging for their students. The findings revealed that individual sounds, such as /p/ and /b/, /v/ and /l/, and /θ/ and /ð/ were the most frequent problems experienced by their students. Buss (2015) also indicated that the individual sounds were the most challenging aspects for Brazilian learners, especially the th sound /θ/ and /ð/.

Regarding teachers’ beliefs, the teachers agreed on the importance of teaching pronunciation in their classes. They showed a positive attitude towards pronunciation instruction. They believed that it was important to teach pronunciation to all levels: beginner, intermediate, and advanced. Most of the responses to the last question “Is there anything else you would like to mention about pronunciation instruction at your institution or in general?” represent this attitude, as they all mentioned the importance of pronunciation teaching in language classes. This is similar to the finding in Buss (2015) and Foote et al. (2011) where the teachers considered pronunciation teaching as highly important and had positive attitudes towards it. Most of the teachers’ beliefs in the current study were in line with previous studies (Breitkreutz et al., 2001; Buss, 2015; Foote et al., 2011). For instance, the majority of the teachers (85%) believed that teaching pronunciation communicatively is the best way to improve learners’ pronunciation. They agreed that intelligibility and comprehensibility are the main goal for teaching pronunciation. In addition, they did not believe that a native speaker should be the best person to teach pronunciation. Another finding is that the teachers expressed their confidence in teaching pronunciation. They mentioned that they felt comfortable teaching different aspects of pronunciation, including segmental and suprasegmental aspects. Hence, 76% disagreed with the statement “I don’t like teaching pronunciation”. This is contrary to the findings of Macdonald (2002), which found that teachers didn’t have enough confidence to teach pronunciation, and then they tended to avoid teaching pronunciation. Most of the teachers (83%) also expressed a wish for more training opportunities in teaching pronunciation.

The result of the present study is unlike the results of previous studies in that half of the teachers in the present study believed that native speech should be the model for pronunciation instruction; however, they did not think that the native speaker is the best person to teach pronunciation. Along the same line, Sifakis and Sougari (2005) found that Greek teachers had a tendency to use native-speakers norms in teaching pronunciation. Furthermore, most of the teachers expressed the ineffectiveness of explicit instruction of pronunciation. They believed that exposure to an appropriate input is the best way to improve pronunciation. One teacher wrote: “Frequent exposure to good input and high motivation in my opinion is better than explicit pronunciation teaching”. This belief of explicit pronunciation teaching as being ineffective was also found in Foote et al. (2011).
Generally, and in agreement with Breitkreutz et al. (2001), Buss (2015) and Foote et al. (2011), the teachers’ responses in the current study indicated a lack of pronunciation training opportunities. In terms of pronunciation training, most of them had only received general training, either in linguistics courses, such as phonetics or phonology, or general TESL/TEFL courses. They lacked both professional and specific training on teaching pronunciation. From what was mentioned above, it seems plausible to assume that the teachers focus on segmental aspects was due to the kind of training they had received, as most of them had taken general courses in phonetics and phonology (Foote et al., 2011), where usually the focus of these courses tend to be on segmental aspects of speech. Therefore, as noted earlier, the majority of the teachers had a wish for more pronunciation training opportunities.

6. Pedagogical Implications
The results of the current study show a clear need for more professional development and training in the area of pronunciation teaching among EFL teachers. In addition, teachers should be encouraged to effectively integrate pronunciation in their teaching at both levels, segmental and suprasegmental. Introducing more materials and technological resources may help to fill the current teaching gap, which is mainly a result of traditional strategies and a focus on pronunciation tasks found in general English language textbooks.

7. Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research
Although the current study can give a glimpse of the current practices and beliefs regarding pronunciation teaching in English language centers in Saudi Arabia, it is limited to the ELC at Taif University, and therefore, it is difficult to generalize the results to other English language centers in Saudi Arabia. Future research needs to explore beliefs and practices about pronunciation teaching in all English language centers and institutes in Saudi Arabia. Another limitation is related to the tool used in the current study. Because the use of survey is not enough to capture the full range of practices by the teachers, a study that uses observations and interviews are needed for thorough investigation.

8. Conclusion
This study aimed to fill the gap in the literature by providing a snapshot of the current status of pronunciation instruction in a Saudi EFL setting, particularly at Taif University. It investigated the beliefs that the EFL teachers at Taif University held about teaching pronunciation, the way pronunciation was taught, and the pronunciation training the teachers had. The EFL teachers at the English Language Centre (ELC) at Taif University were surveyed to find answers for these questions. It is evident from the results of this study that a high level of agreement was expressed with regard to the importance of pronunciation teaching. However, the teachers were not satisfied with the materials available to them to teach pronunciation. They were also not satisfied with the training they had received for teaching pronunciation. Thus, it is hoped that more professional training opportunities will become available to help the teachers integrate pronunciation teaching into their English language classes.

Acknowledgment
Many thanks to Jennifer Foote for sharing with us the survey they used in Foote et.al. (2011).
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References


The Present Progressive: A Difficult Aspect to Learn, Evidence from the Moroccan EFL Classroom

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Abstract
The present progressive is one of the structures that create immense problems to foreign learners of English in general and Moroccan ones in particular. These learners fail to use this aspect appropriately in discourse due to a difficulty in internalising its real meaning. Our survey shows that these English as a foreign language (EFL) learners associate the present progressive with only one context of use - the one referring to actions/events happening around NOW or at the moment of speaking. Students generally fail to go beyond this focal meaning. They tend to ignore the other contexts where the present progressive can be used. Along with this complexity/plurality of meaning, the problem could be attributed to some deficiencies in the learning and the teaching enterprises as well. This paper draws both students’ and practitioners’ attention to a number of facts related to the learning/teaching of this aspect. The study provides a detailed description of the different functions/uses of the present progressive with examples. Moreover, it highlights the situations/contexts that are more problematic to students on the basis of our test’s results. Most importantly, the findings show that the conventional traditional grammar course has many limitations. Therefore, there is an urgent need for an alternative course or method of teaching that is capable of helping students become more proficient in the use of tense and aspect in general.

Key words: aspect, learning, present progressive, teaching, tense

Introduction

Learning a second/foreign language involves learning its grammar. This latter has been always considered as the focal element in any language program. If the objective is to help learners become accurate in language use, grammar should be taught regardless of the approach adopted. As language users, we have a pretty good ear for what sounds correct and what sounds wrong. In our communication, we usually drop an eye upon vocabulary mistakes. However, grammatical errors are usually hard to tolerate. Such errors communicate some information about how far is the learner in the learning process.

While learning grammar, learners make a lot of errors. Like children acquiring their mother tongue (MT), non-native learners go through certain stages and developmental orders during the process of learning a target language (TL). Learners’ production varies from one developmental stage to another. During these stages, learners make series of systematic errors because their knowledge about the TL is incomplete. Studies have shown that errors also occur due to transfer from learners’ MT. Transfer can be a big problem if the learner’s native language is too distinct from the TL. In this respect, Arab learners, in general, encounter a number of difficulties while dealing with the grammar of English since there are huge dissimilarities between Arabic and English.

Tense and aspect are two grammatical components that Arab learners in general find difficult to learn. The difficulty basically stems from the fact that Standard Arabic and English are two different languages. Hence, they consist of two distinct tense-aspect systems. English, on one hand, has a lot of tense and aspect classes. Arabic, on the other hand, consists of just two aspects: the perfect called ‘al madi’ / الماضي / and the imperfect called ‘al modarie’ / الماضي المضارع. The former refers to complete actions “what we did”; and the latter refers to incomplete ones “what we do”. Yet, language distance is not the only cause for the difficulty learners face. Undoubtedly, the problem is also due to a number of deficiencies in the learning and the teaching enterprises.

Studies have also shown that Arab learners are in favour of the simple aspects such as the simple present and the simple past (Bouras, 2006). This has always been taken as evidence for transfer. Arab learners mark temporal situations in English under a strong influence of the Arabic aspectual classes (the perfect and the imperfect). The tendency to use the simple aspects should be also seen as an instance of overuse and avoidance strategies. Students overuse the simple aspects because they find them easy to use. They often substitute difficult structures of the TL by easy/simple ones.

Based on our experience in teaching grammar for a respectful number of years, Moroccan EFL university students were observed to have serious difficulties in learning the present progressive. As said before, these learners limit their use of the present progressive just to one context of use- the one that describes actions or events taking place at the moment of speaking or around NOW. Students tend to ignore the other meanings / contexts of use for the present progressive. This fact is confirmed by our test’s results.

1. Literature review

Various are the studies in literature that have exhaustively tackled the tense-aspect system of English: Bardovi-Harlig, 1992, 1994, 1998, and 2000; Salaberry, 1999, 2000a, and 2000b; Andersen & Shirai, 1995; Shirai, 1991 and 2007; Robison, 1990 and 1995; Ayon & Salaberry, 2008; and Collins, 2002. Those studies have drawn a clear distinction between tense and aspect as two confusing but related concepts in the study of temporal structure. They also shed light on the lexical aspect hypothesis developed by the functionalist school. Much has been said, in this respect, about the English verb and verb classes and how the semantic meaning inherent in verbs determines our use of aspect.

1.1. Tense, aspect and the lexical aspect hypothesis

Tense has been generally defined as the grammatical representation of time in language. Jarvie (1993) says “the word tense is from Latin tempus ‘time’ and it is used to show the time when the action of the verb takes place” (p. 37). Jarvie argues that actions or events occur in time sequence and when we refer to them by the means of language we use tenses. Similarly, Downing and Locke (1992) claim that “tense primarily involves visualising events as points in a sequence, preceding or following a central point which is usually the present moment” (p. 30). Literature shows that English consists of two tenses: present and past. Future is not regarded a tense since there is no one specific verb form strongly associated with future time. Future is expressed by the use of auxiliaries namely auxiliaries be and have. This view was adopted by old grammarians and even by contemporary researchers such as Lewis (1986).
Unlike tense, aspect is not a deictic category. It does not have a direct link with time as being present or past (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 188). Instead, it sees the event from the inside and tries to provide a temporal interpretation of that event on the basis of tenses. Comrie (1976) explains that “Aspects are different ways of viewing the internal temporal constituency of a situation” (p. 3). It is concerned with localising event situations in a time scale with regard to their completion or incompleteness. Aspect, in its broader sense, divides into perfective and imperfective. The progressive is regarded as a subdivision of the imperfective.

### Aspectual oppositions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Perfective</th>
<th>Imperfective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Habitual</td>
<td>Continuous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-progressive</td>
<td>Progressive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Figure 1, Classification of aspectual oppositions (Comrie, 1976, p. 25)*

The lexical aspect hypothesis put forward by the functionalists encouraged linguists to investigate the nature and the meaning of the English verbs as well as the relation these verbs have with aspect. Studies have shown that learners mark tense and aspect under a strong influence of lexical classes of verbs. In this regard, two verb classifications have been widely accepted and adopted by a vast number of researchers: Vendler (1957) and Comrie (1976). Vendler, for example, claims that the English verb falls within the four categories listed below:

**States**: verbs refer to unchanging conditions with a non-temporal reference statement: be, want, have, love, own (the farm), believe (in ghosts)…etc

**Activities**: verbs refer to processes, on-going actions with no inherent beginning or end point: play, walk, breathe, run, laugh, sleep, push (a cart), laugh, eat (cherries)…etc

**Accomplishments**: verbs involve limited duration (last for a period of time) with an inherent end-point: run (a mile), paint (a house), build (a bridge), write (a letter), walk (to the lake), read a book,…etc

**Achievements**: verbs which are non-durative, but they have an inherent end-point: finish, realise, arrive, reach (the peak / the top), break (a stick/ a cup), notice (something), define a (parameter)…etc.

### 1.2. The meaning and use of the present progressive

The present progressive is one of the most complex aspects of the present tense of English since it is applied in different contexts of use. This aspect is marked by the use of auxiliary *be* in the present + the *-ing* marker attached to the verb as in ‘*he is reading, they are watching TV*’. Leech and Svartvik (2013) claim that “the verbs which most typically take the progressive aspect are verbs denoting ACTIVITIES (walk, read, drink, write, work, etc) or PROCESSES (change, grow, widen, improve, etc)” (p. 52). As an aspect of the present tense, it basically refers to a temporary activity in progress. This activity must be incomplete in nature. The action, in this respect, stretches into the past and into the future; in the sense that no information about the beginning or the end is given (Quirk, Greenbaum, Leech, & Svartvik, 1985, p. 209).

The present progressive is also perceived as describing actions or events happening around the moment of speaking (occurring at the time of the utterance). The action, in this sense, is seen as turning around the moment NOW. This latter can refer to the actual now ‘means at the time being’ as in *John is washing his car now*. It can also refer to a longer action happening around now. *NOW* in this context can mean this second, today, this month, this year, or even this century as in *She is studying to become an engineer*.

Within durativity, the present progressive is also used to describe a changing, growing, and developing situation. The action in this situation is on-going as in *Your English is improving*. It is important to note that the present progressive is also applied when the change or the growth of a situation happens in a slow manner (slowly changing situations). This is what Binnick (2006) calls a change of intensity (p. 250). The present progressive is used, especially if this change is positive as in *They are believing in God more and more* (p. 250).
Apart from durativity, the progressive expresses a habitual meaning as well. Comrie (1976) states that “the English progressive can refer to a habitual situation that holds for a relatively limited period.” These habits are temporary in nature; they are not lasting for long as in You are smoking too much (these days)! The present progressive is also used to describe annoying habits. Lewis (1986) claims that the progressive can express the speaker’s surprise or annoyance at the unexpectedly high frequency of the event (p. 97) as in You are always losing your keys! This aspect is also used to refer to actions happening before or after a given time as in ‘At eight o’clock we are usually having breakfast’. It is also used to indicate repetition and irritation usually accompanied by the use of some words such as always and constantly as in they are always complaining. Additionally, this aspect can be used to describe actions or events that happen again and again with no change as indicated by I like him because he is always laughing. The examples above all show that the progressive has a habitual meaning as well.

The present progressive is also used in English with a future reference when indicating future arrangements or plans. In this regard, the present progressive is expressed by means of verbs denoting movement from one place/condition to another. Leech and Svartvik (2013) point out “the present progressive is used for future events resulting from a present plan, programme, or arrangement” (p. 55). In this use, the present progressive must be accompanied with some future time signals that indicate future time such as tomorrow, next week, next month …etc as in Mary is going to a new school next term.

Last but not least, the present progressive is also commonly used to refer to new states or current trends as in More and more people are becoming vegetarian. Most of the time, expressions such as these days and nowadays are associated with this use.

In short, the present progressive, as we have seen, is an aspect that is characterized by plurality of meaning and complexity of use that foreign learners of English need to be aware of so as to function effectively in discourse.

2. Methodology

A group of semester 1 students at the faculty of Arts at Ibn Tofail University- Kenitra, Morocco, was randomly selected to be the subject of the present study. The group consists of 80 students including 35 males and 45 females. All students are Moroccan and they come from different regions of Kenitra city. They are of an Arab and Amazigh background. They all went through the same educational system before majoring in English at university. They are A2 level according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

To evaluate their proficiency in the use of the present progressive in particular, the subjects sat for a tense-based test. They were given the test directly after they have finished reviewing and practicing all tenses/ aspects of English with their teacher in the grammar course. The test consists of 10 situations in the form of dialogues and e-mails. It aims to test students’ awareness of the different meanings and contexts of use of the present progressive.

As for data analysis, the quantitative methodology is adopted. Students’ answers are transformed into frequencies and percentages. In other words, the answers are listed on a table that provides information about how frequent each aspect is used. The frequencies are also turned into percentages for easy interpretation.

3. Data analysis

As stated from the very beginning, the present progressive is one of the aspects that Moroccan EFL university students really find hard to learn. At the first glance, this claim might sound a little bit shocking to some practitioners who just believe the opposite. The present study disproves all the false assumptions about the learning of this aspect. More precisely, it provides concrete evidence supported by quantitative data that Moroccan EFL learners usually fail to apply this aspect appropriately in the required contexts.

Generally speaking, the subjects in this paper failed to hit the target in most, if not all, of the test’s situations. Students’ answers are also inconsistent. That is, they sometimes succeed in applying the present progressive in one context, but they fail to do so in another. This suggests that this aspect has not yet fully learned.
Our test’s results also reveal other important facts about Moroccan learners of English. First, students, in many occasions, used the present simple instead of the present progressive. This confusion between the two aspects comes as a result of the interference of their L1 or Standard Arabic. Zhiri (2014) claims that Moroccan university students, as most of Arab learners of English, tend to consider the Arabic imperfect as an equivalent to both the English present simple and present progressive aspects (p. 293). Second, and most importantly, these learners had difficulty to function appropriately at the discourse level. Evidence for this can be taken from students’ failure to recognise that the present progressive is required in all the test’s situations as well as from their failure to maintain the same aspect in the same utterance. For more details about our claims, let us analyse some of the test’s situations.

Situation 1

A: I haven’t seen John lately.
B: Well. He is busy these days. He ……………………..(work) on his project. He has to submit it by the end of this month.
A: Oh! I see.

Table 1, Students’ answers for situation 1

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses / aspects</th>
<th>Slot 1</th>
<th>Slot 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple present</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present progressive</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>57.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple past</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>8.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past progressive</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect progressive</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong form</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Observing the frequencies for situation 1 above, we notice that more than half of students have successfully come up with the correct answer (the present progressive). A situation such as 1 does not usually create big problems to students. The majority find it easy to use the present progressive for temporary activities in progress either at the moment of speaking or around NOW. To check the validity of this claim, let us consider the results for another similar situation.

Situation 2

A: What …………………………(you / do) Anna?
B: I ………………………………(look for) some important documents. I can’t find them!
A: What do you need them for?
B: For the bank loan, you know.

Table 2, Students’ answers for situation 2

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses /aspects</th>
<th>Slot 1</th>
<th>Slot 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple present</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>23.75%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Situation 2 reveals a number of facts. Most importantly, the results for this situation echo those of the preceding one. Yet, it is worth noticing that a significant proportion of students opted for the simple present instead of the present progressive in answer slot 1 as indicated by 23.75% of total answers. Strikingly, this confusion between the simple and the progressive aspects is not really significant in answer slot 2. This could be attributed to the fact that interrogative sentences are usually difficult to construct than affirmative ones. Additionally, students of lower proficiency level usually put questions in simple forms (using the simple present). Since they have not mastered language yet at this level, students pay less attention to the temporal constituency of the question.

Another striking fact that is worth considering related to situation 2 above is that students’ answers are inconsistent. For example, the percentage of success as far the use of the present progressive is concerned is higher in answer slot 2 (65%) than in answer slot 1 (53.75%). The frequencies in answer slot 1 suggest something about the difficulty students find in maintaining the same aspect in discourse. This claim is confirmed by the results of situation 3 below.

**Situation 3**

Hello Mum!

I’m in Beijing now. I……………………… (stay) at a very traditional Chinese hotel. Beijing is an over-populated city, but it is very fascinating. I………………………(enjoy) myself a lot. I …………………… (visit) a lot of wonderful places and I………………… (make) some new friends here. Chinese people are kind and helpful. Recently, Lee, my Chinese friend, invited me to dinner among her family. I tried the Chinese Chicken Chow Mein for the first time. It’s a very delicious recipe. I wish you were here with me.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses / aspects</th>
<th>Slot 1</th>
<th>Slot 2</th>
<th>Slot 3</th>
<th>Slot 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple present</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6.25%</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>32.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present progressive</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>23.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple past</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple future</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5%</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong form</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>21.25%</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As it is clearly illustrated in table 3, the frequencies or percentages for situation 3 are totally inconsistent as far as the use of the present progressive is concerned. The percentage varies in the four answer slots. This is a strong evidence for the fact that these learners usually encounter immense difficulties in maintaining the same aspect in discourse due to the failure of understanding the whole context. Students usually use the present progressive correctly for temporary activities just when they are given separate individual sentences that contain some time signals. Students are mere product of the traditional method of teaching that focuses on the teaching of form and structures out of context.

The results of this situation also show that a lot of students use the simple present in answer slot 1 (32.5% of total answers) and, strikingly, the simple past in answer slots 3 and 4 as indicated respectively by 60% and 51.25% of total answers. This is in fact a strong evidence for transfer from Standard Arabic. We feel the influence of the Arabic perfect and imperfect classes on students’ answers. Students interpret the action in terms of its completion or incompleteness. If it is complete, it is the past. If it is incomplete, then it is the present. In fact, this is how the system works in Standard Arabic. Because they have not yet grasped the real meaning of the progressive, students failed to understand that the speaker in situation 3 above is telling her mother about the different actions she is taking at this period of time she is spending in Beijing. Students could have predicted from the context that the visit is still taking place. Thus, all actions are in progress (they are incomplete as the visit has not reached an end).

On the basis of our discussion above, one can conclude to the fact that students can, to some extent, think about / use the present progressive when the matter involves temporary actions taking place at the moment of speaking or around NOW. Yet, maintaining the same aspect in discourse as well as formulating questions by the means of the present progressive are really difficult to achieve. For more details about the other problems students have with this aspect, let us consider the situations below.

**Situation 4**

A: I’m Tom’s mother. Do you remember me?
B: Yes, of course.
A: I came just to ask you about Tom. I’d like to know whether he has progressed or not.
B: Sure. Tom ……………………..(get) better at playing the piano. Don’t worry. He is a good learner.

**Table 4, Students’ answers for situation 4**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses/ aspects</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>Freq. %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple present</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>10%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present progressive</strong></td>
<td>14</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple past</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong form</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As indicated by the results, this context of use (the present progressive for slowly changing situations) is very problematic to students. Only 17.5% of students could recognise the use of the present progressive in situation 4. Strikingly, the majority of students looked at the action as complete (finished). That is why; 37.5% of them opted for the simple past. Students failed again to understand the context. They could not grasp that the act of learning how to play the piano is ongoing and that Tom needs more time to be a good piano player. There is no indication about the completion/ end of the action.
Another context which is also problematic to Moroccan learners is the use of the present progressive for habitual meaning. The results for situations 5 and 6 below show this fact. Each of these situations consists of two answer slots. Hence, they give us the opportunity to compare between the present progressive for temporary activities and the present progressive for temporary and irritating /annoying habits. Let us analyse each in turn.

**Situation 5**

A: I can’t really stand tobacco smoke.
B: Yeah. That’s Jim. He ………………………. (smoke) on the terrace.
A: I thought he doesn’t smoke!
B: No. He smokes from time to time, but he ………………………(smoke) a lot these days.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses / aspects</th>
<th>Slot 1</th>
<th>Slot 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Freq.</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple present</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>33.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present progressive</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present perfect</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple past</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past progressive</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong form</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Situation 5 clearly illustrates that the percentage of success for answer slot 1 (temporary activity) is higher than in answer slot 2 (temporary habit) as indicated respectively by 40 % versus only 13.75% of total answers. This suggests that students have more problems with the habitual meaning of the present progressive. Students usually use the simple present when a habit is involved. For this reason, 42.5% of students opted for the simple present in answer slot 2. The use of the simple present may also be attributed to the influence of the word *smokes* in the utterance. Regardless of the existence of the phrase *these days* which is always associated with the present progressive, students failed to hit the target. More evidence for this association students make between the simple present and the habitual meaning can be taken from situation 6 below.

**Situation 6**

A: Are you on the train?
B: Well! I ………………………. (still / wait) at the station. I missed the 5 o’clock train.
A: No! You ………………………. (always / miss) your train!!
B: Well, I tried to be on time, but I arrived 5 minutes late.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses/ aspects</th>
<th>Slot 1</th>
<th>Slot 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Simple present</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present progressive</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Present perfect</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Simple past</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past progressive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong form</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No answer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As a matter of fact, the results of this situation echo the ones in situation 5 above. Once again, students failed to refer to an irritating / annoying habit by the means of the present progressive as it is the case in answer slot 2. In this slot, 41.25% of students used the simple present under a strong influence of the word always which they usually associate with the simple form. The use of the simple present here is acceptable, but natives usually favour the present progressive when the habit is annoying or irritating. Thus, associating the habitual meaning with the present progressive is really beyond students’ awareness.

Using the present progressive for future arrangements (future actions that result from a present plan) is very challenging to Moroccan learners of English. The results of situation 7 below show students’ ignorance of this context of use.

**Situation 7**
A: Wow. It’s very cold in here.
B: Yes, it is. It is going to get even colder in December.
A: Really? Lucky I am. I………………………..(visit) some friends in Dubai next December.
B: Good for you. The weather is cool there.

**Table 7. Students’ answers for situation 7**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenses /aspects</th>
<th>Freq.</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present progressive</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple past</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past perfect progressive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Simple future</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future perfect</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wrong form</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>11.25%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As it was expected, the answers for situation 7 above are marked by the use of the simple future (70 % of total answers) instead of the present progressive. Very few students could apply the present progressive in the future context as indicated by the low percentage of answers (3.75%). This is a strong evidence that such use is really beyond students’ recognition. It is also an indication of their failure to grasp the real meaning of the progressive aspect. Students are failed to internalise that the plan is in the present and it is ongoing/ still valid till the moment of fulfilment in the future. Generally speaking, students’ language is characterised by simplicity. The subjects tend to associate the simple future with any situation that involves future.

Conclusion

We have tried, throughout the present paper, to show that the progressive aspect of the present tense is difficult to learn by foreign learners of English such as Moroccan university students. This conclusion has been drawn on the basis of our test’s results. This test has revealed that there is a problem at the learning level. We can clearly deduce from the results that the subjects do not adopt appropriate learning strategies that can help them grasp the real meaning of the progressive. Additionally, the results also suggest that the problem exists even at the teaching level. The conventional traditional grammar course which is based on deduction and decontextualisation has a lot of limitations. It does not really help students learn the tense-aspect system of English effectively. Most importantly, it does not respond to their needs.

Based on class observation, we have always noticed that some teachers give less importance to the semantic component of grammatical structures. They focus on the teaching of form more than meaning. Due to one reason or another, some teachers do not even provide their students with the necessary information. For instance, some teachers do not focus in their teaching on the varied contexts of use of the present progressive. Some teachers lead their students to associate the present progressive with only one context of use as it is the case with situations happening around NOW or at the moment of speaking. We believe, in fact, that students’ failure to master this aspect originates mainly from this problem. Students become victims of this single context of use effect. Students are usually inexperienced, especially at the early stages of learning, to be aware that an aspect such as the present progressive is characterised by plurality of meaning and complexity of use.

On the light of all things discussed in this paper, it is obvious that there is an urgent need for a new method/new innovative grammar course that is capable of helping learners improve their use of tense and aspect in particular. There is also a need for a new authentic comprehensive material that provides learners with the necessary knowledge and skills to function better at the discourse level.

About the Author:
Younes ZHIRI is a teacher of English with experience at high school and at university. He got his doctoral degree in Applied Linguistics in 2017 from Ibn Tofail University, Kenitra-Morocco. His main areas of interest are: TEFL, Applied Linguistics, Theoretical Linguistics, Sociolinguistics, Translation, and ESP.
References
The Word List Distribution in Social Science Research Articles

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Abstract
This study investigates the distribution and coverage of words in New General Service List (NGSL) and the Academic Word List (AWL) in social science research articles. Sixty-four open-access English social science research articles published in 2013-2015 in the ScienceDirect General category were selected and compiled to the Social Science Corpus (SSC). The AntWordProfiler 1.4.0 was utilized to calculate the frequency and coverage percentage of words from the two word lists. Word families in level 1 and level 2 of the NGSL were utilized over 70 percent, whilst level 3 word families were used around 60 percent of the entire SSC. Similarly, 99.65 percent of the AWL word families were discovered. Regarding coverage, the NGSL word families accounted for over 70 percent and the AWL word families covered around 14 percent revealing significant coverage of both word lists. The top 10 NGSL word families represented journals subject areas from which they were derived, whilst the top 10 AWL word families were used more repeatedly and linked with social science research areas. The finding of high distributions and coverage corroborated that the NGSL and the AWL significantly contribute to vocabulary pedagogy in preparing students for reading and writing social science research articles. Additionally, some pedagogical implication guidelines of the NGSL and the AWL such as flash cards, quizzes, and written tests were also introduced.

Keywords: academic word list, new general service list, word list coverage, word list implication

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Introduction

Vocabulary is recognized as one of predicaments for native-speaker and nonnative-speaker learners in academic reading and writing (Shaw, 1991). In Thailand, students have been taught English from kindergarten to university, or for more than twelve years. Nonetheless, insufficient vocabulary knowledge is one of the major difficulties that Thai students face when reading (Aegpongpaow, 2008). The association of vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension has been exposed in several studies. If students have insufficient vocabulary knowledge or have comprehension of what is being read, they cannot easily learn from context (Nation & Waring, 1997). Students who have high prior vocabulary knowledge level are likely to read quicker than those who have lower or limited knowledge (Calvo, Estevez, & Dowens, 2003). In other words, the better the students' vocabulary knowledge is, the better they achieve reading comprehension (Constantinescu, 2007). English listening tests and other English standardized tests (Nation & Meara, 2002. Consequently, vocabulary knowledge can help reading comprehension, which in turn contributes to the increase of vocabulary size (Chall, 1987).

Numerous studies about the vocabulary size of native English speakers and second language (L2) learners have been conducted. Native English speakers know approximately 20,000 word families; they increase their vocabulary size by 1,000 word families on average each year (Nation & Waring, 1997). A university student knows around 20,000 word families (Goulden, Nation, & Read, 1990; Hirsh & Nation, 1992) excluding proper names, compound words, abbreviations, and foreign words. Likewise, second language (L2) learners needed a substantial vocabulary size to accomplish reading comprehension (Groot, 2000). Second language (L2) learners require knowing at least 3,000 high frequency English words, and their understanding would increase to at least 95 percent coverage of a text (Na & Nation, as cited in Nation & Waring, 1997). This finding was consistent with Hirsh and Nation (1992) that knowledge of around 3,000 - 5,000 word families is required for basic comprehension of a text. However, the disparities of word size of L2 had been reported. Nation (2006) discovered that the required vocabulary size for L2 in reading for pleasure of short or unsimplified novels was 98 percent accounting for 8,000 - 9,000 word families (Nation, 2006). Similarly, the study conducted by Hazenberg and Hulstijn (1996) also revealed that 10,000 base words were the minimal vocabulary size required for university students to comprehend academic text.

One problem in teaching new vocabulary is that teachers cannot decide which vocabulary should be introduced to students because teachers do not know which words frequently appear and are truly representative. Nowadays, powerful personal computers, faster internet speed connections, larger media storage, inexpensive scanners, and intelligent concordance programs greatly contribute to personal corpus and word list creation. Instructors, for example, can easily assemble their own mini or specialized corpora from websites, scan textbooks to digital text files, or access remote electronic databases together with concordance software allowing instructors to compile their own word lists based on corpus in a specified genre.

Word lists provide a multitude of advantages in setting up vocabulary learning targets, vocabulary knowledge evaluation, analyzing text difficulty, creating and modifying reading materials, designing vocabulary teaching and learning tools, as well as forming vocabulary courses (Gardner & Davies, 2013). Regarding vocabulary pedagogy, word lists play an essential role in
lexical studies that aim to provide information on the frequency with which words occur in particular genres. Word lists can facilitate teachers or course designers to determine whether these words are meaningful for their students or if they should be overlooked. Likewise, course designers should have word lists to refer to when selecting vocabulary for a language course matching with student’s level.

Research Questions

This study investigates the distribution and the coverage of high frequency general English vocabulary from the New General Service List (NGSL) and academic vocabulary from the Academic Word List (AWL) in the social science research articles collected from ScienceDirect website. The result from this study can identify whether words from the NGSL and the AWL are appropriate for vocabulary pedagogy or not. The research question is addressed below:

To what extent do words in the NGSL and the AWL appear on social science research papers?

Literature Review

Word Frequency Lists

A word frequency list, or a word list, is a list usually sorted either in frequency order or in alphabetical order of all words in a particular corpus together with the frequency of word occurrence in the corpus (Hunston, 2006). Word frequency lists can be generated from a corpus by using concordance software that thoroughly searches every word in that corpus to find out how many tokens and how many different word types there are. The software then generates a frequency list, which can be displayed in rank order of frequency or in alphabetical order (Evison, 2010). Word lists play a crucial role in lexical studies aiming to provide information on the frequency with which words occur in particular areas. The generated word frequency lists can facilitate teachers or course designers to determine whether these words are meaningful for their students or if they should be overlooked.

Previous Studies on Word List Distribution

The General Service List (GSL) (West, 1953) and the Academic Word List (AWL) (Coxhead, 2000) have been primarily employed in the field of corpus linguistics to investigate the distribution of words in diverse registers. The GSL has contributed to the examination of 2,000 high frequency general English words in specialized corpora. Likewise, the AWL is utilized to identify how often academic vocabulary occurred in academic journals, textbooks, course materials, as well as news. The investigations of lexical distribution have been performed in numerous aspects. Research articles in diverse registers have been studied, for instance, in Medical Science (Chen & Ge, 2007), Agriculture (Martínez, Beck, & Panza, 2009; Muñoz, 2015), Linguistics (Vongpumivitch, Huang, & Chang, 2009), Education (Mozaffari & Moini, 2014), English for Specific Purposes (Shabani & Tazik, 2014), Nursing (Yang, 2015), or Environmental Science (Liu & Han, 2015). Regarding textbooks and course materials, a number of researchers have carried out ranging from primary English course books (Mármol, 2009) to particular course materials used in undergraduate and graduate classes in a variety of subjects: engineering (Chanchanglek, 2010; Kakaew, 2013; Ward, 2009); maritime navigation (Sun, 2010), culinary courses (Nordin, Stapa, & Darus, 2013), psychology (Kaewphanngam, 2002), or business
computing (Pattaradej, 2009). Moreover, vocabulary occurrence in different genres of online news has been also studied, for example political news (Nakprakhon, 2005), economic news (Manitayakul, 2007), and business news (Liangpanit, 2010).

Concerning coverage, Coxhead and Byrd (2007) indicate that words in the AWL account for approximately 10 percent of academic texts. Many study results corroborated the Coxhead and Byrd’s assertion. Just to name a few, vocabulary in the AWL accounted for 10.07 percent of medical research articles (Chen & Ge, 2007) and 9.06 percent of agricultural research articles (Martínez, Beck, & Panza, 2009). Likewise, the coverage of AWL was 10.46 percent of the vocabulary in financial corpora (Li & Qian, 2010), whereas vocabulary featured in the AWL covered 12.36 percent of the words in the Asian EFL journal and 17.43 percent of those utilized in the Asian ESP journal (Shabani & Tazik, 2014). In contrast, a few research findings contradicted Coxhead and Byrd’s. Mozaffari and Moini (2014), for instance, found that words in the AWL only accounted for 4.94 percent of the vocabulary from education research articles. Similarly, Nakprakhon (2005) and Manitayakul (2007) discovered relatively low coverage of AWL at 5.7 percent in political news corpus and only 3.47 percent in an economic news corpus compiled from the online news agency respectively.

Most researchers examined the frequency and distribution of specialized corpora based on either Coxhead’s Academic Word List (AWL) or West’s General Service List (GSL). However, the West’s GSL was disparaged for being based on out-of-date corpus, for creating a small running word corpus (approximately 2.5 million words) compared to modern standards, and for not clearly defining “word” (Browne, 2014). The New General Service List (NGSL) was created by updating West’s General Service List (GSL) based on a 273 million-word corpus, which is about ten times larger than the corpus used in GSL compilation. Nowadays, a tiny number of works apply the NGSL to investigate the frequency and distribution of words in a specialized corpus. To fill this gap, the New General Service List (NGSL) and Coxhead’s Academic Word List (AWL) were employed together to investigate the occurrence of frequency and distribution of words in social science research articles gathering from ScienceDirect website.

Methodology
Reference Word Lists

*The New General Service List (NGSL)*

The NGSL contains 2,801 headwords and 8,456 word family members divided into three different levels of occurrence. Level 1 represents the 1,000 word families that are used most frequently in general English. The second and third levels denote the next most frequent 1,000 and 801 word families, which are found in general English, respectively. The lemmatization of NGSL headwords and word family members were rearranged in a format, as suggested by Paul Nation's Range program, and Laurence Anthony’s AntWordProfiler help file so that AntWordProfiler, can identify headwords and their family members characterized by the Bauer and Nation's Level 6 scale (Bauer & Nation, 1993).

*The Academic Word List (AWL)*

The AWL was developed by Averil Coxhead, by analyzing the distribution of words not contained in the 2,000 high frequency words from West’s GSL, covering 28 subject areas under
four major disciplines – art, science, commerce and law (Coxhead, 2000). The AWL consists of 570 headwords and 3,106 word family members which comprised of word stems and family members characterized by the Bauer and Nation's Level 6 scale (Bauer & Nation, 1993). The AWL file was formatted as suggested by Paul Nation's Range program.

Concordancers

The AntWordProfiler was utilized to compare a text corpus against target reference lists of vocabulary based on the research of Paul Nation (Nation & Heatley, 2007) to investigate what words in the text corpus are, or are not presented in word lists, as well as to calculate percentages, frequencies, ranges, and coverage of reference word lists against corpora.

The Social Science Corpus (SSC) Compilation

Journal and paper selection

English social science research articles in the general category on the ScienceDirect website (http://www.sciencedirect.com) were collected by using the filter function to search only articles published in open-access journals. The SSC consists of 11 journals published during 2013-2015 to shun selecting outdated words. Each journal was labeled with a unique ID no. from S_1 to S_11. These articles were statistically selected by a simple random sampling method. The foreword, editorial, and book reviews were excluded from the study.

Data Standardization

As suggested by Chen and Ge (2007), research article files were standardized by deleting all graphs, charts, diagrams, equations, bibliographies, text headers and footnotes, author’s name and affiliates, or other parts of the articles that concordancer cannot processed. Standardized PDF article files were then converted to UTF-8 plain text format to avoid problems from non-English language word conversion. Next, typographical errors from file conversion were examined. All hyphenated words at the end of columns were joined as one word. After the text files were error-checked, the running words were counted, prior to merging them together, to create a sub-corpus of each journal. All 11 journals contained balanced running words to avoid word bias from subject areas. On average, the number of articles drawn from each journal was between four and eleven, containing approximately 36,000 to 39,000 running words. The profile of each journal applied in the SSC compilation is presented in Appendix A.

Data Processing

All sub-corpora were loaded into AntWordProfiler 1.4.0 (Anthony, 2014) to generate the vocabulary coverage, range, and the frequency of words in the NGSL, the AWL, and words that are not present in the two word lists called NL.

Results and Discussion

The Distribution of words in the New General Service List (NGSL) and in the Academic Word List (AWL) in Social Science Research Articles
Table 1. *The Distribution and coverage of the NGSL and the AWL coverage in Social Science Corpus (SSC)*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Reference Word List</th>
<th>Number of Word Family Occurred</th>
<th>Word Family (%)</th>
<th>Type (%)</th>
<th>Running Words</th>
<th>Running Words (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>NGSL Level 1 (1000 Word Families)</td>
<td>888</td>
<td>88.80%</td>
<td>2,249</td>
<td>273,236</td>
<td>65.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 2 (1000 Word Families)</td>
<td>716</td>
<td>71.60%</td>
<td>1,372</td>
<td>21,453</td>
<td>5.18%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Level 3 (801 Word Families)</td>
<td>510</td>
<td>63.67%</td>
<td>853</td>
<td>8,736</td>
<td>2.11%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AWL 570 Word Families</td>
<td>568</td>
<td>99.65%</td>
<td>2,216</td>
<td>57,445</td>
<td>13.86%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not in Both Word Lists (NL)</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>N/A</td>
<td>11,244</td>
<td>53,675</td>
<td>12.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>2,682</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>17,934</td>
<td>414,545</td>
<td>100.00%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 1 represents distributions and the coverage of the NGSL and the AWL word families in the Social Science Corpus (SSC). To begin with word distributions, word families in the NGSL and the AWL covered 2,682 words altogether in the SSC. Among the first 1,000 words in the NGSL level 1, the total of 888 word families (88.80 percent) were discovered, whereas the figures for the next 1,000 word families in level 2 and the next 801 word families in the following level were 716 (71.60 percent) and 510 (63.67 percent) word families, respectively. Of the 570 word families of the AWL, 568 word families (99.65 percent) were found in the SSC. Out of the 568 word families, only levy and rigid were excluded from the SSC because these two word families may be rarely employed in the social science field, but may be used commonly in finance or tax field instead.

In regard to coverage, word families in the NGSL totally accounted for 73.20 percent in The SSC. The first 1,000 words in level 1 covered 65.91 percent of NGSL, demonstrating that the words in level 1 have a vital role in social science academic articles. Following this, words in levels 2 and 3 accounted for 5.18 percent and 2.11 percent, respectively. Pertaining to academic word lists, 57,445 word families (13.86 percent) were words from the AWL. This coverage corresponded to the Coxherd (2000), Coxhead and Byrd (2007) and several researchers: Chen and Ge (2007), Martínez et al. (2009), Li and Qian (2010), as well as Shabani and Tazik (2014) that the coverage of the AWL was around 10 percent of academic texts. The third category was words which were not in either the NGSL or AWL, known as NL words, covering 53,675 running words (12.94 percent). This is relatively analogous to the coverage percentage attained by the AWL. Regarding word type, NL words were the largest group covering 11,244 types and accounting for 62.7 percent of the SSC. The finding, however, demonstrated that the NGSL covered 73.20 percent of the SSC which went against Browne’s assertion that the coverage of the NGSL was at 85.35
percent in English language weekly economics newspaper (Browne, 2014) representing journals in social science.

To elucidate the coverage of the NGSL, the AWL and NL words in each social science journal, the coverage percentage is exhibited in Table 2. As can be seen, each journal contained a relatively similar percentage of the NGSL, the AWL and NL coverage. High frequency words in NGSL covered approximately 68.90 to 74.58 percent of those in all 11 journals. The Studies in Communication Sciences journal (S_6) exhibited the highest coverage of high frequency words at 75.06 percent. This was followed by coverage of the Sport Management Review (S_5) at 74.58 percent, the Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences (S_3), and the Journal of Social Studies Research (S_7), which shared the same percentage of coverage (73.99 percent). In contrast, the lowest coverage of high frequency words in NGSL was found in the Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions journal, (S_2) (68.90 percent). Concerning academic words, although the coverage of words in AWL in all journals was comparatively low, at 11.03 to 20.33 percent. As mentioned earlier, this coverage corroborated the findings of Coxhead (2000) and many researchers (Chen & Ge, 2007; Martínez et al., 2009; Li & Qian, 2010; Shabani & Tazik, 2014) that words in the AWL accounted for around 10 percent of academic texts. The Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions journal (S_2) demonstrated the greatest extent of coverage of words in AWL, accounting for 20.33 percent. The Energy Research & Social Science journal (S_1), and the Travel Behaviour and Society journal (S_9) were found to be next in line in this respect, accounting for 16.95 and 15.60 percent, respectively.

Table 2. Coverage of the NGSL and the AWL across 11 journals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Journal Titles</th>
<th>Token</th>
<th>NGSL</th>
<th>AWL</th>
<th>NL</th>
<th>NGSL and AWL Coverage (%)</th>
<th>Total Coverage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S_1</td>
<td>Energy Research &amp; Social Science</td>
<td>38,131</td>
<td>71.96</td>
<td>16.95</td>
<td>11.09</td>
<td>88.91</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_2</td>
<td>Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions</td>
<td>38,261</td>
<td>68.90</td>
<td>20.33</td>
<td>10.77</td>
<td>89.23</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_3</td>
<td>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</td>
<td>37,878</td>
<td>73.99</td>
<td>13.00</td>
<td>13.01</td>
<td>86.99</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_4</td>
<td>Public Relations Review</td>
<td>37,732</td>
<td>72.67</td>
<td>12.42</td>
<td>14.91</td>
<td>85.09</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_5</td>
<td>Sport Management Review</td>
<td>38,799</td>
<td>74.58</td>
<td>13.49</td>
<td>11.93</td>
<td>88.07</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_6</td>
<td>Studies in Communication Sciences</td>
<td>35,985</td>
<td>75.06</td>
<td>11.07</td>
<td>13.87</td>
<td>86.13</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_7</td>
<td>The Journal of Social Studies Research</td>
<td>38,074</td>
<td>73.99</td>
<td>11.03</td>
<td>14.98</td>
<td>85.02</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_8</td>
<td>The Social Science Journal</td>
<td>38,253</td>
<td>73.95</td>
<td>12.31</td>
<td>13.74</td>
<td>86.26</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_9</td>
<td>Travel Behaviour and Society</td>
<td>38,869</td>
<td>73.48</td>
<td>15.60</td>
<td>10.92</td>
<td>89.08</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_10</td>
<td>Wine Economics and Policy</td>
<td>36,481</td>
<td>73.70</td>
<td>12.12</td>
<td>14.18</td>
<td>85.82</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_11</td>
<td>Urban Climate</td>
<td>36,082</td>
<td>72.95</td>
<td>13.82</td>
<td>13.23</td>
<td>86.77</td>
<td>100.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
High Frequency Words in Social Science Research Articles

As presented in Table 3, all top 10 NGSL word families accounted totally for 3.14 percent whilst the coverage of all top 10 AWL word families had three times outnumbered than that of NGSL and covered about one-tenth of the whole corpus. This finding revealed that general English words were used more diverse than academic vocabulary employed in social science academic writing. Clearly, most academic words, for example Research, Policy, Analyse, Participate, Community, Respond, or Economy was used more repeatedly and connected with social science genre. Furthermore, the disparity of coverage may stem from higher family members of the AWL.

Table 3. Top 10 NGSL word families in the SSC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>NGSL Word Families</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Coverage %</th>
<th>Cumulative Coverage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Study</td>
<td>1510</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.50%</td>
<td>0.50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Use</td>
<td>1283</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.42%</td>
<td>0.92%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>973</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.32%</td>
<td>1.24%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>971</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.32%</td>
<td>1.56%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Also</td>
<td>934</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.31%</td>
<td>1.87%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>863</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.28%</td>
<td>2.15%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Change</td>
<td>844</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.28%</td>
<td>2.43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Model</td>
<td>733</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.24%</td>
<td>2.67%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>712</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.23%</td>
<td>2.91%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Make</td>
<td>691</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>0.23%</td>
<td>3.14%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In contrast, the NGSL word family members only contained words in all inflected forms, and verb in present tense and past tense forms. AWL’s word family members, on the other hand, counted words in all inflected forms, some derivational suffixes, and included words with some prefixes as members under the same headwords. For example the headword Study in NGSL had only three members containing only inflectional suffixes i.e. Studies, Studied, and Studying, whilst the headword Research in AWL consisted of five members including both inflectional and derivational suffixes: Researched, Researcher, Researchers, Researches, and Researching as presented in Table 4.

Table 4. Top 10 AWL word families in the SSC

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>AWL Word Families</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Range</th>
<th>Coverage %</th>
<th>Cumulative Coverage %</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>890</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.55%</td>
<td>1.55%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>805</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.40%</td>
<td>2.95%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>777</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.35%</td>
<td>4.30%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>707</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.23%</td>
<td>5.53%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>680</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.18%</td>
<td>6.72%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Respond</td>
<td>638</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.11%</td>
<td>7.83%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>637</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.11%</td>
<td>8.94%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Project</td>
<td>633</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>1.10%</td>
<td>10.04%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Regarding word dispersion in each journal, most of top 10 NGSL word families can indicate journals subject area from which they were derived. As presented in Table 5, some NGSL top 10 word families in S_5: Sport, League, Club, and Sponsor can indicate that these words may come from sport science journals, or some S_11 top 10 word families: Climate, Change, Air, Quality, and Water can demonstrate that these journals would relate to climate changes or environment. Similarly, some top 10 word families of S_7 such as Teacher, Study, Teach, Education, Student and Social can show that these words would derive from teaching and education. Likewise, some of those in S_9: Travel, Trip, and Behavior can point out that these journals were relevant to travel behavior. To sum up the dispersion, the majority of the top 10 word families (58) found only in one journal. However, some top 10 word families can be found more than one journal. The word study was highest found in six journals out of eleven whilst the words social and use were discovered in four journals, as well as the words change, development, group, market, and support were distributed in three journals (See Appendix Table B1 for more information).

Table 5. Top 10 NGSL word family dispersion in each journal

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>S_1</th>
<th>S_2</th>
<th>S_3</th>
<th>S_4</th>
<th>S_5</th>
<th>S_6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>System</td>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Sport</td>
<td>Study</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Carbon</td>
<td>Local</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Relation</td>
<td>League</td>
<td>Use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Market</td>
<td>Change</td>
<td>Group</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>Relationship</td>
<td>Voice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Use</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Use</td>
<td>Developmen</td>
<td>Brand</td>
<td>Information</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Group</td>
<td>Service</td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>Club</td>
<td>Title</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Carbon</td>
<td>Station</td>
<td>Historical</td>
<td>Drive</td>
<td>Standard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Support</td>
<td>Actor</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Practice</td>
<td>Developmen</td>
<td>Expectation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Also</td>
<td>Level</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Sponsor</td>
<td>Friendship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Country</td>
<td>Need</td>
<td>Also</td>
<td>Also</td>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Friend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Developmen</td>
<td>Case</td>
<td>People</td>
<td>State</td>
<td>Market</td>
<td>User</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>S_7</th>
<th>S_8</th>
<th>S_9</th>
<th>S_10</th>
<th>S_11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Teacher</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Travel</td>
<td>Wine</td>
<td>Climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Study</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Quality</td>
<td>Change</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Teach</td>
<td>Case</td>
<td>Trip</td>
<td>Reputation</td>
<td>Barrier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Education</td>
<td>Child</td>
<td>Choice</td>
<td>Product</td>
<td>Air</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Student</td>
<td>Marriage</td>
<td>Model</td>
<td>Market</td>
<td>Plan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>History</td>
<td>Family</td>
<td>Decision</td>
<td>High</td>
<td>Health</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Social</td>
<td>Effect</td>
<td>Probability</td>
<td>Cluster</td>
<td>House</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Race</td>
<td>Time</td>
<td>Use</td>
<td>Value</td>
<td>Quality</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Unlike the NGSL, the top 10 AWL word families were difficult to identify the subject area from which they were obtained. As presented in Table 6, some word families like *Consume*, *Strategy*, *Professional*, *Respond*, or *Research* cannot easily identify that the S_5 journal related to sport science comparing to those from NGSL. Regarding word dispersion, top 10 AWL word families exhibited more dispersion than those of NGS. In a nutshell, the majority of the top 10 AWL word families (39) were found only in one journal, whilst 15 word families occurred in two journals, and 9 out of 77 word families distributed more than three journals. The word *analyses* and *research*, for instance, were dispersed in seven journals out of eleven. Similarly, the word *participate* can be found in six journals and the words *individual*, *process*, and *respond* presented in four journals. This result revealed more dispersion of academic words across social science academic articles than those used in general English (See Appendix Table B2 for more information).

**Table 6. Top 10 AWL word family dispersion in each journal**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>S_1</th>
<th>S_2</th>
<th>S_3</th>
<th>S_4</th>
<th>S_5</th>
<th>S_6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>Community</td>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>Corporate</td>
<td>Consume</td>
<td>Communicate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Project</td>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>Access</td>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>Strategy</td>
<td>Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>Energy</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Ideology</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>Respond</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Finance</td>
<td>Project</td>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>Evaluate</td>
<td>Respond</td>
<td>Evaluate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Design</td>
<td>Transit</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Role</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Participate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Innovate</td>
<td>Survive</td>
<td>Focus</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Task</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>Sustain</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Invest</td>
<td>Process</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>Text</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>Sector</td>
<td>Area</td>
<td>Culture</td>
<td>Involve</td>
<td>Flexible</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Technology</td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>Outcome</td>
<td>Individual</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>S_7</th>
<th>S_8</th>
<th>S_9</th>
<th>S_10</th>
<th>S_11</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Economy</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Substitute</td>
<td>Consume</td>
<td>Adapt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>Resource</td>
<td>Transport</td>
<td>Vary</td>
<td>Energy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Significant</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
<td>Theory</td>
<td>Region</td>
<td>Impact</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Immigrate</td>
<td>Sex</td>
<td>Individual</td>
<td>Purchase</td>
<td>Estimate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Concept</td>
<td>Participate</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Participate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Identify</td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>Survey</td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>Identify</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Data</td>
<td>Vary</td>
<td>Globe</td>
<td>Issue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Analyse</td>
<td>Vary</td>
<td>Alternative</td>
<td>Code</td>
<td>Process</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Data</td>
<td>Tradition</td>
<td>Respond</td>
<td>Create</td>
<td>Region</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Pedagogical Implications of the NGSL and AWL

Owing to significant coverage of the NGSL and the AWL in social science research papers, accounting totally for 87.06 percent, both word lists should be introduced in vocabulary teaching. Initially, teachers can skip function words since these words have little meaning by themselves; they assign grammatical relationships or define function (Meyer, 2009). Instead, teachers should pay attention to content words since they convey meanings of thing, action, state, quality, or event (Nunan, 2013). To familiarize students with high frequency content words in social science articles, learning from word cards or flashcards are useful for both essential high frequency words which need to be introduced in a class room, and low frequency words which can be assigned to students to practice alone (Nation & Meara, 2002). Flashcard method is an effective direct vocabulary learning technique in terms of the return for time and effort. This technique is suitable for learners who do not know many high frequency words or need to increase their vocabulary size since learners can control vocabulary learning repletion and focus on each word that cannot obtained easily from context or dictionary use (Nation, 2001; Nation & Meara, 2002).

Flashcards can be created by writing a word on one side and putting its definition or other lexical information such as pronunciation, part of speech, grammatical patterns, collocations, or contexts in use in the other side. In addition, mnemonic tools e.g. picture or words in learners’ first language (L1) linking its meaning to learning words can effectively increase learners’ memory of new vocabulary. Including words and pictures in the same flashcard would enhance learners’ understanding and faster learning speed (Kellogg & Howe, 1971). Another tip for learning difficult words is to place these words at the beginning and at the end of the flashcards. This method can contribute to learners’ understanding from primacy and recency effects (Baddeley, 1990) that learners are apt to remember the first word since it begins first and likely to remember the last word because it has just already seen.

Assistance form computer technology can facilitate teachers to generate their own flashcards easily without wasting time on pen and paper. For example, Quizlet (https://quizlet.com) is a free online vocabulary flashcard generator assisting teachers to create flashcards by uploading the NGSL or the AWL words of their choice. Apart from flashcard creation, the website can generate online games, exercise, and interactive game called Scatter. Memrise (http://www.memrise.com) is another online flashcard-learning website with different advantage by adding a Mempty -- a picture or words that associate with the learning word on the flashcard that can increase learners’ memory of a target words as proposed by Nation and Meara (2002).

The NGSL and the AWL, furthermore, can also be applied in vocabulary teaching via a test in order to recall words learnt from the flashcard method. The New General Service List Test (NGSLT) (Browne, Culligan, & Phillips, 2014) is a diagnostic test of written receptive knowledge of words in the NGSL. The test contains 100 questions, and each question consists of the target word, presented in bold face, followed by a short sentence containing the target word in a simple non-defining sentence. This sentence assists students to indicate the part of speech of the target word, limit the target word meaning if the target word has more than one possible sense, and
provide a clue for students to predict the meaning of the target word. Sample sentences and the answers are based on the most common meaning or by consultation concordance lines in the Corpus of Contemporary American English. Also, teachers can verify answers from answer keys provided in the website. The example of the NGSL test is presented in Figure 1.

![NGSL Writing Test](http://www.newgeneralservicelist.org/ngsl-levels-test/)

**Figure 1.** The Example of the NGSL Writing Test. Reprinted from *NGSL/NAWL Test*, by Browne, Culligan, and Phillips, 2014, retrieved from http://www.newgeneralservicelist.org/ngsl-levels-test/

Regarding academic word test, various websites offered free exercises based on 570 word families of the AWL. To name a few, Vocabulary Exercises for the Academic Word List (http://www.englishvocabularyexercises.com/AWL/id21.htm) provides a number of fill-in-the-blank exercises categorized by the sub-list 1 to sub-list 10 of AWL academic words. AWL Academic Word List Test (http://www.ecenglish.com/learnenglish/lessons/awl-academic-word-list-test) allows learners to pick the closest meaning of AWL words via multiple choice questions or cloze tests. Additionally, vocabulary in EAP website (http://www.uefap.com/vocab/exercise/exercise.htm) gives learners to practice reading skill via diverse genres of passages with the AWL word highlighted, so that learners can pay attention to academic words.

**Limitations of This Study**

The limitation of this study came from the limitations of the AntWordProfiler. The program counted words frequency by grouping words with identical forms that the program can recognize rather than grouping them by their classes or meaning. Furthermore, the SSC was created from academic articles in social science (General) on the ScienceDirect. However, social science in ScienceDirect is composed of 13 specific subject areas: Archaeology, Development, Education, Geography, Planning and Development, Health, Human Factors and Ergonomics, Law, Library
The Word List Distribution in Social Science Research

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and Information Sciences, Linguistics and Language, Safety Research, Social Sciences (General), Sociology and Political Science, and Transportation. Additionally, the SSC size was around 400,000 running words, and was therefore comparatively smaller than other corpora of Coxhead’s AWL, West’s GSL, Mozaffari’s Academic Words in Education Research Articles, or Yang’s Nurse Academic Word List (NAWL).

Conclusion

Both high frequency English words in the NGSL and academic words in the AWL play a vital role in social science research articles from their high distribution and coverage of words across 11 journals. To begin with word family distribution, 2,114 word families of all three levels of the NGSL and 568 word families in the AWL were discovered in the SSC. Word families in level 1 and level 2 of the NGSL were employed at 88.8 percent and 71.60 percent, respectively, whilst word families in level 3 appeared at a lower rate of 63.67 percent. Regarding notable word coverage, the NGSL accounted for 73.20 percent of the SSC. Similarly, 99.65 percent of AWL academic word families accounted for 13.86 percent which was consistent with the conclusions of Coxhead and several studies. Nearly as many NL words were discovered in the SSC as academic words in the AWL at around 13 percent. The features the top 10 word families from the two word lists were investigated; general English words were used more diversely while most academic words were used more repeatedly and connected with social science genre. Additionally, most top 10 general English words of the NGSL can indicate journals subject areas from which they were derived, while the top 10 academic words of the AWL were hard to point out subject areas. In terms of vocabulary pedagogy, teachers or course designers of social science class can make use of words from the NGSL and the AWL to familiarize learners with words in social science texts. Teachers may introduce word families in the NGSL level 1 because the NGSL level 1 consists of the most frequent words among level 2 and 3. After they are familiar with the word families in level 1, teachers may move to word families from the NGSL level 2, 3, respectively. After students have learnt the word families from the NGSL, teachers then teach word families from the AWL since the coverage of AWL was far lower than the NGSL.

About the Authors:

Sorawut Chanasattru obtained his bachelor’s degree in business administration from Kasetsart University and graduated with a master’s degree in English for Careers from the Language Institute, Thammasat University.

Supong Tangkiengsirisin is an Associate Professor in Applied Linguistics at the Language Institute of Thammasat University. His research interests focus on second language writing, written discourse analysis, and corpus-based analysis.

References


Appendix A

Table A1
Summary of journal applied in the Social Science Corpus (SSC)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ID</th>
<th>Journal Title</th>
<th>Subject Areas</th>
<th>Article Used</th>
<th>Types</th>
<th>Tokens</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S_1</td>
<td>Energy Research &amp; Social Science</td>
<td>Energy Technologies, Fuels, Resources, and Energy Production Affecting People</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4,501</td>
<td>38,131</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_2</td>
<td>Environmental Innovation and Societal Transitions</td>
<td>Innovations and Socio-Economic Transitions, Environmental Problems, and Environmental Sustainable Economy</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4,194</td>
<td>38,261</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_3</td>
<td>Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences</td>
<td>Social Behavioral Sciences concerning Arts and Humanities</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>4,904</td>
<td>37,878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_4</td>
<td>Public Relations Review</td>
<td>Public Relations, Mass Communications, Organizational Communications, Marketing Management and Public Policy Formation</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5,038</td>
<td>37,732</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_5</td>
<td>Sport Management Review</td>
<td>Sport Management and Marketing</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4,504</td>
<td>38,799</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_6</td>
<td>Studies in Communication Sciences</td>
<td>Public Communication</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4,489</td>
<td>35,985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_7</td>
<td>The Journal of Social Studies Research</td>
<td>Social Science Studies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4,384</td>
<td>38,074</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_8</td>
<td>The Social Science Journal</td>
<td>Social Sciences, Humanities, and Natural Sciences</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4,709</td>
<td>38,253</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_9</td>
<td>Travel Behaviour and Society</td>
<td>Travel Behavior, Transportation and Environmental, Transportation Geographic Information Systems</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,067</td>
<td>38,869</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_10</td>
<td>Wine Economics and Policy</td>
<td>Wine Business and Economics Management</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,880</td>
<td>36,481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>S_11</td>
<td>Urban Climate</td>
<td>Urban Climatic Conditions and Change concerning Geography Demographic, and Socioeconomic</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4,316</td>
<td>36,082</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total</th>
<th>64</th>
<th>49,986</th>
<th>414,545</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Average</td>
<td>37,685.91</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SD</td>
<td>1,029.38</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Appendix B

Table B1
Summary of Top 10 NGSL word family dispersion across all journals
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Dispersion Across Journals</th>
<th>NGSL Word Families (The Total Number of Words)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Study (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Social, Use (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Also, Change, Development, Group, Market, Support (6)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Business, Carbon, Case, Education, Historical, History, Quality, Student, System, Time (10)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**TABLE B2**
Summary of Top 10 AWL word family dispersion across all journals

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word Dispersion Across Journals</th>
<th>AWL Word Families (The Total Number of Words)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Analyse, Research (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Participate (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Individual, Process, Respond (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Economy, Energy, Vary (3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Area, Communicate, Consume, Culture, Data, Estimate, Identify, Policy, Professional, Project, Region, Sector, Significant, Survey, Theory (15)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Using Infographics in the Teaching of Linguistics

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Abstract
Information graphics (infographics) are visualizations of ideas & information in a type of picture. Infographics combine data with design in order to communicate information to an audience in a comprehensible manner. This study is motivated by the lack of resources that directly study the influence of infographics on linguistics. It aims to investigate the impact of using information graphics in the teaching of linguistics on Saudi students. The researchers seek to answer the following questions: (i) What is the Saudi female EFL students' perception of using infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics? (ii) What are the advantages & disadvantages of using infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics? To this end, 186 Saudi female college students from the Department of Translation at the College of Languages in Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University (PNU) took part in this study. They designed infographics as a project in two linguistic courses: Introduction to Linguistics and Introduction to Semantics. They were provided a 26-item questionnaire. The questionnaire was analyzed by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). The participants’ responses were analyzed according to quantitative data analysis procedures. The findings show the students’ positive attitude towards using infographics even though the majority were not familiar with them. While creating infographics, the participants found practicing various skills such as higher thinking skills beneficial. However, issues such as technical problems were perceived as a hindrance. A number of implications and suggestions are presented based on the results of this research.

Keywords: computer-assisted language learning (CALL), English as a foreign language (EFL), infographics, linguistics, English teaching

1. Introduction

Whether or not the Internet should be used in teaching and communicating with students is no longer the issue in education. Instead, the emphasis nowadays is on the effective use of technology in order to create new learning opportunities and to promote students’ achievements. Infographics are being used in academia. They provide their users with the necessary tools to improve their skills and knowledge. An infographic is a visualization of ideas and data in a type of picture that combines data with design to communicate information to an audience in a comprehensible manner. Throughout history, pictures, icons and graphs have been used to communicate information. The infographics creation process is known as data visualization, information design, or information architecture. (Smiciklas, 2012). Data visualization utilizes the human visual system’s ability to see patterns and trends thus making data accessible and appealing to a diverse audience. (Heer, Bostock, & Ogievetskey, 2010). The earliest manifestation of data visualization was the making of maps by ancient Egyptians 200 BC to lay earthly and heavenly positions using something similar to latitude and longitude. (Friendly, 2007). In recent years, online communication and social media enhanced the shareability of data allowing infographics to spread outside academic areas and traditional media. (Smiciklas, 2012).

In an attempt to facilitate effective development, this research investigates using infographics as a tool for learning various areas of linguistics. As students are in a constant process of development, this research investigates the effect of using infographics to enhance student learning which will help them facilitate their own academic and professional growth.

The reason we want to study this area is that new technologies that are related to learning are being produced at an alarming rate. They are becoming more personalized (e.g. emails, social networks, discussion forums etc.), and as this is taking place there is an increasing need to ensure that those who are using such new technologies do so using the relevant and effective tools.

Classes that aim to teach linguistics to students normally use a variety of visual aids and assessment methods in order to help students understand the subject and overcome its complexity. Yet, many of them do not implement the use of infographics as a tool for learning linguistics. The goal of our research is to determine the effect of using infographics as a tool for learning linguistic concepts, focusing on the students’ perception as well as the advantages and disadvantages of utilizing such a tool in their learning process. Hopefully, instructors will employ such tools to enhance the students’ knowledge about infographics. Thus, students will be able to achieve higher learning goals.

2. Literature Review

Reviewing the literature on infographics, there are no resources that directly study the influence of infographics on linguistics. However, other literature proves the positive effect of using them in other fields.

Chong (2012) documents the contributions of Nicholas Felton who is described by Suzanne Laberre as an “Infographics Guru”. The paper explores Felton’s work which is a representative of how modern visualization techniques disrupt traditional approaches to teaching visual
communication. It examines Felton’s graphic design work in order to demonstrate how it both challenges and enriches visual design pedagogy.

Davidson (2014) discusses using infographics in the science classroom. She mentions some strategies that she finds useful like showing examples of infographics and discussing them, and also tasking the students to find the best infographic on a particular topic. Davidson includes three investigations in which her environmental chemistry students have created infographics on recycling, water pollution, and air quality. She concludes that many of her students become intrigued with the blending of art with science in their infographics projects.

Kos and Sims (2014) discuss a five-week exploratory project deployed in an 8th grade classroom at Mountain Vista Middle School (MVMS) in the spring of 2014. The students in this project are required to research a STEM career in-depth, then report on their careers using infographics, instead of a standard five-paragraph essay. The study considers the project a success because of the positive effect on the students and concludes that infographics are better suited than traditional essays in areas that involve visual appeal and creativity, limited writing for ESL (English as a Second Language) students, fostering and appealing to student’s interests, and overall student enjoyment.

Otten et al. (2015) tackle infographics and public policy, basically focusing on using data visualization to convey complex information. The various shapes and forms of infographics are mentioned with a description of the most and least effective. The article also discusses creating and designing effective infographics and provides specific examples of Food Systems Infographics.

In “21st Century World Language Classrooms: Technology to Support Cultural Competence”, McKeeman and Oviedo examine the use of technology to support cultural competence. The writers focus on Visme as an important tool in creating infographics using an assignment given to students to gain an understanding of Spanish poetry and an introduction to the arts. Background knowledge about poetry is gained about “Las Jarchas”, poems written in Arabic dating back to the 9th century. The students also view and discuss Francisco Goya’s painting “Fusilamientos del tres de mayo” which depicts a war scenario during the French invasion. They demonstrate their understanding through the creation of an infographic via Visme. Their infographic is to describe the emotions of the people portrayed within the painting and the emotions experienced by someone viewing the painting (the student). McKeeman and Oviedo conclude that the Visme infographic is a good fit, allowing individual, unique responses to war and the emotions that the painting evokes.

Hassan (2016) explores the proper principles and rules for creating excellent infographics that communicate information successfully and effectively. His study also tries to test which format of infographics (Static or Animated) is most effective when used as a teaching-aid framework for complex science subjects. The results of this study suggest that using properly designed infographics will be of great help in teaching complex science subjects that involve spatial and temporal data. The results show that both infographic formats prove to be significantly effective in improving students’ comprehension. In relation to comparing the two formats, the
static format proves to be more effective in communicating the subject and as a teaching-aid framework.

Because infographics have been proved as an effective tool to facilitate learning in the previous studies, this paper investigates the role of infographics in the area of linguistics.

3. Method

3.1. The Study: Participants

The participants of this study were 186 Saudi female college students from Princess Nourah bint Abdulrahman University (PNU). They were fourth level of a bachelor degree in the field of English Language and Translation at the Faculty of Languages. Arabic was their native language. The students in the sample were taking two linguistic courses: Introduction to Linguistics and Introduction to Semantics. Creating an infographic was their course project.

The researchers employed a non-probability sampling procedure. They selected Saudi college students of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) via a convenience sampling technique. Their level of English proficiency was basic (3.8%), intermediate (47.3%) and advanced (45.2%). When participants were asked about the amount of time they spend on a weekly basis to develop their skills, 5.4% of them spend over ten hours every week developing their skills on the Internet, whereas 12.4% spend five to ten hours, 53.8% spend one to four hours and 26.9% spend less than an hour on the Internet to develop their skills. This means that the subjects need to raise their awareness in using the Internet as a tool for self-development. In addition, the participants were also asked about their level of experience in using design software or websites. Almost half of the participants (45.2%) were somewhat experienced in using such software. 10.2% had a high level of experience and only 7% had no experience. 9.1% were somewhat experienced and 26.9% were unsure. Before starting the first phase of the study, the participants were able to choose whether they want to work on the infographics alone, in pairs, or in groups. Over 39% of the participants worked in groups, 34.4% worked in pairs, and only 24.7% preferred to work on their own. This shows that the participants, who are EFL students, prefer collaborative learning when it comes to course projects.

3.2. Data Collection: Questionnaire

3.2.1. Design of the Study

The researchers employed a quantitative method research paradigm to collect and analyze data. This method was used to construct a full and rich representation of students’ experiences and beliefs towards the use of infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics.

The researchers contacted 200 students to take part in the study and only 186 agreed to participate. All participants were given questionnaires and were supervised by the researchers who clarified the goals and objectives of the study.

The study consisted of two phases where a quantitative tool was used to facilitate the development of the instrument. The first and dominant component of the study was a project assigned by the researchers: an infographic. The researchers evaluated the students’ work after class presentations. The second component of the study consisted of a questionnaire filled by the
students at the end of the semester. The focus of the questionnaire was to obtain data from students after designing their infographics. It examined the conceptual changes of the students towards designing infographics to facilitate their learning experience. The quantitative domain helped the researchers achieve a high level of reliability.

3.3. Research Instruments

A combination of a questionnaire and infographics created by students were used as tools to collect data in the current study.

3.3.1. Infographics

Participants were asked to design their own infographics based on materials discussed in class in relation to linguistics and semantics. After they chose their topics, they started designing their infographics following the guidelines of the rubric they were given beforehand. Table 1 illustrates their chosen tools to design the infographics. Piktochart and Easily were among the top choices of the students because they offer free infographic templates that students can employ to build their own content. Some students used a combination of two different tools to create their infographics. This occurred when students were not able to add specific content like Arabic examples or certain pictures using one tool.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tool or program</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unspecified</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easily and Piktochart</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easily and Photoshop</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Easily</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>21.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infochart</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maker</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photoshop and Piktochart</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Photoshop</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Piktochart</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>20.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Smartdraw</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Website</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Word</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>186</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.2. Questionnaire

Participants were given a questionnaire after submitting their infographics. The content of the 26-item questionnaire is divided into three sections. Items 1-4 in the first section contain general information closed-ended questions. The first section also includes a fifth item, which is an open-ended question in the form of a specific question, to indicate the tool or program used by the participants to create the infographic. Items 6-23 in the second section contain questions about the students’ perception of using infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics in the form of closed-ended Likert scales items. Finally, items 24-26 in the third section contain closed-ended multiple-choice questions on the advantages and disadvantages of using such a tool for their learning experience. The students skipped some items on the questionnaire but that did not affect the result.
3.4. Instrument Validity and Reliability

To ensure the reliability of the research instrument, Cronbach Alpha coefficients are used as a statistical measure of the internal consistency of the questionnaire. The Cronbach Alpha for the questionnaire scored a high level of internal consistency (α = .819).

Furthermore, the researchers pilot-tested the questionnaire on ten participants to maximize the validity and reliability of the data. The participants speak English as a foreign language. They requested to remove one repeated item in the second domain of the questionnaire.

3.5. Analysis Framework

Descriptive statistical analysis was used in this study. Descriptive data, collected throughout the study, was analyzed quantitatively by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS). Specifically, both frequencies and descriptives were the procedures employed by the researchers to obtain results. According to Dörnyei (2007), this procedure includes all the scores, including extreme ones.

4. Results

The findings presented in this section, which address the impact of using infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics, resulted from an analysis of participants’ responses to the questionnaire. This data provides quantitative information pertaining to the efficacy of infographics as a tool for learning. To organize the presentation of these findings, the results will be discussed in the same order as the research questions.

4.1. What is the Saudi female EFL students' perception of using infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics?

To help explain the results, the descriptive statistics and mean scores for items 6 – 23 answered by 183 participants are calculated. The mean is (M=3.633), and the standard deviation is (SD: 0.44). The mean corresponds to the “agree” response in the questionnaire because the average falls in the range (4.19 – 3.4), as shown in Table 2. With a standard deviation of 0.44, it means there is no variation among participants’ responses. For further discussion on this question, the researchers have carried out an analysis of the participants’ responses to items 6 – 23 in the questionnaire, as shown in Table 3.

| Table 2. Descriptive statistics for the range of responses in the questionnaire |
|-----------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| Response | Strongly agree | Agree | Undecided | Disagree | Strongly disagree |
| Range    | 5-4.2          | 4.19- 3.4 | 3.39- 2.6 | 2.59-1.8 | .79-1          |

The participants’ prior knowledge about infographics is shown in Table 3. The responses reveal that they are not familiar with infographics. Item 6 on the questionnaire shows that an average of 34.1% disagree with the statement. This is the only statement that received an average range of 2.59 – 1.8 which corresponds with the response ‘disagree’. Item 7 shows that 36.8% of the participants have read and viewed infographics in the past whereas 24.9% haven’t seen infographics before participating in the project. In addition to experience, the participants were asked about their opinion regarding the role of infographic-based projects in introducing them to

the concept of data visualization which can motivate them in using it in the future. As shown in Item 8, 54.1% of the participants agreed they were intrigued to search for more information about infographics. In Item 9, 55.4% wanted to explore and read infographics and 19.4% were highly motivated to do so. Concerning participants’ views regarding the availability and flexibility of infographic generators, Item 10 reveals that 40% of the participants agreed and 25.9% strongly agreed that online websites for creating infographics were user-friendly, 18.4% were undecided on the matter, and 13% believed that such websites were not easy to use. In addition, their views on using photo editing software as a tool for creating infographics were almost similar (Item 11). 36.2% agreed and 24.9% strongly agreed that photo-editing software can be used to generate infographics, 25.4% were undecided and 10.8% disagreed.

The participants’ perception can also be viewed in their intention, or lack of it, in incorporating infographics into their continuing academic work as well as their careers. In Item 12, 22.3% strongly agreed and 37.5% agreed to add the skill of making infographics to their curriculum vitae (CV) but 29.3% were still undecided. The participants’ points of view on using infographics as a tool for learning other courses were indicated in Item 13 where 42.2% agreed to use infographics to visualize data in future courses and 4.9% disagreed. Item 14 revealed that 21.6% intend to make infographics for fun, and 21.1% disagreed. Furthermore, in Item 15, 26.9% of the participants preferred to create infographics on their own rather than in a group. On the other hand, 26.3% preferred collaborative learning and working in groups. After that, participants were asked about their insights on the effect of project-based learning particularly the use of infographics as their course project. In Item 16, 40.9% strongly agreed that infographics helped them outline the main ideas of the studied material, 38.7% agreed as well, and 5.4% disagreed. Item 17 on the questionnaire received the highest average score of 4.16 where 43.8% strongly agreed that infographics helped them classify and sort pieces of information into categories. 40% of the participants agreed with the statement whereas 5.9% of the participants disagreed. Furthermore, Item 18 manifests that 49.2% believed that infographics helped them classify and sort information into categories. In Item 19, over half of the participants, specifically 51.1%, credited infographics for helping them visualize abstract concepts and relations, but 12.9% were undecided. Additionally, in Item 20, 23.4% participants strongly agreed that reading other classmates’ infographics clarified some vague points.

Infographics can contain personalized information, specifically examples from the participants’ native language. In Item 21, adding classical and slang Arabic examples helped 44.1% of the participants in their project, and 36.0% strongly agreed as well. Personalized information can also be demonstrated through the use of cultural references. As presented in Item 22, 36.4% strongly agreed that adding pictures, iconic places, famous people, animals, etc. to their infographics gave them a sense of involvement. 41.8% also concurred. Finally, half of the participants agreed that infographics made seemingly dull and lifeless content become vivid as indicated in Item 23.
Table 3. Descriptive statistics for items 6 - 23 of the questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Undecided</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Deviation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>30.3</td>
<td>34.1</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>14.6</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>2.40</td>
<td>1.330</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>36.8</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.322</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>54.1</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>.898</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>8.6</td>
<td>14.5</td>
<td>55.4</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>3.81</td>
<td>.919</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>40.0</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>3.73</td>
<td>1.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>36.2</td>
<td>24.9</td>
<td>3.68</td>
<td>1.079</td>
</tr>
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<td>12</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>29.3</td>
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<td>3.8</td>
<td>4.9</td>
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<td>42.2</td>
<td>20.5</td>
<td>3.71</td>
<td>.977</td>
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<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>36.2</td>
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<td>10.3</td>
<td>3.00</td>
<td>1.134</td>
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<td>15</td>
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<td>26.3</td>
<td>14.0</td>
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<td>26.9</td>
<td>3.36</td>
<td>1.355</td>
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<td>5.4</td>
<td>11.8</td>
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<td>40.9</td>
<td>4.10</td>
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<td>4.16</td>
<td>.985</td>
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<td>18.4</td>
<td>49.2</td>
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<td>3.72</td>
<td>1.179</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>51.1</td>
<td>28.5</td>
<td>3.93</td>
<td>1.046</td>
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<td>3.8</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>42.4</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>3.70</td>
<td>1.111</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>44.1</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>4.01</td>
<td>1.117</td>
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<td>2.7</td>
<td>7.6</td>
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<td>41.8</td>
<td>36.4</td>
<td>3.99</td>
<td>1.089</td>
</tr>
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<td>23</td>
<td>4.8</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>50.0</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>3.64</td>
<td>1.049</td>
</tr>
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<td>Mean</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>3.633</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Std. Deviation</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>0.44</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2. What are the advantages of using infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics?

To answer this question, the participants were given multiple-choice items and identified the advantages of using infographics as a tool for learning. Generally speaking, and as shown in the literature review, the use of technology inside or outside the classroom tends to make the class more interesting. However, certain design issues affect how interesting a particular tool is and to what extent it creates motivation. The participants’ responses are summarized in Table 4. 59.7% of them suggested that saving and revisiting their data at their convenience is the most important advantage of using infographic-creating software as well as websites. 51.6% of the participants agreed that working on infographics gave them an opportunity to have interactive and dynamic discussions with the members of their group. A further discussion of the advantages is addressed in items 6 – 12 in Table 4, where participants chose the higher thinking skills that were practiced through making infographics. 76.9% agreed that infographics helped them analyze information, and 68.8% of them believed that infographics helped them summarize the material efficiently.
Table 4. Descriptive statistics for item 24-25 of the questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 Working on the infographic gives me the opportunity to have interactive and dynamic discussions with the members of my group.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>88</td>
<td>47.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>51.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 While working on the infographic, I can maintain positive channels of communication with the members of the group</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>126</td>
<td>67.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>31.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 With infographics, I can participate at the time that works best in my schedule</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>118</td>
<td>63.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>35.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 With online Infographic websites/ software, I have the ability to save and revisit the data I need.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>39.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>59.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 Analyze information</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>22.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>76.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 Evaluate the material I’m reading</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>56.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 Synthesize the material of the whole course</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>83.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 Create new knowledge</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 Develop my critical thinking and problem solving skills</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>52.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>46.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 Exercise my explaining skills</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>79</td>
<td>42.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>104</td>
<td>55.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 Argue for &amp; against ideas</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>58.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>74</td>
<td>39.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 Paraphrase new concepts and ideas adequately</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>47.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>50.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 Summarize the material efficiently</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>29.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>68.8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.3. What are the factors that lead Saudi female EFL students to devalue using infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics?

The answer to this question is evident in the participants’ responses to multiple-choice items where they identified the disadvantages of using infographics as a tool for learning. Their responses are shown in Table 5. 45.2% believed that infographic design software and websites might have technical problems such as broken links and inaccessible websites. On a final note, 36% faced problems with collaborative group work where they were unable to communicate efficiently with other members of the group.
Table 5. Descriptive statistics for item 26 of the questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. While working on my infographic, some members of my group do not respond immediately</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>117</td>
<td>62.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>67</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. While working on my infographic, some members are passive. (i.e. there are members who do not work with the rest of the group).</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>142</td>
<td>76.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>22.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. While working on my infographic, some members lack the capacity of adequate information-seeking skills and therefore share unnecessary or unrelated information</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>75.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Infographic design software or websites might have technical problems. There may exist broken links and inaccessible websites.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>53.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>45.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Internet connectivity problems inhibit me from working effectively on my infographic.</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>61.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>37.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. Recommendations

Based on the findings from this study, future studies could explore the effect of using infographics in relation to other disciplines such as literature and translation. Further studies could compare the attitudes of using infographics by native speakers to those of EFL students. Language instructors should be encouraged to use infographics professionally in class to teach linguistics and other courses as well. Researchers could also compare students’ first infographics to those created by them after gaining some experience. EFL teachers could meet regularly, in workshop or conference settings, to compare and share experiences and data about using infographics in relation to teaching linguistics. Similar studies could be conducted on students of different nationalities as well as gender-specific studies on the effectiveness of using infographics to teach various linguistic courses. Teachers’ attitudes towards using infographics could be measured as well in future studies.

6. Conclusion

The aim of the current study was to examine using infographics in the learning of several areas of linguistics and the influence it has on enhancing student learning and aiding their academic and personal growth. The study was conducted via a questionnaire and infographics assigned to students as a course project. Results revealed that the majority of the students were not familiar with infographics before participating in the project. Yet, the majority were motivated to utilize them in their future academic and professional careers. The participants benefited from practicing various skills through creating infographics such as higher thinking skills, collaborative learning,
and information analysis. The analysis revealed that the technical problems and communication problems in group work led students to devalue using infographics as a tool for learning linguistics and semantics.

In light of the above, teachers need to be encouraged to use infographics in class to teach linguistics and other courses as well and share their experiences with other teachers.

The study paves the way for more comprehensive studies exploring the effect of using infographics in the learning of other disciplines. Moreover, it serves as a foundation for comparative studies since similar studies can be conducted on other nationalities or native speakers for example.

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**References**


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History of English-as-a-Second-Language Teaching in the Middle East and the Current Scenario in Bahrain

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Abstract
In the Middle East, independence from the colonial powers was synonymous with ‘Arabization,’ making Arabic fundamental to education (Findlow 2006). With the member nations of the Arab League striving to promote Arab-Islamic culture and the Arabic language, Arabic came to symbolize tradition and Islamic values and the English language and Western culture, modernity and materialism (Al Zeera 19990; Charise 2007; Findlow 2006). While government-run schools adopted Arabic as their medium of instruction relegating English to the status of a second language, most of post-secondary education continued to be imparted through the medium of English, leaving English-as-a-Second-Language (ESL) learners inept at coping with the academic demands of higher education. The introduction of ESL in Grade Four in primary schools is partly to be blamed for the ESL learners’ inadequacies. Rising criticism from tertiary level educators and employers necessitated the introduction of ESL in Grade One in 2004 in Bahrain (Bahrain Ministry of Education, 2003). Sweeping national reforms in the educational arena in Bahrain have led to the revamping of curriculum, instruction and assessment standards in an attempt to ensure Bahrain’s educational system is of international standards (Quality Assurance Authority for Education & Training 2011). The purpose of this review article is to trace the way English Language teaching has changed since the colonial days in the Middle East, especially in Bahrain and the reasons necessitating the change. This paper also has implications for research on the English proficiency levels of freshman students today who have learned ESL since Grade 1.

Key words: English as a second language, English curriculum, English language teaching in Bahrain, English language teaching in the Middle East, English proficiency

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Introduction

In the Middle East, English is commonly used as one of the lingua francas, given the cosmopolitan nature of its immigrant workforce from the South Eastern, Far Eastern countries, (Charise 2007) and the English-speaking West. English has been the medium of instruction at tertiary level in the Arab world of post-colonial times (Farooq 2001; Zughoul & Taminian 1984). To succeed in higher education or procure satisfactory jobs, English proficiency is not just a desired asset but also a required skill in growing economies (“English Exam Sparks” 2008). In Bahrain, English is the mostly widely used language outside the government sector (Farooq 2001), and it is the language of business (Educational Documentation Section 2004). However, tertiary educators and employers continue to express dissatisfaction over the inadequate English proficiency levels of Bahraini public school leavers. The history of English as a Second Language (ESL) teaching in public schools in the Middle East and Bahrain in particular, and the current ESL scenario in Bahrain are discussed in this research paper.

History of ESL in the Arab World and Bahrain in Particular

In the Arab world, independence from the colonial powers was simultaneous with the call for the use of Arabic in social, educational, economic, and political arenas (Zughoul & Taminian1984). In the era of post-colonial nationalism, a powerful wave of ‘Arabization’ swept over the Arabic-speaking Gulf, Mediterranean, and North African nations. Adoption of Arabic as a national language granted these nations an Arab identity (Charise 2007) and membership in the Arab League established in 1945 (“Arab League” n.d.). Language came to be recognized as the most important characteristic of nationality (Zughoul & Taminian 1984). Even more important than the sense of belonging was the long-held belief of Muslims that command of Arabic is the only way to understand the teachings of the Qur’an, which gave impetus to the ‘Arabization’ movement, making Arabic fundamental to the curriculum literature of Islamic schools and universities in the Gulf (Findlow 2006). After years of suppression under colonial rule, promoting the Arabic language, and the Arab-Islamic culture inside and outside the Arab world became the prime aim of Arab League’s Educational, Social, and Cultural Organization (ALESCO n.d.), and the official use of Arabic came to be regarded as a symbol of unity among the Arabic-speaking Muslims of the world (Charise 2007).

Whereas government-run schools have adopted Arabic as the medium of instruction, private schools catering to learners hailing from higher socio-economic backgrounds impart education through the medium of English. Tertiary education, however, in both government and private sectors, is characterized by a marked bifurcation (Almekhlafi 2006; Findlow 2006). In higher education, traditional subjects like Islamic studies are taught through the medium of Arabic, whereas, subjects related to medicine, commerce, industry, and internationalism are taught in English considering the fact that the bulk of academic books and research studies are published in English, not to mention the information explosion since the advent of the Internet. Arabic has thus come to connote religious affiliation, authenticity of culture, tradition, emotions, and localism; in contrast, English represents modernity, business, material values, and secularism (Al Zeera 1990; Charise 2007; Findlow 2006). Al Zeera (1990) and Zughoul and Taminian’s (1984) views seem to be applicable to today’s Arab world, too: English is the choice of instruction for people with modern values, and career goals, whereas Arabic is the preferred medium of instruction for learners with religious and traditional values.
A good command of English is the stepping stone to better educational, and job opportunities, and higher social status (Charise 2007; Guilherme 2007; Zughoul & Taminian 1984). With the intention of equipping the younger generation with the English communication skills required for higher education and career opportunities, public schools in the Arab nations, as in other non-English-speaking countries of the world, introduced ESL in the second decade of learners’ lives. The rationale behind the late introduction to the second language was based on the popular belief of the early 20th century educators that introducing a second language early in a child's life was counterproductive to the development of cognitive abilities and educational achievement (Bialystok 2008).

The late introduction to ESL, especially beyond the critical period for language learning and the consequent reduced exposure to the language combined with socio-cultural factors could be implicated in the low English proficiency levels of Arab public school students (Ponnuchamy 2011). Penfield and Robert (1959) posit when learners learn a language for survival purposes, rather than for the sake of learning a foreign language, foreign languages are acquired more easily and faster. Learning English might be easier for non-English speaking students studying in English-speaking countries, given the frequency of exposure to the language and the necessity to communicate in English. In the Arab countries, considering the absence of necessity to learn English for survival purposes, English was taught as a subject of study in public schools with little emphasis on the communicative aspect of the language, resulting in poor levels of proficiency, provoking dissatisfaction from college instructors and criticism from employers.

The ESL Scenario in Bahrain

In Bahrain curriculum revision instituted in 1994 (Bahrain Ministry of Education [Bahrain MoE] 2003) saw Bahraini public schools introduce ESL in Grade Four (at age nine), with four sessions of ESL instruction a week (Charise 2007; Farooq 2001; Kjeilen n.d.). In 2000-2001, English was introduced in Grade Three, and in the face of mounting criticism regarding the inadequate English proficiency levels of ESL learners, further curriculum revisions in 2003 led to ESL being introduced in Grade One (at age six) starting 2004 (Bahrain MoE 2003).

In the meantime, contemporary Bahraini ESL students accepted to tertiary institutions continue to experience problems especially in their first year. Despite spending nine years learning English in public schools, the ESL learners are less than competent to cope with the academic demands of tertiary education. This predicament is not uncommon among ESL students in countries which were former British colonies, such as India (Ponnuchamy 2011). Similar concerns were echoed by other Middle Eastern countries. Al Qadi (2008), who conducted a study in the United Arab Emirates, commented adoption of English as the medium of instruction in higher education has been the cause of student drop-out rates at universities because Low English Proficiency students were often unable to deal with the stress of coping with conceptual knowledge and English language learning concurrently. Mukattash (1978) succinctly summed up the plight of Jordanian Arab students faced with the challenges of instruction through the medium of English at university, concerns which resonate among most Bahraini ESL students even today: "Eight years of English in the relatively artificial environment of school is not enough to enable them to absorb
ideas, and concepts in English nor to express themselves properly, either verbally or in writing, in that language” (cited in Zughoul & Taminian 1984, 156).

Most ESL students in Bahrain are underprepared and ill-equipped for the transition to tertiary education where the medium of instruction is English (Farooq 2001; Traynor 1985). After millions of dinars of government spending on teaching ESL for nine years in government schools, a huge number of Bahraini ESL students fail to meet entry-level English language requirements. Most of the ESL students’ English proficiency levels are inadequate to qualify for direct entry to undergraduate programs (“English Exam Sparks” 2008) necessitating Foundation English courses.

Bahraini high school graduates’ English language skills are not adequate for the workplace (“Bahrain Sets Quality” 2008; “English Exam Sparks” 2008; “School Leavers’ English” 2007). A research study conducted by Allen Consulting Group ([ACG] 2009) found Bahrainis lacking in certain employability skills, and where necessary, the skills gap was met by expatriate labor. Bahrainis lack employability skills, especially English communication skills, and employers have to invest heavily in training their young Bahraini employees (“School Leavers’ English” 2007) to become employees of choice (Bahrain Economic Development Board [Bahrain EDB] 2009). Fifty five per cent of Bahraini labor force is expatriate (Charise 2007; "Expatriate Labor Force" 2008) while the Bahraini government is keen on ‘Bahrainizing’ the labor force (ACG 2009; Farooq 2001) and enhancing its human capital (Bahrain EDB 2009). Hence Bahrainis have to be equipped with the highest quality education. Faced with the demands of the employment sector, the Bahraini government is revamping the vocational curriculum and technical education to meet the demands of the labor market (“Bahrain Sets Quality” 2008; “Economic Vision 2030” 2008). Ensuring graduates possess adequate English proficiency is an aim of higher education (“English Exam Sparks” 2008).

In the wake of acceptance that English has a gained a firm foothold as the global language of communication and commerce, public schools and tertiary level colleges in Bahrain are working on equipping students with adequate soft skills including English communicative abilities and producing work-ready graduates. Currently, in Bahrain, most ESL students accepted to colleges or universities require Foundation or Orientation courses in English before they are ready for the academic demands of undergraduate education imparted through the medium of instruction. Foundation English courses are aimed at helping students transition to an English-only academic environment and cope with the academic demands of undergraduate studies where everything from instruction and textbooks to reference materials is in English.

Bahrain’s Quality Assurance Authority for Education and Training [QAA] was established in 2008 to ensure quality in education at all levels (Quality Assurance Authority for Education & Training 2011). The QAA has been directing its efforts at ensuring public and private schools and higher educational institutions meet international standards through its training programs, visits, and institutional reviews. The QAA’s chief focus includes evaluating curriculum and teaching and assessment standards with the goal of developing a world-class educational system (Quality Assurance Authority for Education & Training 2011).
Conclusion

ESL learners’ under-preparedness in terms of English proficiency is a growing concern for the Bahraini government aspiring to enhance its human capital and replace expatriate labor (Bahrain EDB 2009). Producing professionally strong, communication-savvy English-proficient, work-ready graduates assumes greater significance today as the government has declared plans and measures to accomplish the country’s economic vision for 2030. In view of the growth of Bahrain’s economy, the problems of expatriate labor and Bahraini unemployment are challenges to be addressed by education (“Economic Vision 2030” 2008). The Crown Prince and Chairman of the Economic Development Board of the Kingdom of Bahrain Shaikh Salman bin Hamad al Khalifa announced "A better education system is key to empowering every Bahraini to pursue his choices and get the necessary skills for the labour market" (“Bahrain Sets Quality” 2008). The effect of the introduction of ESL in Grade One in government public schools in 2004, combined with the QAA’s efforts to ensure quality education, on the English proficiency levels of the first generation of ESL learners, who started learning ESL in Grade One and will be leaving school in 2016, remains a topic for future research.

About the Author

Dr. Gita Ponnuchamy, M.A., M. Phil., B.Ed. P.G. Dip TESOL, Licentiate Dip. TESOL, Ed.D. served as a Professor of English in India and Bahrain for around 25 years. Motivated by a desire to study the way ESL learners acquire English, she has now moved to school administration. As an educational consultant, she has trained teachers from numerous schools and is currently Principal of Tylos Private School, Bahrain.

References


Effect of Bilingualism on the Development of Cognitive Processes among Children

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Abstract
The aim of this paper was to evaluate the contentions and evidence supporting two divergent views about the existence of advantages offered by bilingualism. It also considered whether a definite conclusion was possible. A qualitative research methodology using the published evidence was adopted. The published evidence supporting or rejecting the advantages of bilingualism was collected using search terms in the Google Scholar search engine. A total number of 64 papers were collected, among which only five challenged the claimed advantages enjoyed by bilingual individuals. The papers were classified by their orientation and discussed. Based on the points derived from the evaluation of evidence, some conclusions were drawn. The overwhelming research support in favour of the existence of supposed bilingual advantage tends to suggest a conclusion in favour of that hypothesis. However, the points raised by critics, such as small sample sizes, inadequate matching of other variables, as well as defective measurements and analysis cannot be ignored as they question the very validity of the studies which support bilingual advantage. Future research needs to pay more attention to these aspects.

Keywords: advantages of bilingualism, bilingualism, bilingual acquisition, childhood bilingualism

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Aim of this paper

There are two strongly held divergent views among researchers on whether bilinguals have any advantage over monolinguals with respect to cognitive functions. One view, proposed by a large group headed by Bialystok and her associates, presents evidence to show that attention control and a superior capacity to analyse knowledge are two cognitive advantages of bilingualism. The other group has obtained some recent evidence rejecting the idea of any cognitive advantage deriving from bilingualism. The aim of this paper is to evaluate the contentions and evidence proposed by the two groups and examine whether a definite conclusion is possible.

Background

Surprisingly, there is relatively little reliable research on the effects of bilingualism on cognitive processes and development, especially in the case of children. This is a nascent area of research and much needs to be done to answer a number of related questions. One of the complexities involved in the research into bilingualism in children is the large array of disciplines that such research involves, including psychology, education and linguistics.

In an edited book on cognitive aspects of bilingualism, Kecskes & Albertazzi (2007) differentiated between the real world and the projected world of cognition. Although information conveyed by a language needs to be about this inner projected (mental) world, this is not shown well in the chapters of the book. Some unexplored areas included in the discussions are: the gender system in bilingual minds, the concept of context and task synergism, blending, and the relationship between lexical and ontological categorisations.

This paper is organised in the following manner. A brief outline of the research methodology used for this paper is given in the next section. This is followed by a section on the evidence in favour of bilingual advantage is discussed. The next section deals with the evidence presented by the opposing group to show that no bilingual advantages exist. The relative merits of the two arguments are discussed in the section following the two theories. Conclusions are drawn in the final section.

Research Methodology

Since the topic is dealt by using evidence in favour of and against bilingual advantage, research publications available on both sides of the argument were searched for in the Google Scholar search engine using appropriate search terms. In the first stage, the papers available from the first five web pages of the Google Scholar selection were downloaded and then classified based on their contents, irrespective of the year (any time) of publication. In the second stage, more recent papers were searched for, specifying a publication date range from 2013 to 2017. A total of 64 papers were obtained by these methods, of which 59 research works argued in favour of bilingual advantage while the rest were counter to this theory.

The intention of this paper is to present a simple qualitative discussion rather than a quantitative meta-analysis based on international reviewing standards like Cochrane.
The evidence in favour of the bilingual advantage

A large majority of the papers offering support for a theory of bilingual advantage belong to the Bialystok group. For convenience, works supporting the likelihood of bilingual advantage are discussed more or less chronologically, deriving mutual support from related works wherever applicable.

Early works

Ianco-Worrall (1972) notes that bilinguals developed the ability to separate word sound from word meaning earlier than monolinguals. The conclusion is derived from the results of a test on 4-9 year old children. In this study, bilingualism is defined as dual language acquisition in an environment of one child, from one language home. Out of three hypotheses connecting bilingualism with various abilities, only one related to cognitive ability of a kind is verified in the dissertation work of Ben-Zeev (1972).

In a very early study, Slobin (1973) proposes that children must have preliminary internal structures to assimilate both linguistic and non-linguistic inputs. He argues that the development of semantic intentions stems from general cognitive development. He uses linguistic input to identify intended meaning, drawing on his theories about the nature of language use and general cognitive-perceptive strategies. He also takes note of limitations enforced by operative memory. In Slobin’s model, information from existing information structures are assimilated and absorbed into new inputs. Increasing age expands these realms into new dimensions.

Cummins (1976) tries to resolve the inconsistency between earlier reports and current reports regarding the relationship of bilingualism to cognitive consequences. Earlier studies have reported a negative relationship between the two. The current results reported a positive relationship. The contrasting results are partly due to the fact that the recent studies were conducted on balanced bilinguals in what were claimed to be additive bilingual settings. In these cases, the bilingual subjects had attained a high level of competence in their second language without affecting their competence in their first language. In earlier studies, in bilinguals from minority groups, the competency in the first language was being gradually replaced by competence in second language. Thus, the bilinguals in these cases paid for their competence in the second language by lowering competence in the first language. The author proposed a hypothesis: Based on this difference: the level of language competence attained by a bilingual child may mediate the effects of the bilingual learning experience on cognitive growth. A threshold level of linguistic competence may exist, beyond which the bilingual child needs to attain a certain level of both competencies to avoid cognitive deficits and to allow potential benefits of bilingualism to affect general cognitive functioning. There is no indication that the hypothesis was verified by any other work.

The objective of the Irish study by Cummins (1978) was to assess the level of metalinguistic awareness and the ability to evaluate contradictory and tautological statements among children. A test to evaluate this was administered to grade Three and grade Six English-Irish bilingual children and to control groups of unilingual children matched on Intelligence Quotient, Socio-Economic Status, gender, and age. The findings showed a greater awareness of certain properties of language and a better ability to evaluate contradictory statements among both
grades of the bilingual children compared to the control group. Thus, it was proposed that bilingualism can increase a child's metalinguistic awareness and promote an analytic orientation to linguistic input.

In a later paper, Cummins (1979) further proposes the developmental inter-dependence hypothesis. According to this hypothesis, “the development of competence in a second language (L2) is partially a function of the type of competence already developed in L1 by the time that intensive exposure to L2 begins” (p.3, abstract). The threshold hypothesis proposed in the earlier work was reiterated. Thus, the hypothesis states that “there may be threshold levels of linguistic competence which a bilingual child must attain both in order to avoid cognitive disadvantages and allow the potentially beneficial aspects of bilingualism to influence his cognitive and academic functioning.” (p.3, abstract)

The two hypotheses were combined to propose that “a cognitively and academically beneficial form of bilingualism can be achieved only on the basis of adequately developed first language (L1) skills.” (p.3, abstract).

In their work, Potter, So, Von Eckardt, & Feldman (1984) do not obtain support for a simple word association hypothesis, but have found support for a meaning mediation hypothesis to explain the association between equivalent words in the two languages of a bilingual person. Thus it is suggested that the only connection between words in two languages is through an underlying conceptual system to which pictured objects also have access. In this paradigm a certain time seems to be needed to identify the word for a stimulus picture in the first language and possibly also a certain time is needed to translate from the first to second language.

**Cognitive aspects of bilingualism advantages**

In one of E. Bialystok’s early works (Bialystok, 1987), she proposes a framework in which metalinguistic awareness consisted of two processing components: the analysis of linguistic knowledge, and the control of linguistic processes. In this model, global assessments of metalinguistic ability by bilingual subjects are said to lead to conflicting results due to the enhancement of only the latter of these processing components in a bilingual environment. Attention control and the analysis of knowledge are two processes found to develop differently in monolingual and bilingual children when solving linguistic problems (Bialystok, 1988).

According to the theory of cognitive complexity and control (CCC) proposed by Zelazo & Frye (1997), preschool children lack the necessary conscious representation and executive functioning to solve problems based on conflicting rules. Related to this, in a later work, Bialystok & Majumder (1998) evaluate the effect of different degrees of bilingualism on the non-verbal problem solving abilities of children in grade three. In their study, a French-English and a Bengali-English bilingual group are compared with an English monolingual group. The problem solving task is designed to measure the subject’s control of attention and analysis of knowledge. In earlier studies, these capabilities have been shown to be different for monolingual and bilingual children when it came to solving linguistic problems. Language proficiency tests show the French-English group to be relatively more balanced bilinguals and the Bengali-English group to be partially balanced bilinguals. The results show the balanced French-English group to be better in solving non-linguistic tasks requiring the control of attention. However, there is no difference among the three groups with respect to the ability to analyse representational structures. Thus,
balanced bilinguals do appear to carry their linguistic advantages to non-linguistic tasks requiring close attention.

In the studies of Bialystok (1999), she identifies analysis (manipulating representations) and control (selective attention) as the two main components of language processing. One of these, control, is shown to develop earlier in bilingual children than in monolinguals. The author also identifies the role of attentional control in cognitive development, thus supporting CCC theory.

Depending upon discourse demands, at some level bilinguals need to control two languages during speech. This affects their attentional networks. Fan, McCandliss, Sommer, Raz, & Posner (2002) discuss three types of attentional networks among bilinguals. These three attentional networks are: becoming alert, orienting and executive control. Bilinguals are faster in performing tasks and specifically are more efficient at becoming alert and managing executive networks. More content is added by bilinguals on presentation of an alerting cue and it is more useful to resolve conflicting information. Their switching cost between trials is less than that of monolinguals. The most efficient attention mechanisms appear to be produced by young adults who are at the peak of their attention capabilities. In another work by Bialystok, Craik, Klein, & Viswanathan (2004), the ability to control processing among bilinguals decreases less with age than among monolinguals. Thus, bilingualism effectively helps to off-set age-related loss of the ability to control some executive processes.

One experiment compares monolingual and bilingual children who either do or do not have much experience with playing computer games. The experiment is done on specially designed Simon tasks by (Bialystok, 2006). Video-game playing children are faster under most conditions. They are even better when control conditions do not include conflict from irrelevant positions. On the other hand, bilinguals are faster only when the most controlled attention is required to resolve conflict between the position and the stimulus. The potential of experience to modify performance and subtle differences in the processing of different versions of the Simon task are clear in these results.

In the continuing work on bilingual development in relation to cognitive abilities, Bialystok (2007) observes that the experience of controlling attention to two languages accelerates executive control processes in early childhood. It continues to sustain the cognitive control advantages through adulthood. During advanced age, it protects from the decline of these processes. In the findings reported by Carlson & Meltzoff (2008), native bilingual children perform significantly better on the executive function. They are better than both other groups, especially in the tasks that appear to call for managing conflicting attentional demands (Conflict tasks), but not impulse control (delay) tasks.

Based on a review and meta-analysis, Adesope, Lavin, Thompson, & Ungerleider, (2010) find that bilingualism is associated with many cognitive outcomes. These included increased attentional control, working memory, abstract and symbolic representation skills and metalinguistic awareness. The term metalinguistic awareness refers to the ability to think about the language. Even when bilinguals speak one language while suppressing the other language, both
languages are active. Using many assessment tools, Hilchey & Klein (2011) observe higher cognitive abilities among bilinguals than is the case with the monolingual group.

The findings of Morales & Bialystok (2013) show that working memory is better in bilingual children, especially if the task contained additional executive function demands. In a comparative study, all bilinguals perform executive control tasks similarly. Language tasks are performed better by the bilingual groups whose instructional language is the same as the test language. Thus, specific bilingual experience influenced performance in verbal tasks (Barac & Bialystok, 2012). The results obtained by Morales, Calvo, & Bialystok (2013) confirm the advantages of executive functioning and working memory among bilingual children compared to monolinguals. The cognitive effects of bilingual advantages are highlighted by Kroll & Bialystok (2013) as bilinguals outperform their monolingual counterparts on tasks that required ignoring irrelevant information, task switching, and resolving conflict.

According to Macnamara & Conway (2014), experience in engaging general cognitive mechanisms to manage two languages can explain the bilingual advantage. Also, bimodal (signed language–spoken language) bilinguals do not exhibit this advantage due to the reduction of conflict and control demands by distinct language modalities. The mechanism behind bilingual advantages may arise from a combination of the magnitude of bilingual management demands and the amount of experience managing those demands. In an experiment, bimodal bilinguals are given the experience of managing high bilingual management demands. These participants outperform themselves from two years previously on demonstrating the cognitive advantages of bilingualism. High socio-economic status and bilingualism are independently associated with better language performance and executive function in a study by Calvo & Bialystok (2014).

In an investigation of US Latino students by Riggs, Shin, Unger, Spruijt-Metz, & Pentz (2014), bilingualism significantly predicts an advantage in the summary executive function score and working memory. Bilingual proficiency is positively related to executive function. While controlling for a potential third variable in bilingualism, prospective associations between bilingualism and executive function are demonstrated in this study, together with a significant role for working memory in the relationship. In their study, Singh et al (2015) compare 114 monolingual and bilingual infants in a very basic task of information processing and visual habituation at 6 months of age. The results show a generalized cognitive advantage in bilingual infants that is broad in scope, early to emerge, and not specific to language.

Monolinguals and bilinguals with or without reading difficulties are compared for executive functioning by Jalali-Moghadam & Kormi-Nouri (2015). Reading difficulty reduces executive control more prominently in bilingual children than monolingual children with reading difficulty. Thus, although bilinguals show general superiority in executive functioning with respect to normal reading, they fail to show superiority when they have reading difficulties. Executive functioning is important for both reading skills and bilingualism.

The study reported by Poarch & Bialystok (2015) consist of 203 children, 8–11 years old, who are monolingual, partially bilingual, bilingual, or trilingual performing a flanker task. The results show that bilingualism affects multitasking. Bilingual children outperformed monolinguals
on the conflict trials in the flanker task. This result confirms the existence of a bilingual advantage in executive functioning. The inclusion of partial bilinguals and trilinguals set limits on the role of experience. Partial bilinguals perform closer to monolinguals and trilinguals perform closer to bilinguals. These results suggest that degrees of experience are not well calibrated to improve executive functioning. Because both languages of bilinguals are constantly active, the model hypothesizes that bilinguals need to manage attention to the target language and avoid interference from the non-target language. This process is likely to be carried out by recruiting the executive function (EF) system, a system that is also the basis for multitasking.

In a review, Bialystok (2015) argues that attention, as a component of executive function, emerges early in the developmental process and initiates the differences in bilingual children from their infancy.

**Linguistic and other aspects of cognitive advantage of bilingualism**

Lexical production in early sequential bilinguals (Spanish-English) is studied by Kohnert, Bates, & Hernandez (1999). Spanish is learned as the first language at home. Formal English learning starts at the age of five. Although both languages develop with age, the initial dominance of Spanish in the youngest children gives way progressively (with age) to relatively balanced skills in both Spanish and English in middle childhood and culminate in a clear English dominance among adolescents and young adults. The response time for these lexical effects decrease with increasing age. The developmental changes in the speed-accuracy trade-offs in the bilingual condition can be due to a change in the ability to resist cognitive interference during word production.

A common belief is that there is a stage among children learning two languages simultaneously during infancy, at which, they cannot differentiate their two languages. Almost all studies show bilingual children mixing elements from both languages. These results are assumed to provide evidence for a unitary, undifferentiated language system, known as the unitary language system hypothesis. However, Genesee (1989) questioned this assumption, pointing out that bilingual children developed differentiated language systems from the beginning and could use their developing languages in contextually sensitive ways. The possible role of parents was suggested as an area for future research.

The objective of a study by Bialystok (2001) was to evaluate the differences in metalinguistic development between monolingual and bilingual children in terms of their awareness of words, their syntax and phonology. The difference between monolinguals and bilinguals with respect to the types of tasks they perform better are identified. In all three tasks, there was no uniform superiority demonstrated by either mono or bilingual children. Different degrees of analysis and control affecting the tasks differently among either mono or bilingual children may account for the observed variations.

From a comparison of English and Mandarin Chinese monolinguals and Mandarin-English bilinguals, Goetz (2003) notes a significant superiority of bilinguals to monolinguals in all tasks. Greater inhibitory control, greater metalinguistic understanding, and a greater sensitivity to sociolinguistic interactions with interlocutors were proposed as reasons for the bilinguals being
relatively superior. In a similar vein, in two studies involving identification of the alternative image in a reversible figure, Bialystok & Shapero (2005) note that bilingual children were more successful than monolinguals in seeing the other meaning in the images.

According to Bialystok (2007) some aspects of reading ability, notably phonological awareness, are rooted in general cognitive mechanisms and transfer easily across languages, whereas others, such as decoding, are more language dependent and language-specific and need to be relearned with each new writing system. Writing systems and the differences between them have a greater impact on children's acquisition of literacy than previously believed. Not surprisingly, this relationship between writing and literacy has also been found to be related to emerging ability with phonological awareness, and such factors have a subtle influence on children's emerging concepts of print.

Based on their cumulative research, Bialystok, Craik, & Luk (2008) note that younger participants performed certain tasks better than the older ones. This confirms the effect of the ageing process. There is no difference between monolinguals and bilinguals regarding working on memory tasks. Monolinguals perform better in lexical linguistic tasks. Bilinguals perform better on executive control tasks. The author uses bilinguals from many languages with English as part of the samples.

The benefits and costs of the bilingual experience on the cognitive and linguistic performance of individuals across their lifespans are discussed by Bialystok & Craik (2010). The costs are associated with bilinguals having lower formal language proficiency than monolinguals. The benefits are related to the enhanced executive control in nonverbal tasks requiring conflict resolution.

In the studies by Bialystok (2010), the bilingual advantage is found not only for traditionally demanding conditions, but also in processing complex stimuli in those tasks requiring executive processing components for conflict resolution. These include switching and updating, even when no inhibition appeared to be involved. The significant effect of bilingualism in eight-year-old children as shown by superior performances in spatial complex reasoning tasks in the context of academic achievement is discussed by Greenberg, Bellana, & Bialystok (2013). A significant level of problem-solving ability is implied in these performances, which is an essential requirement of high academic achievement.

The gradual development of metalinguistic advantages is noticed by Bialystok, Peets, & Moreno (2014) among children in a French immersion programme. Tasks requiring more executive control, in terms of grammaticality judgments, appear later. Performance in some tasks improve with age, but do not exceed the performance of monolinguals. For example, advanced verbal fluency develop only when bilinguals reach the fifth grade.

According to Blom, Küntay, Messer, Verhagen, & Leseman (2014), bilingualism increases working memory among children from low social economic status in a Turkish-Dutch population. Working memory tasks involving both storage and processing increase independently of language, but proficiency is also related to verbal tasks. These findings support the hypothesis that experience
with dual language management influences the central executive control system that regulates processing across a wide range of task demands.

Based on a research on bilingual deaf children, McQuarrie & Parrila (2014) conclude that a signed-language phonological system facilitate the establishment of a “functional” representational base to support reading acquisition for bilingual deaf learners.

According to Aguilar-Mediavilla, Buil-Legaz, Pérez-Castelló, Rigo-Carratalà, & Adrover-Roig (2014), a sample of bilingual Spanish-Catalan children with specific language impairment (SLI) exhibits a delay in processing abilities when they are aged six. Both comprehension and letter identification are affected, but there is no problem with visual attention. Normally, at the kindergarten stage, phonological awareness and verbal fluency can predict the reading outcomes at school age.

In a research comparing the comprehension of active and passive English sentences in 7–10 year old bilingual and monolingual children, Filippi et al. (2015), obtain results supporting the association of bilingualism with better accuracy in comprehending syntactically complex sentences in the presence of linguistic noise.

Based on a meta-analysis, Prevo, Malda, Mesman, & van Ijzendoorn (2016) propose a task-dependent bidirectional transfer hypothesis. The hypothesis states that the strength of cross-language transfer depends on the type of language proficiency task and the type of school outcomes which are aimed for. Therefore, stimulation of oral language proficiency in both languages might improve the school outcomes of bilingual children with immigrant backgrounds.

**Inhibitory control**

The results of three studies reported by Bialystok & Martin (2004) indicate that bilinguals have a more sufficient inhibitory control to ignore impinging perceptual information compared to monolinguals. However, they are not more skilled in representation, which confirms earlier findings. The critical difficulty in solving this task is the lack of ability by some subjects to ignore an obsolete display feature.

Cross-language activity, selection of the language to speak, planning of speech, language selection and the word production steps of bilinguals’ speeches using a single language are discussed by Kroll (2008). Language selection models hold that bilinguals develop the ability to selectively use the intended language even if both languages are active. In an alternative model, both languages compete for selection, requiring that cross-language activity modulates to select the required language only. In this case, the non-target language needs to be inhibited. Some works report on such inhibitory mechanisms. Three studies are done by Martin-Rhee & Bialystok (2008) to assess the degree and type of inhibitory control through which bilingual children demonstrate an ability to excel in tasks (Simon tasks as cited in Bialystok, Craik, Klein, and Viswanathan, 2004) by ignoring misleading perceptual cues. The studies involve the activation of inhibitory controls leading to an inhibition of habitual responses. Bilingual children maintain their advantage on tasks that require the control of attention but show no advantage on tasks that require the inhibition of responses.
MEG and genetic basis

In another study by Bialystok et al. (2005) magnet-encephalography (MEG) is used in evaluating Simon tasks by Bilingual Cantonese–English, bilingual French–English and monolingual English speakers. Any faster reaction time for congruent trials compared to incongruent trials is recorded. The Cantonese group is faster than the other two groups, while the differences between the other two groups are not significant. According to MEG data, all three groups are characterised by the same pattern of activity, which involve signal changes in left and medial prefrontal areas. However, the two bilingual groups differ from the monolingual group due to greater activity in superior and middle temporal, cingulate, and superior and inferior frontal brain regions located largely in the left hemisphere. In the case of monolinguals, faster reaction times are associated with activation in the middle frontal brain regions. Thus, the management of the two language systems leads to systematic changes in frontal executive functions.

Recent neuro-imaging results appear to show that bilingualism can compensate for the degeneration of other cognitive functions associated with dementia and thus postpone the onset of symptoms, (Bialystok, 2015). However, based on a study on 1,067 Spanish-English bilinguals in the Washington/Hamilton Heights Inwood Columbia Aging Project (WHICAP), Zahodne, Schofield, Farrell, Stern, & Manly (2014) report that bilingualism is not independently associated with rates of cognitive decline or dementia conversion.

Using whole head magnetoencephalography (MEG), Ferjan Ramírez, Ramírez, Clarke, Taulu, & Kuhl (2017) investigate brain responses to Spanish and English syllables in Spanish-English bilingual and English monolingual 11-month-old infants. Monolingual infants are sensitive to English. On the other hand, bilingual infants are sensitive to both languages. Neural responses achieved by a slower transition from acoustic to phonetic sound analysis, together with an adaptive and advantageous response to increased variability in language input, have been responsible for this dual sensitivity of the bilingual brain. These bilingual neural responses extend into the prefrontal and orbitofrontal cortex, which may be related to the bilingual advantage in executive function skills.

Allelic differences between monolinguals and bilinguals for frequencies of the DRD2/ANKK1 taq1A polymorphism noticed by Hernandez, Greene, Vaughn, Francis, & Grigorenko (2015) also raises the possibility of genetic differences between the two groups.

Negative results

From a comparative study of the effect of bilingualism on the language proficiency and reading skill development in two systems of writing, Bialystok, McBride-Chang, & Luk (2005) observe that both language exposure and instruction are responsible for the development of phonological awareness. However, once established, these skills can be transferred across languages in the case of both bilinguals and second language learners. On the other hand, decoding ability develops separately for each language as a function of both proficiency and the nature of instruction in that language. This skill is not transferred to the other language. Thus, there is no overall effect which is obvious from this research on bilingualism effect on learning to read. The performance depend entirely on the structure of the language, proficiency in that language and...
instructional experiences with that writing system. The comparison involves monolingual English, bilingual English-Chinese and Chinese children beginning to learn English as a second language.

In their study to evaluate the effect of bilingual advantage on inhibitory skills, Duñabeitia et al. (2014) use verbal and non-verbal versions of the Stroop task. The results show that bilingual and monolingual participants perform equally in the two types of tasks across all the indices of inhibitory effect on the skills explored. The absence of difference extend to all the age ranges tested. There is no modulatory effect from any of the independent factors. Thus, bilingual children do not seem to exhibit any specific advantage in simple tasks which elicite inhibition as compared to monolinguals.

Analysing executive function and cognitive reserve, Valian (2015) proposes that the term “executive function” includes a complex set of cognitive processes, the components of which are sometimes minimally correlated with each other, depending on the task. Bilingualism is inconsistently correlated with superior executive function. There are non-linguistic ways of improving executive function. Benefits from bilingualism, and all other cognitively challenging activities, are inconsistent due to variations in the number and kinds of experiences of individuals promoting superior executive function. The author contends that executive function is a narrow interpretation how bilingualism hinders or helps cognition.

In a carefully matched large sample study, Antón et al. (2014) do not observe any bilingual advantages at all. This finding supports the contention that the reported positive bilingual advantages can be due to small or unmatched samples.

The meta-analysis of works done on bilingual advantage in executive functioning by Paap, Johnson, & Sawi (2015) show that such advantages either do not exist or are noticeable only in very specific and undetermined conditions. The studies conducted after 2011, either do not give any result or utilise small sample sizes. Some others produce group differences when inappropriate tests of the critical interaction or baselines are used. In a few others, demographic factors are imperfectly matched. Also in a few other studies, questionable use of the analysis-of-covariance is evident, apparently in order to control for problematic factors. Direct replications are under-utilized and even if they are attempted, the results of seminal studies cannot be reproduced. Measures and tasks used in the tests do not demonstrate convergent validity. Any significant differences in performances may not have been able to differentiate any task-specific mechanism from the domain-free abilities of executive functions. There is only modest support from brain imaging studies in evaluating the bilingual-advantage hypothesis. This is mainly because the neural differences do not align with the behavioural differences and/or the neural measures are ambiguous with respect to the magnitudes required to cause increases or decreases in brain performance. There are cumulative effects of confirmation biases and common research practices which lead to a belief that a phenomenon exists when it really does not, or has inflated the frequency and effect size of a genuine phenomenon that can emerge only occasionally and in restricted and undetermined circumstances.
Conclusion

The number of works reporting negative results is far outnumbered by the number of works indicating positive results for the hypothesis of bilingual advantages. Although the tendency will be to conclude that bilingual advantage exists, the points raised by the critics regarding small sample size, inadequacy of matching other variables, as well as measurement and analysis problems need to be considered seriously in future research on the topic. After all, in the issue of supporting one side or the other, the validity of the research work is arguably the most important consideration in accepting or rejecting any research conclusions.

About the Author:

Dr. Abdulaziz Alshahrani is an assistant professor of Applied Linguistics, graduated from the University of Newcastle, Australia. He was admitted to the degree of MA with distinction in Applied Linguistics from the same institution. His works are related to the fields of language acquisition, psycholinguistics, the roles of the social variables and other topics. At the moment, he works as an assistant professor at the Faculty of Arts and Humanities, Alba University, in Saudi Arabia.

References


University Teachers’ Views on English as the Medium of Instruction in an Iranian Higher Education Institution

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Abstract

The use of English for instruction at the tertiary level of education by nations whose native language is not English has been the subject of considerable debate. This study aims to survey the attitudes of a group of Iranian university teachers at a state university in central Iran towards the possible use of English as a medium of instruction (EMI) in Iranian higher education, where Persian is currently the medium of instruction except in English language departments. It also explores whether teachers’ attitude towards EMI is affected by their university rank. To this end, 60 teachers were randomly selected from faculties of Humanities, Science, and Engineering, and their perceptions about EMI were explored through questionnaires and interviews. The findings indicated that, in spite of the current emphasis on Persian by authorities, teachers valued English over Persian as the medium of instruction, expressing concerns mainly about inadequacies in resources and English proficiency requirements. Interview results showed that their opinions were divided as they enumerated a variety of economic, academic, cultural, social, and technological reasons both for and against the possible use of EMI at Iranian tertiary levels. The results imply that concerns over the launch of new curricula using EMI are multidimensional. Possible suggestions for future research on EMI are discussed.

Key words: EMI, English as a lingua franca, English as medium of instruction, higher education, teachers’ perceptions

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1. Introduction

The use of English as the medium of instruction (EMI) at tertiary level of education has been the subject of considerable debate in recent decades. One main reason is that the growing use of EMI is a consequence of globalization and advances in international communication. English has assumed the role of an international language due to historical, political, and sociological factors and is widely used as both a lingua franca and an international language (Wysocka, 2013).

The medium of instruction in higher education has conventionally been the local language of the country where the institutions operate, and it continues to be the learners’ mother tongue in many parts of the world. Recently, however, English is increasingly used as the language of instruction more than ever before in Europe and many other countries (See Dearden, 2014; Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2013). The spread is to the extent that more than half of international students are now taught in English (Graddol, 2006). As Doiz, Lasagabaster, and Sierra (2011) maintain, European universities offer various degree programs in English to ‘attract more international students’, ‘prepare domestic students for the global market’, and ‘raise the profile of the institution’. Graddol (2006) believes that higher education around the world has been extensively internationalized and marketized as the result of globalization. In fact, internationalization or “the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education” (Knight, 2003, p. 2) has led to the implementation of degree programs in foreign languages, particularly English.

Today, the language of instruction is not always the learner’s mother tongue, and English is the most common non-native medium of instruction. This is because English is widely used for the dissemination of research results in books, journals, and conferences (Mauranen, Hynninen, & Ranta, 2010). Teaching subject-matter via a language other than students’ first language has been described using different terms such as ‘second or foreign language–medium instruction’, ‘content-based instruction’, or ‘content- and language-integrated learning’ (Costa & Coleman, 2013). The differences seem to be basically contextual: immersion in Canada, content and language integrated learning (CLIL) in Europe, and EMI in Hong Kong. Moreover, these differ in terms of the amount of English usage and its balance with content, instructional goals, and pedagogical approaches (Lo & Maraco, 2015).

In academia, there has been a growing interest in the use of English as the medium of instruction in many countries (Coleman 2006; Knight 2008). Given the tendency of many higher education institutes to gain a highly international identity, EMI is becoming increasingly prevalent in contexts, where English is conventionally treated as a foreign language (Dafouz & Camacho-Miñano, 2016). English is today used as the medium of instruction in some university departments in Expanding Circle countries (see Kuchru, 1985), where the main language of education and business is other than English, and English is taught as a subject (Evans & Morrison, 2016). In some other countries, the possibility of adopting English as the medium of instruction,
at least at the tertiary level of education, has recently attracted much attention. Such widespread and growing use of English in research and academic circles has engaged researchers in debates about the role of English as a lingua franca.

According to Hughes (2008), in many countries where English is not the official language, there has been a marked tendency towards the use of this language as the medium of instruction in higher education (see also Evans & Morrison, 2011). In Denmark, for example, a growing number of degree programs are taught in English. According to Jensen and Thogersen (2011), about 25% of all university programs in Denmark are implemented in English. Jensen and Thogersen (2011) probed Danish university lecturers’ attitudes toward EMI and found both positive and negative attitudes, varying based on their age and teaching load in English. Also, closely related to internationalization in higher education in Norway, there has been a recent increasing tendency towards the implementation of university-level courses, especially post-graduate ones, in English (Ljosland, 2011).

The widespread use of EMI is attributable to many factors including international employment, access to academic literature, and mobility increases in the academia. Costa and Coleman (2013) attribute this growth in the use of EMI to several key factors such as:

1. Rapid advances in scientific knowledge and consequently in course content,
2. The increasing proportion of knowledge sources such as books, papers and theses which, for economic, social and prestige reasons, are available only in English,
3. The accelerating pattern of academic staff and student mobility, and
4. The near-necessity of English proficiency for graduate employability. (pp. 3-4)

Research on EMI has focused on a wide variety of issues including the amount of English used in EMI contexts (e.g., Carroll-Boegh, 2005; Petersen & Shaw, 2002), teachers’ and students’ proficiency requirements/limitations (e.g., Hellekjær, 2005; Vinke & Jochems, 1993), language competence (e.g., Jensen, Denver, Mees, & Werther, 2011; Tange, 2010), students’ expectations (e.g. Wilkinson, 2013), and the efficiency of EMI programs (e.g., Airey & Linder, 2006, 2007). The most common research trend in EMI research has been the study of different stakeholders’ perceptions about EMI. Using questionnaires and interviews, previous studies have explored different stakeholders’ attitudes towards EMI (e.g. Jensen & Thogersen, 2011; Tange 2010; Vinke 1995). However, the results have been inconclusive: while a large number of studies have indicated students’ and teachers’ positive attitudes towards EMI (e.g., Ball & Lindsay, 2013; Costa & Coleman, 2013), others have reported resistance to it (e.g., Doiz et al., 2013; Webb, 2002). Several other studies have reported stakeholders’ concerns about the possible relegation of the local language and culture (e.g., Gunnarsson, 2001). A third group has recognized the undeniable role of EMI in providing opportunities for international collaboration, English proficiency development, and better jobs (Airey, 2013; Griffiths, 2013).
For some other contexts, there is inadequate research on EMI, making it too early to make decisions about the possibility of its use. For instance, little is known about the role of English and the possibility of EMI application in Iranian universities (Ghorbani & Zahed Alavi, 2014; Sadeghi & Richards, 2015). Sadeghi and Richards (2015) found that English is “regarded as an important international language among Iranians living in Urmia [a major city in northwestern Iran] as well as one that accrues a number of social benefits to its users” (p.1). Ghorbani and Zahed Alavi (2014) also surveyed university teachers’ and learners’ views on EMI, supporting its potential use in Iran. On the contrary, Zandian (2015) maintains that, in the current Iranian English language education program, English language teaching and the related materials fail to increase learners’ intercultural understanding because they prefer (or better to say are forced) to work on what is in agreement with local beliefs and ideologies. She suggests migrant literature be used in Iranian English language classes (probably because of the perceived opposition to English and American literature!). We located no other studies addressing the potential use of EMI in Iran.

In our view, researching EMI and exploring the possibility of its use can have potential benefits especially at tertiary levels of education in Iran. The first reason is that an extremely small part of the world’s knowledge can possibly be constructed, communicated, and disseminated in the local language, Persian. The second reason is that Iranian academics are becoming more and more mobile in global higher education, and one cannot expect them to become part of global scientific communities without a good command of English. The third reason is that Iranian academic communities need access to cutting-edge research which cannot possibly be gained through translation because of the amazing speed at which new advances in science and technology are communicated. Finally, our perception is that the public view should be in favor of EMI as evidenced by the growing number of language schools dotting the country and the increasing rate of immigration among the educated. EMI, therefore, deserves more research attention. The present study was designed to explore teachers’ and learners’ views about the potential use of EMI in Iran and seeks answers to the following research questions:

1. What is Iranian university professors’ attitude toward the possible use of EMI in Iranian higher education?

2. Is Iranian university professors’ attitude toward EMI affected by their academic rank?

2. Review of Literature

Although researchers sometimes argue seriously against the spread of English as the medium of instruction, the related literature abounds with both advantages and disadvantages of EMI programs. They have several positive effects on students such as improving their language proficiency (Dalton-Puffer, 2011; Yang, 2015), increasing their chances of mobility and employability (Wächter & Maiworm, 2014), and enhancing their language learning motivation (Doiz, Lasagabaster, & Sierra, 2014; Yang, 2015). Moreover, English can empower the “subjugated and marginalized,
eroding the division between the ‘haves’ and the ‘have nots’” (Crystal, 2003, p. 24) by giving them a channel to voice their ideas. Also, for many scholars in countries where English is not the national language, publication in English could offer them better job opportunities and career development (Coleman, 2006). Improved proficiency in English is, of course, not highlighted here since EMI courses are primarily meant to teach content knowledge to students, not language (Zhang, 2017).

On the other hand, these programs have some obvious shortcomings. Potential challenges include teachers’ and students’ inadequate language proficiency, inefficiency of instructional methods, and lack of resources (Vu & Burns, 2014). Students’ proficiency plays a key role in the efficiency of EMI courses to the extent that students with low English proficiency might experience serious comprehension problems (Joe & Lee, 2012; Räsänen, 2008; Vinke, Snippe, & Jochems, 1998). In fact, students’ proficiency should be at a satisfactory level in order for EMI courses to be successful (Stryker & Leaver, 1997; Swain & Johnson, 1997); otherwise, they would feel uninterested to participate in classroom discussions and interactions (Airey & Linder, 2006) or, at best, have to spend more time reviewing the course content and completing their assignment after their classes (Evans & Morrison, 2011). Therefore, students themselves need more than a good command of general English; they should have an extensive repertoire of academic English vocabulary, critical thinking and evaluation skills, and the ability to work under time constraints and testing conditions (Salamone, 2015). In addition, as to instructors, Salomone (2015) believes if they are not fluent enough to use English confidently and competently, their lectures might “become scripted and lack spontaneity” (p. 252) by relying only on PowerPoint slides. Moreover, they might simplify the teaching content (Hu, Li, & Lei, 2014), significantly reduce classroom interactions (Hu & Lei, 2014; Jensen & Thøgersen, 2011), and resort to code-switching for conveying their points better (Hu et al., 2014; Vu & Burns, 2014). Unfortunately, when both students and teachers fail to possess very fluent English, their interactions in English would be oversimplified (Salamone, 2015).

Regarding the efficiency of the instructional method, Wilkinson (2005), for example, found that the use of EMI negatively affected the communication and teaching quality of Dutch content teachers. Furthermore, with respect to resources, Baldauf, Kaplan, Kamwangamalu, and Bryant (2011) found that insufficient budget is invested in EMI programs for textbook production and teacher training. Finally, there are concerns such as teachers’ and students’ unfamiliarity with academic literacies (Wilkinson, 2013) and understanding of the content knowledge, language proficiency, and the possible negative effects of EMI on the overall quality of the programs (Doiz, et al., 2011). The perception of the use of English as a threat to national language (Phillipson, 2015) and the possibility of ‘social discrimination’ resulting from the privileges associated with English proficiency (Truchot, 2008, cited in Salomone, 2015) are other limitations worthy of attention. To us, these are all important limitations that need to be addressed if high-ranking officials decide to use EMI in Iranian higher education. Failure to address these challenges would create considerable pressure for both students and teachers (Hsieh & Kang, 2010).
3. The Context of the study

The status of English has radically changed in Iran in the last few decades. After the Islamic Revolution in 1979 which was associated with hostility toward the west, the status of the English language was relegated to a ‘foreign’ language or even an ‘alien’ one, showing the negative political attitudes of the then Iranian officials towards the USA, the UK, and their language (Borjjan, 2013). A few years later, however, the situation began to change when Imam Khomeini (PBUH), the former supreme leader, stressed the importance of learning English as evidenced by his famous words printed on all national public school ELT textbooks. He states:

Earlier there was no need for foreign languages. Today, there is a need, however. The world’s living languages should be included in the syllabi of schools…. Today we can remain in Iran and promote ourselves in other parts of the world using another language [English]. (Translated by Sadeghi & Richards, 2015, p. 1)

This change has continued in the same direction so that, today, there is great interest in learning and teaching English as a foreign language documented by the presence and proliferation of many state/private English language schools, academic and professional journals/magazines in English, national/international conferences held in English, English TV channels, and the observable increase in use of English by the youth in public spheres (See also Sadeghi & Richards, 2015). English is a compulsory subject not only at junior and senior high schools but also at university where students have to take general English and ESP courses at BA, MA, and PhD levels (Sadeghi & Richards, 2015). Today, Iranian PhD candidates cannot defend their thesis and graduate unless they show proof of satisfactory English proficiency (by obtaining at least 50% of a standard national or international English proficiency examination). An important criterion for employment in both private and public sectors is also a good command of English. Moreover, the number of teenagers, adults, and even pre-school children taking language courses in the private sector is rapidly increasing. The authors understand that even low socio-economic status families send their children to private language schools in spite of their economic problems because this is what the majority of the families do!

EAP courses taught at Iranian higher education mainly aim “to bridge the gap between the learners’ general English reading competence and their ability to read discipline-based texts” (Atai & Tahririan, 2003, p. 4). As Kiany, Mahdavy, and Ghafar Samar (2011) claim, English is mainly used for reading comprehension purposes so as to gain access to new information and knowledge produced in other countries. According to the National Curriculum Document, the current educational system in Iran aims to develop students’ foreign language skills for spreading knowledge and Islamic Revolution ideologies (Yavari, 1990), paying special attention to Islamic-Iranian identity, national culture, and local beliefs (Mirhosseini & Khodakarami, 2015).
The use of EMI in Iranian higher education is currently very limited because the main language of instruction is Persian. Only English departments where students study English Literature, English Language Teaching, and/or Translation Studies use EMI. All other majors are offered in Persian. Professors can be questioned by officials if they decide to present their courses in English in other departments because Persian is the official language. They even have to publish at least one or two articles in Persian if they want to get promotion based on current regulations. The use of Persian is, therefore, emphasized in spite of the fact that many may like to use English as a medium of instruction. Some Iranian universities (e.g. Imam Khomeini International University in Qazvin, Chabahar University, University of Tehran Kish Branch, Sharif University Kish Branch, Iran University of Science and Technology, Aras University in Tabriz, and Imam Reza International University in Mashad) have started to admit more and more international students coming mainly from Asia and the Middle East. Even these universities mainly use Persian as the language of instruction.

4. Methodology

The current study employed a cross-sectional survey design. The researchers used questionnaires and structured written interview items to collect data on university teachers’ attitudes towards the possible use of EMI in Iranian higher education.

4.1. Participants

The participants included 60 university teachers who were randomly selected from a population of 70 teachers at the University of Kashan in the 2014-2015 academic year. The participants were from three faculties, namely, Humanities, Engineering, and Science. Sample size was determined based on Krejcie and Morgan’s (1970) table. Random data collection continued until the required sample size was reached. Table 1 shows participants’ gender and academic degree.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>F (%)</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>F (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>50(83.3)</td>
<td>&lt;Associate</td>
<td>50(83.3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>10(16.7)</td>
<td>Associate and &gt;</td>
<td>10(16.7)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60(100)</td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>60(100)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As Table 1 demonstrates, most teachers (83.3%) were lecturers and assistant professors, and only 10 out of 60 were associate or full professors. These percentages are reflections of the population because there are fewer teachers who have managed to promote to associate and professor status.
4.2. Instruments

In order to investigate students’ and teachers’ attitudes towards the possible use of EMI in the Iranian higher education system, two instruments were used: a questionnaire and a structured interview (written form).

Developed based on a similar instrument used to study university teachers’ attitudes towards EMI in Hong Kong (Tung, Lam, & Tsang, 1997), our teachers’ attitude questionnaire included 24 five-point Likert-scale items probing teachers’ level of (dis)agreement with statements on the use of EMI. After the modifications of the original items, they were translated into Persian to make sure participants in departments other than English had no comprehension problems when recording their answers. Back-translation and expert views were used for validating the questionnaire. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient of reliability for this instrument was 0.84, which indicates a high level of internal consistency.

The second instrument, the structured interview, asked teachers to record their answers in at least 150 words in response to the following two questions: 1) In your view, what are the reasons/justifications in favor of using EMI in Iranian universities? 2) In your view, what may prevent us from efficiently using EMI in our higher education? The interview questions were distributed and collected in three ways: institutional emails, institutional mailboxes, and personal delivery. In spite of the use of multiple delivery modes, only 18 out of 60 teachers provided answers to the two questions (a return rate of 30%).

4.3. Procedure

Copies of the questionnaire were sent through emails, mailboxes, or personal delivery during office hours by the second researcher. The researchers cooperated in the collection of written responses to the interview questions in the second phase with a time interval of one month. After the data collection, descriptive statistics for each individual item of the questionnaire were considered in the analysis. Interview data were also coded by the two researchers with an inter-coder reliability of 80%, and the results were summarized based on the recurrent themes. First, responses were reviewed by the researchers and the coding system was discussed and agreed. Then the two researchers worked independently to identify recurrent themes, and the data were reduced to manageable themes. Every recorded sentence in response to the interview questions was a unit of analysis. The sentences were, therefore, carefully read, content-analyzed, and grouped based on their conceptual contents.

5. Results

5.1. Questionnaire survey results

Based on simple frequencies and means, the analysis of the data obtained from teachers indicated that an unexpectedly high number of teachers marked the ‘no idea’ alternative for many questionnaire items, and around half of the respondents (30 out of 60) clearly agreed or disagreed with the statements. When we coded the interview data realizing that teachers expressed both pros and cons for the use of EMI, we interpreted
this pattern of responses as an indication of teachers’ difficulty in decision-making on the possible use of EMI in Iranian higher education. Based on the frequency of agreements and disagreements summarized in Table 2, it was found that in teachers’ views, learners’ low proficiency in English, problems with translating technical terms, inadequate supply of academic materials in Persian, and language transfer are the main issues of concern in using EMI. In teachers’ views, the target student population does not demonstrate the required English proficiency for the application of EMI. They believe that translating technical/academic terms into Persian is a problem when EMI is not used. They also agree that resources for teaching (e.g., textbooks, reference books, journals, etc.) are mainly in English. On the other hand, as the table shows, the lowest mean was assigned to the possible negative role of EMI in students’ intake. The respondents believed that using EMI will not necessarily lead to poor academic performance. The role of parents and the function of Persian in increasing students’ interest also received one of the lowest means.

Chi-square analyses were also carried out for each questionnaire item to explore differences between university teachers’ attitudes towards EMI across academic ranks.

Table 2. Teachers’ attitudes towards EMI

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item No.</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Agree F(%)</th>
<th>Disagree F(%)</th>
<th>Chi-square</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>The English proficiency of my students is not adequate to study non-language subjects (e.g., Physics, Mathematics) in English.</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>.681</td>
<td>7 (10)</td>
<td>6 (11.7)</td>
<td>3.31</td>
<td>.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>The greatest problem in using Persian as the medium of instruction is the need to translate a lot of technical terms.</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.659</td>
<td>6 (10)</td>
<td>9 (15)</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.419</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Resources for teaching, e.g., textbooks and reference books, are more readily available in English than in Persian.</td>
<td>2.65</td>
<td>.659</td>
<td>6 (10)</td>
<td>9 (15)</td>
<td>.160</td>
<td>.481</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Learning academic subjects through Persian will help understanding them in English.</td>
<td>2.45</td>
<td>.699</td>
<td>7 (11.7)</td>
<td>19 (31.7)</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>.284</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>I feel I can write better in English than in Persian.</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.869</td>
<td>16 (26.7)</td>
<td>10 (16.7)</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>.450</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>Studying in Persian will not help students with poor academic performance.</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.809</td>
<td>13 (21.7)</td>
<td>16 (26.7)</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>Students with good academic performance should study academic subjects in English.</td>
<td>2.30</td>
<td>.850</td>
<td>15 (25)</td>
<td>12 (20)</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>1 .245</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>Using Persian to study non-language subjects (e.g., Physics, Mathematics) will affect students’ English proficiency.</td>
<td>2.28</td>
<td>.761</td>
<td>11 (18.3)</td>
<td>21 (35)</td>
<td>.857</td>
<td>.281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>The Iranian Higher Education should provide universities with more resources in Persian.</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>.777</td>
<td>13 (21.7)</td>
<td>22 (36.7)</td>
<td>.343</td>
<td>.403</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The use of English as the medium of instruction will be useful in Iran.</td>
<td>2.18</td>
<td>.911</td>
<td>20 (33.3)</td>
<td>9 (15)</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>I feel it is easier to write examination questions in English than in Persian.</td>
<td>2.17</td>
<td>.924</td>
<td>21 (35)</td>
<td>8 (13.3)</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>.410</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>The Iranian government should raise the status of the Persian language in the country.</td>
<td>2.12</td>
<td>.804</td>
<td>16 (26.7)</td>
<td>21 (35)</td>
<td>1.70</td>
<td>.172</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>I have a good understanding of the language policy of the university where I teach.</td>
<td>2.05</td>
<td>.723</td>
<td>14 (23.3)</td>
<td>29 (48.3)</td>
<td>.410</td>
<td>.414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Lecturing in Persian allows the lesson to progress faster than lecturing in English.</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>.921</td>
<td>25 (41.7)</td>
<td>10 (16.7)</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td>.325</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Lecturing in Persian allows a teacher to go deeper into the conceptual content of the lesson than lecturing in English.</td>
<td>1.98</td>
<td>.911</td>
<td>25 (41.7)</td>
<td>11 (18.3)</td>
<td>.500</td>
<td>.725</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Teaching a class in Persian encourages students to speak uninhibitedly, thereby disrupting the order of the class.</td>
<td>1.93</td>
<td>.800</td>
<td>21 (35)</td>
<td>22 (36.7)</td>
<td>.410</td>
<td>.414</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>It is inappropriate for instructors to teach the same lesson mixing English and Persian.</td>
<td>1.90</td>
<td>.933</td>
<td>29 (48.3)</td>
<td>8 (13.3)</td>
<td>.014</td>
<td>.586</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>I support adopting mother-tongue education at the university where I teach.</td>
<td>1.88</td>
<td>.922</td>
<td>29 (48.3)</td>
<td>9 (15)</td>
<td>.057</td>
<td>.539</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Lecturing in Persian produces a better classroom atmosphere than lecturing in English.</td>
<td>1.83</td>
<td>.924</td>
<td>31 (51.7)</td>
<td>8 (13.3)</td>
<td>.132</td>
<td>.510</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td><strong>It is easier to teach non-language subjects (e.g., Physics, Mathematics) in English than in Persian.</strong></td>
<td>1.82</td>
<td>.813</td>
<td>26 (43.3)</td>
<td>19 (31.7)</td>
<td>4.00</td>
<td><strong>.050</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>Students do not take subjects taught in Persian seriously.</td>
<td>1.80</td>
<td>.732</td>
<td>23 (38.3)</td>
<td>26 (43.3)</td>
<td>1.09</td>
<td>.262</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Lecturing in Persian can increase students' interest in learning more than lecturing in English.</td>
<td>1.78</td>
<td>.904</td>
<td>32 (53.3)</td>
<td>9 (15)</td>
<td>.755</td>
<td>.480</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Parents are a major obstacle in the promotion of mother-tongue education.</td>
<td>1.63</td>
<td>.610</td>
<td>26 (43.3)</td>
<td>30 (50)</td>
<td>.214</td>
<td>.528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>English as the medium of instruction will certainly lead to poorer student intake.</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>.787</td>
<td>36 (60)</td>
<td>13 (21.7)</td>
<td>.557</td>
<td>.409</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The differences were significant only for items nine and 21: 9) It is easier to teach non-language subjects (e.g., Physics, Mathematics) in English than in Persian, and 21) The English proficiency of my students is not adequate to study non-language subjects (e.g., Physics, Mathematics) in English. Forty lecturers and assistant professors (80%) agreed that it was easier to teach non-language subjects in English while only five out of ten associate and full professors agreed with this statement ($X^2 = 4.00, p. \leq 0.05$). The low proficiency of the learners was a major problem for the teaching of non-language subjects in English in the views of 13 (26%) teachers with ranks below associate degree, but no teachers with associate or professor rank agreed with this statement ($X^2 = 3.319, p. \leq 0.05$).
5.2. Interview results

In addition to the questionnaire data presented above, the respondents recorded their answers to two written interview questions. The recorded responses were all read and analyzed sentence by sentence by both researchers. They were then coded in three levels. In the first level, each sentence was read to see whether it expressed an opinion for or against EMI. In the second level, the content was re-read to see what main theme was mentioned in the reason for/against EMI. Finally, five main categories of reasons (for/against) were identified for the reasons expressed by the respondents: academic, cultural, technological, social, and economic reasons. Table 3 shows the themes extracted from the interview statements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Themes for EMI</th>
<th>Themes against EMI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cultural</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technological</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Economic</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is noteworthy that teachers did not clearly express a position that was only for or against EMI and had mixed opinions about the academic, cultural, technological, social, and economic (dis)advantages of the use of EMI. This could partly be because of the fact that they were asked to express reasons both for and against EMI and partly due to the fact that it was difficult for them to clearly voice their opinions in the present educational context.

Teachers’ perceptions about academic reasons for/against EMI: Based on 165 sentences recorded by the participants on academic themes, we reduced all academic reasons in favor of EMI into the following sub-categories:

1) English is the language of science.
2) EMI can help students have access to a wide range of up-to-date sources in English.
3) English has considerable potential for the expression of scientific concepts.
4) Academic English is widely used all over the world.
5) The use of EMI leads to increased international academic exchange.
6) EMI helps students and professors participate in international academic events.
7) EMI can raise Iran’s academic standing.
8) Translated academic materials (to Persian) are mostly inefficient.
9) English is a necessity for all academic disciplines.
10) EMI facilitates access to and use of ICT.
11) EMI improves students’ academic language skills.
12) EMI helps the dissemination of local knowledge and publication of research results.
13) EMI facilitates the establishment of international academic networks/communities.
14) EMI provides us with direct access to original materials in English rather than their translated versions.
15) It provides excellent opportunities for bilingualism.
16) It helps positive language transfer.
17) EMI facilitates access to and use of the latest software and teaching materials.

On the other hand, the teachers stated academic reasons against the use of EMI along with their justifications for its use. They reported that it was not academically justified to apply EMI in Iran because of the following reasons:

1) Teachers’ and students’ English proficiency is inadequate.
2) Much time and budget is required to solve English proficiency problems.
3) English is neglected at the early stages of education in Iran.
4) Iranian Ministry of Education has failed to improve students’ basic language proficiency in lower levels.
5) The class atmosphere is very boring because of proficiency struggles.
6) There is much difficulty disseminating knowledge to the public if EMI is used.
7) Students and teachers perceive EMI as difficult.
8) There are insufficient teaching materials in English.
9) There is little local research in support of the use of EMI.

Teachers’ perceptions about cultural reasons for/against EMI: The written responses to interview items included 82 statements that were coded as cultural justifications for/against the use of EMI. Based on the reduction of these statements to recurrent themes, teachers provided the following cultural justifications for EMI use in the Iranian context:

1. Students will become familiar with different cultures.
2. EMI facilitates communication of cultural ideas, events, and values.
3. The use of EMI leads to positive cultural understanding.
4. It improves learners’ behavior in intercultural encounters.
5. It helps students understand their own culture in the light of other cultures.
6. It promotes cultural ties.
7. EMI helps prevent blind cultural judgments.
8. It helps resolve cultural misunderstandings.
9. It helps transmission of cultural ideas via books, films, events, etc.
10. It increases cultural tolerance.

Teachers believed that it was not culturally appropriate to use EMI because of the following reasons:

1. EMI can be a threat to our local language and culture.
2. Socio-cultural matters are communicated more efficiently in L1, i.e., Persian.
3. Students might adopt incompatible cultural norms by the use of EMI.
4. The use of EMI relegates our rich local cultural heritage.
The use of EMI leads to cultural invasion.

**Teachers’ perceptions about technological reasons for/against EMI:** From a technological point of view, the participants expressed their positive and negative attitudes towards the use of EMI in a total of 63 statements reduced to the following themes. The use of EMI in Iran was technologically justified because:

1. English is the language of the Internet and technology.
2. Language learning is nowadays basically technology-based.
3. English facilitates understanding manuals, guidelines, and instructions.
4. EMI helps learning about new technologies as they emerge.
5. Web-based teaching/learning could be facilitated via EMI.
6. EMI facilitates access to a lot of new software and teaching aids.
7. It improves student-teacher relationships through technology.

However, teachers provided the following technological reasons against the use of EMI:

1. Iranian universities are not well-equipped with modern technologies, laboratories, and ICT facilities.
2. There are serious problems with the speed and cost of using ICT and the Internet.
3. Access to ICT and the Internet is geographically limited, and
4. Improving the country’s technological infrastructures is very expensive.
5. There are digital literacy problems for both learners and teachers.

**Teachers’ perceptions about social reasons for/against EMI:** As to social reasons, teachers recorded 87 statements that pointed to social issues. The following social themes for the use of EMI were expressed:

1. EMI helps train global citizens.
2. EMI increases social interactions with native English-speakers.
3. EMI enhances learners’ socio-economic status because of improvements in proficiency.
4. EMI increases awareness of social differences.
5. EMI widens teachers’ and students’ world views.
6. EMI facilitates access to international mass communication media.

On the other hand, teachers believed that the implementation of EMI programs in Iran could not be socially beneficial since:

1. Some social values communicated via EMI are not compatible with local values.
2. People who are not taught through EMI will suffer from social disadvantages.
3. EMI can change the intact social atmosphere.
4. The use of EMI may imply that we are weak in our own socio-cultural values.
5. Many people are prejudiced about their social norms and values.
6. EMI may loosen local bonds by increasing global bonds.
Teachers’ perceptions about economic reasons for/against EMI: Out of 75 statements on economic reasons for/against the use of EMI, the following themes were extracted for the use of EMI:

1. The budget spent on translation of academic materials is higher than the cost of using EMI.
2. EMI improves the business of importing original books.
3. EMI increases qualifications for jobs requiring English.
4. The use of EMI can improve tourism industry.
5. Using EMI will improve textbook production market.

The following economic themes against the use of EMI were extracted from the teachers’ comments:

1. Training proficient teachers to use EMI is very costly.
2. It is difficult and costly to have access to up-to-date international materials.
3. The cost of translation is usually the same as the cost of importing original books.
4. Several stakeholders should cooperate to implement EMI programs/courses.
5. EMI will make education extremely expensive in Iran.
6. The use of EMI could exert much pressure on the Iranian government and families.
7. Low-income families will be sacrificed if EMI is adopted in Iranian education system.

6. Discussion

This study of university teachers’ perceptions about the possible use of EMI in Iran revealed three interesting results. The first finding was that in university teachers’ views, Iranian university students’ low proficiency in English, problems with translating technical terms into Persian, inadequate supply of academic materials in English, and language transfer issue were the main obstacles in implementing EMI programs. This finding is in line with previous international research that considers English proficiency and access to academic sources as two main concerns in the implementation of EMI programs (e.g., Vu & Burns, 2014). As Iranian university teachers reported, students’ proficiency will be an enormous challenge if Iran intends to use EMI. In fact, proficiency plays a key role in the efficiency of EMI courses because students with low English proficiency might experience serious comprehension problems (Joe & Lee, 2012; Räsänen, 2008; Vinke, Snippe, & Jochems, 1998).

The second interesting finding was that 80% of the targeted Iranian university teachers reported it was easier for them to teach non-language subjects (e.g., Physics, Mathematics) in English than in Persian. This could be due to the fact that most content area teachers tend to work with articles and textbooks originally written in English. They also publish most of their articles in English to the extent that Iranian Ministry of Science, Research, and Technology has recently pushed professors to have at least two publications in Persian for promotion purposes. To many teachers, the English proficiency of Iranian students is not at a satisfactory level to take courses taught in English. It seems the current situation in Iran is very similar to Denmark (See,
Thogersen, 2011) and Norway (See Ljosland, 2011) where there is increasing tendency towards implementation of university-level courses, especially post-graduate ones, in English.

The third major finding of the study was that, as fully described in the results section, there were reasons both for and against EMI in teachers’ views in all the five academic, cultural, technological, social, and economic dimensions. Iranian teachers’ reasons for the necessity of using EMI are in line with those enumerated by Costa and Coleman (2013) for the recent growth in the use of EMI. More specifically, rapid advances in academic content published in English, increase in knowledge sources such as books, papers, and theses in English, academic staff and student mobility, and, the necessity of English proficiency for employment are among the frequent themes addressed in support of EMI (See Costa and Coleman, 2013, pp. 3-4).

7. Conclusion
The present study was limited in that it targeted only teachers (disregarding students, administrators, etc.) in just a single university (rather than taking samples from the whole country) using questionnaires and interviews. These methodological decisions were influenced by considerations of time, cost, and type of data analysis. In spite of these limitations, we believe the results can be somehow revealing and have implications at both local and international scopes. At the local level, this can be the beginning of a pre-implementation analysis required for the more extensive use of EMI in Iranian higher education in future. At the international level, the qualitative results including social, cultural, academic, economic, and technological issues raised by the targeted Iranian professors can shed more light on accountability issues in planning a new EMI curriculum. Future research could possibly explore the perceptions and attitudes of both teachers and students towards the possible implementation of EMI at national levels through comprehensive surveys. Moreover, further research in the context of Iran and similar contexts should employ more powerful research techniques such as document analysis, observation of actual classes, and ethnography to explore the complexities involved in the use of EMI.

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References


Book Review

An Introduction to English Phonetics

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Year of Publication: 2017
Place of Publication: Ltd, Edinburgh, UK
Pages: P.ix-221
Reviewer: Khalid Ahmad Siddiq

Unbiased Phonetics Descriptions of English: “Not” of a Single Variation

As an English teacher, I have always struggled to find a book which thoroughly describes phonetics alone not phonology. Often I would choose some chapters from books such as Ladafoged and Johnstone’s “A Course in Phonetics 7th Ed.” In fact, I liked the exercises from that book, but the text gets a bit phonological in nature which makes students question many things since the course offered at our university is primarily leading learners to pronounce the language, so knowing how to produce sounds – consonants and vowels – is very crucial for them. Recently, I found another textbook which is based on American English pronunciation entitled “Pronouncing American English: Sounds, Stress and Intonation 3rd Edition” by Gertrude F. Orion. This book is also more of a pronunciation nature as the title entails; however, it provides enough information about articulatory phonetics based on American English. Nevertheless, Ogden’s book really provides a accumulative ground for phonetics of English based on articulation, transcription, and visualization through acoustic representations. In addition, this book is among the first ones that does not focus on a particular variation and provides description of English phonetics allowing the readers to come up with their own dialectal variations as they acquire skills of doing so through this book.

“I realized that describing the phonetics of ‘English’ is problematic because English is so phonetically heterogeneous” (Ogden, 2017, p. xi). Richard Ogden referring to the process and intention of drafting an auspiciously comprehensive book asserts that there are various varieties of English pronunciation and banking on one may interrupt the learning/teaching of phonetics to a diverse population of English speaking world. Although by saying so he primarily means the native varieties of English, he had done an extraordinary job of maintaining the descriptive notion of all native variations. In other words, he undertakes a more “descriptive phonetic framework” (Ogden, 2017, p. xi) rather than following a certain ‘model’. This perspective is quite in-line with the concept of “pragmatism” Kachru (1986, p.30) proposed while challenging the very prescriptivist or so purist perspectives (p. 30). By means of that, as
he states, students (although Ogden refers to his audience as “readers”) can look into their specific variety. Thus, this book introduces the general phonetics of English avoiding majorly sticking to one variation and somehow banking on the data from International Phonetic Alphabets (IPA) for transcription; articulatory and acoustic phonetics to illustrate and visualize the sound production, pattern and representations.

The book has 12 chapters most of which is not much different from its first edition in 2009. The book has one extra chapter placed as chapter 11 titled “Sounds and Structures.” The books “To Readers” section does not mention about this chapter and its use for the students. Furthermore, in the introductory chapter of the book, the author does not talk or even does not point out anything specifically about the new chapter. More in-depth details of this chapter is provided below. In addition to that the book provides a table of content, and table of figure which guides the readers to necessary sections of the book. Furthermore, the book has a glossary for the main terminology and provides reader-friendly definitions. The exercises are very carefully designed which gives a very hands on experience to the reader/learner/students. Later, Ogden provides “Discussion of the exercises” in which answers to the exercises where applicable are discussed. In addition, Ogden have provided a list of further reading suggestions. However, this list is not that different from the book’s first edition except for ten added references and a couple references were deleted and plus one of the reference was mention 2003 in first edition while in the second edition, it is mentioned 2002. Finally, a very reader friendly “Index” ends the book.

First, the book starts with language and linguistics description; and bridges phonetics and other branches of Linguistics proving the vitality and significance of phonetics in understanding spoken language. Then, as almost every introductory chapter have to do, this chapter talks about “what this book covers” in which Ogden summarizes the further chapters. Later, he exemplifies the fact that English is not “spelt phonetically” (p. 4).

Second, Ogden (2017) such meticulously gives heads up to the readers about the complexity of sounds and how “speech involves the careful co-ordination of lips, tongue, vocal folds, breathing and so on” (p. 7). He starts with the description of “breathing” and how most of the English sounds are pulmonic egressive. In addition, he categorizes “in-breaths” as turn-takers or floor keepers (although the terms are not used by Ogden) during a conversational discourse. Later, he describes the voicing quality and its anatomical location in the larynx in a quite detail. Furthermore, he describes all eleven places of articulation including a very distinctive feature of sound production “Coronal” (originally in quotes) pertaining the significance of tongue movements. Through this, he criticizes IPA for describing sounds based on the location of them in the mouth while ignoring the vitality of tongue. This observation pedagogically is very valid because while teaching, we have to demonstrate the tongue position for every sound in order to make the sound easy for students to acquire the necessary movements. Later, he conventionally describes the manner of articulation.

In contrast to other phonetics books (e.g., Ladafoged and Johnstone, 2015), Ogden categorizes stops majorly in two ways, (1) “the kind of airflow (oral vs. nasal)” and (2) length or duration of obstruction. For example, plosives and nasals are sounds that for the former there is a complete closure and the air escapes through mouth while the velum is raised and for the later the velum is lowered letting the air flow or escape through nose with an abrupt release. In addition to them, Ogden puts trills and taps (in some books flaps) as part of stops, but with partial closure in the oral tract. Further, he describes fricatives, resonant articulations to end the chapter with. As Ogden mentioned in the “to the reader” section that transcription will be one of the primary goal of this book, he introduces transcription and its types in a carefully exemplified manner in chapter three using the IPA alphabets. Then, after explaining the transcription and IPA, Ogden introduces the “acoustic representations” (p. 32). He asserted that his approach in this book regarding the acoustic representation of sounds and their patterns will be shown through – waveforms and spectrograms. Later until the end of this chapter, he provides ample number of acoustic phonetics examples through waveforms and spectrograms. He describes them very neatly providing each and every aspect of the waves and graphs which represent a target sounds.

Chapter four describes solely the voicing and voice quality of English sounds while maintaining the notion of not following any particular English variety. Ogden provides a very considerable amount of details about the voicing including – the Bernoulli effect, fundamental frequency and its effect on pitch and intonation, voice quality and its types – breathy voice, creaky voice, whisper and falsetto. He ends the chapter with calling voice quality “as a sociolinguistic marker” (p. 56). He brought up Glaswegian identity in Scotland effecting largely on the Glasgow
English. In addition, citing Stuart-Smith from Foulkes and Docherty 1999, Ogden explained that Glasgow variety of English is distinctive by the “age, gender, and [social] class” (p. 56).

The rest of the chapters (five to nine), greatly in details, discusses the properties of segments i.e., vowels and consonants. Ogden starts with vowels and justifies it with calling them the most significant building blocks of syllables and words. Later, he starts describing consonants – approximants, plosives, fricatives, and nasals respectively – both their articulatory and acoustic features in great details.

In chapter ten, Ogden pulls out examples from the spoken English of different varieties and shows that besides pulmonic egressive airstream, glottalic and velaric ingressive sound production is also possible not in conventional English but in conversational one. In addition, he illustrates the clicks, ejectives and implosives in spoken English the first one being a velaric and the latter two being a glottalic set of sounds.

Chapter eleven is a newly added one from the book’s first edition in 2009. In this chapter, Ogden analyzes the conversational or running speech of two female speakers from Slaford, a city in North West of England. Majorly the exemplification of this conversational analysis pave the ground for readers to identify the differences in conventional and conversational English. Meanwhile, it enables the readers to capture the minute phonetic details of spoken conversations. Ogden carefully describes the data and transcription conventions and slides into first broad transcription of the conversations, then narrow. In addition to the phonetic details, he captures the phonological features i.e., assimilation, and observes the effects of syntactic or structural co-occurrence on the phonetic data.

In conclusion, the book ends with a comprehensive conclusion providing a substantial amount of general overview on the entire book. Ogden, as implied and previously illustrated, banks on the idea that it does not want to teach the phonetics of a single variety of English, provides a very productive way of utterance (spoken English sample) analysis of various inner circle (Kachru and Smith, 2008) dialects of English. In the meantime, the books chapter eleven provides a firm ground for phonetic data analysis which, as Ogden targeted, will increase the readers (in our case ‘students’) ability to look into their own variety of English in “reasonable details” (p. xi). In addition, the author encourages the readers to explore new phonetic horizons in their community (p. 3). The book in its totality is quite rich in terms of its exposure to the English language variety spoken in the inner circle and it also widely provides a sample for data analysis and data visualization.

References